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English synonymes explained in aiphabeti


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# ENGLISH SYNONYMES 

## EXPLAINED

## IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER

## WITH COPIOUS ILLUSTRATIONS AND EXAMPLES DRAWN FROM TIE BEST WRITERS

TO WHICH IS NOW ADDED AN INDEX TO THE WORDS

BY<br>GEORGE CRABB, A.M.

$=$

NEW EDITION WITH ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS

Sed cum idem frequentlssimè plura significent quod avvavvica voeator, jam sunt alite alla honestiora, gublimiora, nitidiora, jucundiora, vocaliora.

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## PREFACE.

IT may seem surprising that the English, who have employed their talents enccessfully in every branch of literature, and in noue more than in that of philology, should yet have fallen below other nations in the study of their bynonymes. It cannot, however, be denied that, while the French and Germans have had eeveral considerable works on the subject, we have not a single writer who has treated it in a ecientific manner adequate to ite importance: not that I wieh by this remark to depreciate the labors of those who bave preceded me, but. simply to assign it as a reason why I have now been induced to come forward with an attempt to fill up what is considered a chasm in English literature.

In the prosecution of my undertaking, I have profited by everything which has been written in any language upon the subject; and although I always pursued my own train of thought, yet whenever I met with anything deserving of notice I adopted it, and referred it to the anthor in a note. I had not proceeded far before I found it necessary to restrict myself in the choice of my materials, and accordingly laid it down as a rule not to compare any words together which were sufficiently distinguished from each other by striking features in théir signification, such as abandon and quit, which require a comparisqn with others, though not necessarily with themselves; for the same reason I was obliged to limit myeelf, as a rule, to one authority for each word, unless where the case seemed to require further exemplification. But, notwithstanding all my care in this respect, I was compelled to curtail much of what I had written, for fear of increasing the volume to an inconvenient size.

Althongh a work of this description does not afford mnch scope for system and arrangement, yet I laid down to myself the plan of arranging the words according to the extent or universality of their acceptation, placing those first whioh had the most general sense and applicatiou, and the rest in order. By this plan I fonnd myself greatly aided in analyzing their differences, and I trust that the reader will thereby be equally beuefited. In the choice of authorities, I have been guided by various considerations,
namely, the appropriateness of the examples; the classic pority of the author ; the justness of the sentiment; and, last of all, the variety of the writers. But I am persuaded that the reader will not be dissatisfied to find that I have showu a decided preference to such anthors as Addison, Johuson, Dryden, Pope, Milton, etc. At the same time it is bnt just to observe that this selectiou of authorities has been made by an actual perusal of the authors, without the assistance of Johnsou's "Dictionary."
For the sentiments seattered through this work I offer no apology, although $I$ am aware that they will not fall in with the views of many who may be competent to decide on its literary merits. I write not to please or displease any description of persous ; but I trust that what I have written according to the dictates of my mind will meet the approbation of those whose good opinion I am most solicitous to obtain. Should auy object to the introductiou of morality in a work of science, I heg them to consider that a writer whose busiuess it was to mark the nice shades of distiuction betweeu words closely allied could not do justice to his subject without enteriug into all the relations of society, and showing, from the acknowledged sense of many moral and religious terms, what has heen the general sense of mankind on many of the most important questions which have agitated the world. My first object certainly has been to assist the philological inquirer in ascertaiuing the force and comprehension of the English language; yet I should bave thought my work but half completed had I made it a mere register of verbal distinctions. While others seize every opportanity unblusbiugly to avow and zealously to propagate opinions destructive of good order, it would ill become any iudividual of contrary sentiments to shrink from stating his convictions when called opon, as he seems to be, by an occasiou like that which has now offered itself. As to the rest, I throw myself on the indulgence of the public, with the assurance that, having nsed every endeavor to deserve their approbation ${ }_{1}$ I shall not make an appeal to their candor in vain.

# ENGLISH SYNONYMES 

EXPLAINED.

TO ABANDON, DESERT, FORSAKE, RELINQUISH.

The idea of leaving or separating one's self from an object is conmon to these terms, which vary in the circumstances of the action; the two former are more positive acts than the two latter. To ABANDON, from the German ban, a proclamation of outlawry, signifying to put out of the protection of the law; nr, a privative, and bandum, an ensign, i. e., to cast off, or leave one's colors ; is to leave thoroughly, to withdraw protection or support. To DESERT, in Latin desertus, from de privative, and sero, to sow; signifying to leave off sowing or cultivating; and FORSAKE, compounded of the privative for and sake or seek, signifying to leave off seeking, are partial modes of leaving; the former by withholding one's co-operation, the latter by withdrawing one's society. Abandoning is a violation of the most sacred ties, and exposes the object to every misery; desertion is a breach of honor and fidelity; it deprives a person of the assistance or the countenance which he has a right to expect; by forsaking, the kindly feelings are hurt, and the social ties are broken. A bad mother abandons her offspring; a soldier deserts his comrades; a man forsakes his companions.

He who abandons his offspring or corrupts them by his example, perpetrates a greater evil than a murdarer.

HAWEESWORTR.
After the death of Stella, Swift's benevolence was contracted, and his severity exasperated: he drove his sequaintance from bis tahle, and wondered why he wis deserted.
Forsake me not thns, Adam!
Jorngon.

Things as well as persons may to abandoned, deserted, or forsaken; thinga only are relinquished. To abandon may be an act of necessity or discretion, as a captain abandons a vessel when it ia no longer safe to remain in it. Desertion is often a dereliction of duty, as to desert one's post; and often an indifferent action, particularly in the sense of leaving any place which has had one's care and attention bestowed upon it, as people desert a village, or any particular country where they have been established. Forsaking is an indifferent action, and implies simply the leaving something to which one has been attached in one form or another; a person forsalies a certain house which he has been accustomed to frequent; birds forsake their neats when they find them to have been discovered. To RELINQUISH is an act of prudence or imprudence; men often inadvertently relinquish the fairest prospecta in order to follow some favorite scheme which terminates in their ruin.

If he hides it privately in the earth or other secret place, and it is discovered, the finder acquires no property therein, for the owner hath not by this act declared any intention to abandon it.

Blacketone.
He who at the approach of avil betrays his trust, or dessrts his post, is branded with cowardice.

Haweeswoath.
When learning, ahilities, and what is excellent in the world forsake the church, we may easily foretell its ruin without the gift of prophecy.

Sovtr.
Men are wearied with the toil which they bear, but cannot ind in their hearts to relinquish it.

Steelin.
We may desert or forsake a place, but the former comprehends more than the
latter; a place that is deserted is left by all, and left entirely, as described in

The Deserted Village. Gowdsmite.
A place may be forsaken by individuals or to a partial extent.

Macdonald and Macleod have lost many of its tenants and laborers, but Kaarsa has not yet been foreaken by its inhabitants. Jounson.

## TO ABANDON, RESIGN, RENOUNCE, abdicate.

The idea of giving up is common to these terms, which signification, though analogous to the former, admits, howerer, of this distinction, that in the one case we separate ourselves from an object, in the other we send or cast it from us. ABANDON, v. To abandon, desert. RESIGN, from re and signo, signifies to sign away or back from one's self. RENOUNCE, in Latin renuncio, from nuncio, to tell or declare, is to declare off from a thing. ABDICATE, from $a b$, from, and dico, to speak, signifies likewise to call or cry off from a thing.

We abandon and resign by giving up to another; we renounce by sending away from ourselves; we abandon a thing by transferring it to another; in this manner a debtor abandons his goods to his creditors: we resign a thing by transferring our possession of it to another; in this manner we resign a place to a friend; we renounce a thing by simply ceasing to bold it; in this manner we renounce a claim or a profession. As to renounce signified originally to give up by word of mouth, and to resign to give up by signature, the former is consequently a less formal action than the latter; we may renounce by implication; we resign in direct terms; we renounce the pleasures of the world when we do not seek to enjoy them; we resign a pleasure, a profit, or advantage, of which we expressly give up the enjoyment. To abdicate is a species of informal resignation. A monarch abdicates his throne who simply declares his will to cease to reign; but a minister resigns his office when he gives up the seals by which he held it. We abandon nothing but that over which we have had an entire control; we abdicate nothing but that which we bave held by a certain right, but we may resign or re-
nounce that which may be in our posses. sion only by an act of violence; a usurper cannot be said properly to abandon his people or abdicate a throne, but he may resign his power or renounce his pretensions to a throne.
The passive Gods beheld the Greeks defile Their temples, and alundon to the spoil Their own ahodes.

Deydem.
It would be a good appendix to "the art of living and dying," if any one would write "the art of growing old," and teach men to resign their pretensions to the pleasures of youth.

Sthele.
For ministers to be silent in the cause of Christ is to renounce it, and to fly is to desert it.

Solte.
Mnch gratitude is due to the Nine from their favored poets, and mnch hath been paid: for even to the present hour they are invoked and worshipped by the sons of verse, while all the other deities of Clympus have either abdicated their thrones, or been dismissed from them with contempt.

Comberlann.
To abandon and resign are likewise used in a reflective sense; the former in the bad sense, to denote the giving up the understanding to the passion, or the giving up one's self, mind, and body to bad practices; the latter in the good sense, to denote the giving up one's will and desires to one's circumstances or whatever is appointed. The soldiers of Hannibal abandoned themselves to pleasure at Capua. A patient man resigns himself to his fate, however severe that may be.

Reason ever continues to accuse the business and injnstice of the passions, and to distorb the repose of those who abandon themselves to their dominion.

Kenuett. Pascal's Thoughts.
It is the part of every good man's religion to resign himself to God's will.

Cumberland.
When resign is taken in the bad sense, it is not so complete a giving up of one's self as abandonment.

These three leading desires for honors, knowledge, and pleasures, constitute, as may be, three factions, and those whom we compliment with the name of philosophers have really doo? nothing else but resigned themselves to one uf these three.

Kennett. Pascal's Thoughts.

## TO ABASE, HUMBLE, DEGRADE, DISGRACE, DEBASE.

To ABASE expresses the strongest degree of self-humiliation; like the French abaisser, it signifies literally to bring down
or make low, which is compounded of the intensive syllable $a$ or ad, and baisser, from bas, low, in Latin basis, the base, which is the lowest part of a column. It is at present used principslly in the Scripture language, or in a metaphorical style, to imply the laying aside all the high pretensions which distinguish us from our fellow-creatures - the descending to a state compsratively low and mean. To HUMBLE, in French humilier, from the Latin humilis, humble, and humus, the ground, naturally marks a prostration to the ground, and figuratively a lowering of the thoughts and feelings. According to the principles of Christianity whoever abaseth himself shall be exalted, and according to the same principles whoever reflects on his own littleness and unworthiness will daily humble himself before his Maker. The abasement consists in the greatest possible dejection of spirit which, if marked by an outward act, will lead to the utmost prostration of the hody; humbling, in comparison with abasement, is an ordinary sentiment and expressed in the ordinary way.

## Absorbed in that immensity I see, I shrink abased, and yet aspire to thee.

Cowper.
My soul is justly humbled in the dust. Rowe.
Abase and humble have regard to persons considered absolutely, degrade and disgrace to their relative situation. To DEGRADE (v. To disparage) signifies to lower in the estimation of others. It supposes a state of elevation either in outward circumstances or in public opinion. To DISGRACE, compounded of the privative dis and grace, or favor, properly implies to put out of favor, which is always attended with circumstances of more or less ignominy. To abase and humble one's self may be meritorious acts as suited to the infirmity and fallibility of human nature, but to degrade or disgrace one's self is always a culpable sct. The penitent man humbles himself, the contrite man abases himself, the man of rank degrades himself by a too familiar deportment with his inferiors, he disgraces himself by his vices. The great and good man may also be abased and humbled without being degraded or disgraced; his glory follows him in his
abasement or humiliation, his greatness protects him from degradation, and his virtue shields him from disgrace.
"Tis immortality, 'tis that alona
Amidst life's pains, abasemente, emptiness, The soul can comfort.

Yonng.
If the mind be curbed and humbled too mach in children; if their spirits be abased and broken much by too strict a hand over them, they lose all their vigor and industry.

Loces.
To degrade has most regard to the externsl rank and condition, disgrace to the moral estimation and character. Whatever is low and mean is degrading for those who are not of mean condition; whatever is immoral is disgraceful to all, but most so to those who ought to know better. It is degrading to a nobleman to associate with prize-fighters and jockeys, it is disgraceful for him to countenance a violation of the laws which be is bound to protect. The higher the rank of the individusl, the greater is his degradation; the higher his previous character, or the more sacred his office, the greater his disgrace if he act inconsistent with its duties.
So deplorable is the degradation of our natures, that whereas before we were the image of God, we now only retain the image of men.

Sodtr.
He that walketh uprightly, is secure as to his honor and credit; he is sure not to come off disgrace fully either at home in his own approbation, or abroad in the estimation of men.

Barbow.
Persons may sometimes be degraded and disgraced at the will of others, but with a similar distinction of the words. He who is not treated with the outward honor and respect he deserves is degraded; he who is not regarded with the same kindness as before is disgraced.

When a hero is to be pulled down and degraded, it is best done in doggerel. Abdison,

Philips died honored and lamented before any part of his reputation had withered, and before his patron St. John had diagraced him.

Jogmson.
These terms may be employed with a similar distinction in regard to things, and in that case they are comparable with debase. To DEBASE, from the intensive syllable de and base, signifying to make base, is applied to whatever may lose its purity or excellence.

All higher knowledge, in her presence, falls Degraded.

Milton.
And where the vales with violets once were crown'd,
Now knotty burrs and thorns disgrace the ground.
The great masters of composition know very well that many an elegant word becomes improper for a poet or an orator when it has heen dobased by common use.

Addison.

## TO ABASH, CONFOUND, CONFUSE.

ABASH is an intensive of abase, signifying to abase thoroughly in spirit. CONFOUND and CONFUSE are derived from different parts of the same Latin verb confundo and its participle confusus. Confundo is compounded of con and fundo, to pour together. To confound and confuse then signify properly to melt together or into one mass what ought to be distinct; and figuratively, as it is here taken, to derange the thoughts in sucb manner as that they seem meltcd together.

Abash expresses more than confound, and comfound more than confuse. Abash has regard to the spirit which is greatly abased and lowered, confound has regard to the faculties which are benumbed and crippled; confuse has regard to the feelings and ideas which are deranged and perplexed. The haughty man is abashed when he is humbled in the eyes of others; the wicked man is confounded when his villany is suddenly detected; a modest person may be confused in the presence of his superiors.

[^0]Abash is always taken in a bad sense; neither the scorn of fools, nor the taunts of the oppressor, will abash him who has a conscience void of offence toward God and man. To be confounded is not always the consequence of guilt: superstition and ignorance are liable to be confounded by extraordinary phenomena; and Providence sometimes thinks fit to confound the wisdom of the wisest by
|signs and wonders, far above the reach of human comprehension. Confusion is at the best an infirmity more or less excusable according to the nature of the cause: a steady mind and a clear head are not easily confused; but persons of quick sensibility cannot always preserve a perfect collection of thought in trying situations; and those who have any consciousness of guilt, and are not very hard. ened, will be soon thrown into confusion by close interrogatories.
They heard and were $a b a s h ' a$, and up they sprung Upon the wing: as when men wout to watch On dnty, sleeping found by whom they dread, Ronse, and bestir themselves ere well awake.

Milton.
Whereat amaz'd, as one that unaware
Hath dropp'd a precious jewel in the flood, Qr 'stonish'd as night-wanderers often are,

Their light blown ont in some mistrustful wood, Even so confounded in the dark ahe lay.

Shakgpeare.
The varions evils of disease and poverty, pain and sorrow, are frequently derived from others; but shame and confusion are supposed to proceed from ourselves, and to be incurred only by the misconduct which they furnish.

Haweeworth,

## TO ABATE, LESSEN, DIMINISH, DECREASE.

ABATE, from the French abattre, signified originally to beat down, in the active sense; to come down, in the neuter sense. DIMINISH, or, as it is sometimes written, minish, from the Latin diminuo, and minuo, to lessen, and minus, less, expresses, like the verb LESSEN, the sense of either making less or becoming less. DECREASE is compounded of the privative $d e$ and crease, in Latin creseo, to grow, signifying to grow less.

Abate, lessen, and diminish, agree in the sense of becoming less and of making less; decrease implies only becoming less. Abate respects only vigor of action, and applies to that which is strong or violent, as a fever abates, pain, anger, etc., abates; lessen and diminish are applied to size, quantity, and number, but lessen is much seldomer used intransitively than diminish; things are rarely said to lessen of themselves, but to diminish. The passion of an angry man ought to be allowed to abate before any appeal is made to his understanding. Objects apparently $d i$ minish as they recede from the view.

## ABHOR

My wonder abated, when, upon locking aronnd me, 1 saw most of them attentive to three sireds clothed like goddesses, and diatinguished by the names of Sloth, Ignorance, and Pleasure.

ADDIGON.
Cassini allows, I think, ted Fredch toilsea of elevation for every line of mercury, adding one foot to each ten, two to the second, three to the third, and so on; hut surely the weight of the air $d i$ minishes in a mach greater proportion.

Bnydone.
Abate, transitively taken, signifies to bring down, $i$. e., to make less in height or degree by means of force or a particular effort, as to abate pride or to abate misery; lessen and diminish, the former in the familiar, the latter in the grave style, signify to make less in quantity or magoitude by an ordinary process, as the size of a room is lessened, the credit of a person is diminished. We may lessen the number of our evils by not dwelling upon them; nothing diminishes the lustre of great deeds more than cruelty.

Tully was the first who observed that friendship improves happiness and abates misery.

ADDISON.
He sought fresh fountains in a foreign soil ; The pleasure tessened. the attending toll.

## ADDIson.

The freeness of the giver, his not exacting seiurity, nor expressing conditions of return, doth not diminish, but rather increase the debt.

Barnow.
To decrease is to fall off ; a retreating army will decrease rapidly when, exposed to all the privations and hardships attendant on forced marches, it is compelled to fight for its safety; some things decrease no gradually that it is some time before they are observed to be diminished.
These leaks shall then decrease; the sails once more
Direct our course to some relieving shore.
Falconer.
The decrease is the process, the diminution is the result; as a decrease in the taxes causes a diminution in the revenue. The term decrease is peculiarly applicable to material objects which can grow less, diminution is applicable to objects generally which may become or be actually less from any cause.

If this spring had its origin from rain and vapor, there would be an increase and decrecese of the one as there should happen to be of the other.

Derfam.
If Parthenissa can now possess her own mind, and think as little of her beauty as she ought to have done when she had it, there will be no great diminution of her charma.

Huones.

## ABETTOR, ACCESSARY, ACCOMPLICE.

ABETTOR, or one that abets, gives aid and encouragement by counsel, promises, or rewards. An ACCESSARY, or one added and annexed, takes an active, though subordinate part. An ACCOMPLICE, from the word accomplish, implies the principal in any plot, who takes a leading part and brings it to perfection. Abcttors propose, accessaries assist, accomplices execute. The abettor and accessary, or the abettor and accomplice, may be one and the same person; but not so the accessary and accomplice. In every deep-laid scheme there must be abettors to set it on foot, accessaries to co-operate, and accomplices to put it into execution: in the Gunpowder Plot there were many secret abettors, some noblemen who were accessaries, and Guy Fawkes the principal accomplicc.
I speak this with an eye to those cruel treat. ments which men of all sides are apt to give the characters of those who do not agree with them. How many men of honor are exposed to public obloquy and reproach ! Those, therefore, who are either the instruments or abettors in such infernal dealings mught to be looked upon as persons who make nse of religion to support their cause, not their cause to promote religion.

## Addison.

Why are the French obliged to lend us a part of their tongue before we can know they are conquered? They must be made accessaries to their own disgrace; as the Britons were formerly so artiffially wrought in the curtain of the Roman theatre, that they geemed to draw it up in order to give the spectators an opportunity of seeing their own defeat celebrated on the stage.

ADDIson.
Either he picks a purse, or robs a house,
Or is accomplice with some knavish gang.
Cumberland.
Accomplice, like the other terms, may be applied to otber objects besides criminal offences.

Parliament cannot with any great propriety punish others for that in which they themselves have been accomplices.

Bdake.

## TO ABHOR, DETEST, ABOMINATE, LOATHE.

These terms equally denote a sentiment of aversion. ABHOR, in Latin abhorreo, compounded of $a b$, from, and horrea, to stiffen with horror, signifies to start from with a strong emotion of horror. DETEST, in Latik detestor, com.
pounded of $d e$, from or against, and testor, to bear witness, signifies to condemn with indignation. ABOMINATE, in Latin abominatus, participle of abominor, compounded of $a b$, from or against, and ominor, to wish ill-luck, signifies to hold in religious abhorreace, to detest in the highest possible degree. LOATHE, in Saxon lathen, may possibly be a variation of load, in the sense of overioad, because it expresses the nausea which commonly attends an overloaded stomach.

What we abhor is repugnant to our moral feelings ; what we detest is opposed to our moral principles; what we abominate does violence to our religious and moral sentiments; what we loathe offends our physical taste. We abhor what is base and ungenerous, we detest hypocrisy; we abominate profanation and open impiety; we loathe food when we are sick. The lie that flaters Iabhor the most. Cowper. This thirst of kindred blood my sons detest.

Dryonen.
The passion that ls excited in the fable of the sick kite is terror, the object of which is the despair of him who perceives himself to be dying, and has reason to fear that bis very prayer is an abomination.

Hawkesworth.
No costly lords the sumptuous banquet deal, To make him loathe his vegetable meal.

Goldsmite.
In the moral acceptation loathe is a strong figure of speech to mark the abhorrence and disgust which the sight or thought of offensive objects produce.
Revolving in his mind the stern command, He longs to fly, and loathes the charming land.

Dryden.

## TO ABIDE, SOJOURN, DWELL, LIVE, RESIDE, INHABIT.

ABIDE, in Saxon abitan, old German beiten, comes from the Arabic or Persian bitt or $b i t$, to pass the night, that is, to make a partial stay. SOJOURN, in French séjourner, from sub and diurnus, in the daytime, signifies to pass the day, that is, a certain portion of one's time, in a place. DWELL, from the Danish dwelger, to abide, and the Saxon dwelian, Dutch dwalen, to wander, conveys the idea of a mevable habitation, such as was the practice of living formerly in tents. At present it implues a stay in a place by way of residence, which is expressed in common discourse by the word LIVE.
for passing one's life. RESIDE, from the Latin $r e$ and sideo, to sit down, conveys the full idea of a settlement. INHABIT, from the Latin habito, a frequentative of habeo, signifies to have or occupy for a permanency.
The length of stay implied in these terms is marked by a certain gradation. Abide denotes the shortest stay; to sojourn is of longer continuance; dwell comprehends the idea of perpetuity in a given place, but.reside and inhabit are partial and local-we dwell only in one spot, but we may reside at or inhabit many places. These words have likewise a reference to the state of society. Abide and sojourn relate more properly to the wandering habits of men in a primitive state of society. Dwell, as implying a stay under a cover, is universal in its application; for we say dwell either in a palace, a house a cottage, or any shelter. Live, reside, und inhabit, are confined to a civilized state of society; the former applying to the abodes of the inferior orders, the latter to those of the higher classes. The word inhabit is never used but in connection with the place inhabited.
The Easterns abode with each other, sojourned in a country, and dwelt in tents. The angels abode with Lot that night; Abram sojourned in the land of Canaan; the Israelites dwelt in the land of Goshen. Savages either dwell in the cavities which nature has formed for them, or in some rude structure erected for a temporary purpose; but as men increase in cultivation they build places for themselves which they can inhabit: the poor have their cottages in which they can live; the wealthy provide themselves with superb buildings in which they reside.

From the first to the last of man's abode on earth, the discipline must never be relaxed of guarding the heart from the dominion of passion.

Blain.
By the Israelites' sojourning io Egypt, God made way for their bondage there, and their bondage for a glorious deliverance throngh tbose prodigious manifestations of the Divine power.

South.
Heace from my sight! Thv father cannot bear thee;
Fly with thy infamy to some dark cell, Where, on the confines of eternal night,
Mourning, misfortunes, cares, and anguish dioell.
Masanoer.

Being obliged to remove my habitation, I was lad by my avil genlos to a convedient house in tha streat whare tha nobility reside. Johnson.

By good company, in the place which I have the misfortune to inhabit, we understand not always those from whom good cant be learned.

Jotingon.

## ABILITY, CAPACITY.

ABILITY, in French habilité, Latin habilitas, comes from able, habile, habilis, and habeo, to have, because possession and power are inseparable. CAPACITY, in French capacité, Latin capacitas, from capax and capio, to receive, marks the abstract quality of being able to receive or hold.

Ability is to capacity as the genus to the species. Ability comprehends the power of doing in general, without specifying the quality or degree; capacity is a particular kind of ability. Ability may be either physical or mental ; capacity, when said of persons, is mental only. Ability respects action, capacity respects thought. Ability always supposes something able to be done; capacity is a mental endowment, and always supposes something ready to receive or hold.
Riches ars of no usa if slekness take from us the ability of enjoying them. Swift,
In what I hava done I have rather given a proof of my willingness and desire than of my ability to do him (Shakspeare) justice. Pope.
Tha objact is too big for our capacity when we would comprehend the circumferenca of a world.

ADDIAON.
Ability is nowise limited in its extent; it may be small or great: capacity of itself always implies a positive and superior degree of power, although it may be modified by cpithets to denote different degrees; a boy of capacity will have the advantage over his school-fellows, particularly if he be classed with those of a dull capacity.
St. Paol requireth learning in presbyters, yea soch learning as doth enable them to exhort in doctrine which is sound, and disprove them that gainsay it; what measure of ability in such things shall serve to make men capable of that kind of offlice, he doth not determine. Hoosea.
Sir Francis Bacon's oapaoity seemen to have grasped all that was revealed in books before.

Huones.
Abilities, when used in the plural only, is confined to the signification of mental endowments, and comprehends the opera-
tions of thought in general ; capacity, on the other hand, is that peculiar endowment, that enlargement of understand. ing, that exalts the possessor above the rest of mankind. Many men have the abilities for managing the concerns of others, who would not have the capacity for conducting a concern of their own. We should not judge highly of that man's abilities who could only mar the plans of others, but had no capacity for conceiving and proposing anything better in their stead.
I grieve that our aenate is dwindled into a achool of rhetoric whare men rise to display thair abilities rather than to deliberate.

Sir W. Jones.
An heroic poem requires the accomplishment of aome great undertaking which requires tha duty of a soldier asd the capacity of a general.

Driden.

## ABILITY, FACULTY, TALENT.

These terms all agree in denoting a power. ABILITY is, as in the preceding case, the general term. FACULTY, in Latin facultas, changed from facilitas and facio, to do, signifying doableness, or an ability to do; and TALENT, in Latin talentum, a Greek coin exceeding one hundred pounds sterling, and employed figuratively for a gift, possession, or powerdenote definite kinds of power.

Ability relates to human power generally, by which a man is enabled to act; it may vary in degree and quality with times, persons, and circumstances; health, strength, and fortune are abilities; facul$t y$ is a gift of nature directed to a certain end, and following a certain rule. An ability may be acquired, and consequently is properly applied to individuals, an ability to speak extempore or an ability to write; but a faculty belongs to the species, as a facuity of speech, or of bearing, ctc.

Ability to teach by sermons is a grace which God doth bestow on them whom he maketh sufficient for the commendable discharge of their duty.

Hooker.
No fruit our palate courts, or Hower our arnell,
But on ita fragrant bosom nations dwell,
All form'd with proper faculties to share
The daily bountiea of their Maker's care.
Jenninges.
Ability being in general the power of doing, may be applied in its unqualified
sonse to the whole species, without any distinction.

Human ability is an unequal match for the vialent and anforeseen vicissitudes of the world.

Blair.
Faculty is always taken in a restricted sense, although applied to the species.

The vitsl faculty is that by which life is preserved, and the ordinary functions of speech are preserved; the animal faculty is what conducts the operations of the mind.

Quinct.
Faculty and talent are both gifts of nature, but a faculty is supposed to be given in an equal degree to all, a talent in an unequal degree; as the faculty of seeing, the talent of mimiery, the talent for music: a faculty may be impaired by age, disease, or other circumstances; a talent is improved by exercise.
Reason is a noble fuculty, and, when kept within its proper sphere, and applied to useful purposes, proves a means of exalting human creatures almost to the rank of superior beings.

Beattie.
Tis not indeed my talent to engage In lofty trifles, or to swell my page With wind and noise.

Dryden.
As all these terms may be applied to different objects, they are aptly enough used in the plural to denote so many distinct powers: abilities denote all our powers generally, corporeal and mental, but more especially the latter; faculties relate to the ordinary powers of body and mind, as when we speak of a person's retaining or losing his faculties; talents relate to the particular gifts or powers which may serve a beneficial purpose, as to emvloy one's talents usefully.
Amidst the agitationa of popnlar government, occasions will sometimes be afforded for eminent abilitieg to break forth with peculiar lustre.

Blair.
It may be observed that young persons little acquainted with the world, and who have not been used to approach men in power, are commonly struck with an awe which takes away the free use of their faculties.

Brinhe.
Weakness of counsels, fluctuation of opinion, and deficiency of spirit marked his administration during an inglorions period of sixteen years, from which England did not recover until the mediocrity of his ministerial talents was controlled by the ascendency of Pitt.

Coxe.

## ABILITY, DEXTERITY, ADDRESS.

ABILITY is, as before observed ( $v$. Ability, Cappacity), a general term, without
any qualification. DEXTERITY, from dexter, the right hand, signifying me chanical or manual facility; and AD. DRESS, signifying a mode of address, are particular terms. Ability may be used to denote any degree, as to do according to the best of one's ability; and it may be qualified to denote a small degree of ability.
It is not passible for our small party and amall ability to extend their operationa ao far as to be much felt among numbera.

Cowper.
Dexterity and address are positive degrees of ability.

It is often observed that the race is won as much by the dexterity of the rider as by the Figor and fleetness of the animal.

## Eatal of Bath.

I could produce innumerable instances, from my own observation, of events imputed to the profound skill and address of a minister which in reality were either mere cffects of negligence, weakness, humor, or pride, or at best the natural course of things left to themselves. SWIFT.

Ability is, however, frequently taken in a restricted sense for a positive degree of ability, which brings it still nearer to the two other terms, from which it differs only in the application; ability in this case refers to intellectual endowment generally, dexterity relates to a particular power or facility of executing, and address to a particular mode or manner of addressing one's self on particular occasions. Ability shows itself in the most important transactions, and the general conduct in the highest stations, as a minister of state displays his ability; dexterity and address are employed occasionally, the former in removing difficulties and escaping dangers, the latter in improving advantages and accommodating tempers; the former in directing the course of things, the latter in managing of men.

The ability displayed by the commander was only equalled by the valor and adroitness of the seamen.

Clarkr.
His wisdom, by often evading from perils, was turned rather into a dexterity to deliver himself from dangers when they pressed him, than into a providence to prevent and remove them afar off.

Bacon.
It was no sooner dark, than she conveyed into his room a young maid of no disagreeahle figure, who was one nf her attendants, and did not want address to improve the opportunity for the ad. Fancement of her fortune.

Spect 4 mar

## able, CAPABLE, CAPACIOUS.

Thess epithets, from which the preceding abstract nouns are derived, have listinctions peculiar to themselves. Able and capable are applied to ordinary actions, but not always indifferently, the one for the other: able is said of the abilities generally, as a child is able or not able to walk ; capable is said of one's ability to do particular things, as to be capable of performing a great journey. Able is said of that which one can do, as to be able to write or read; capable is said of that which either a person or a thing can take, receive, or hold; a person is capable of an office, or capable of great things; a thing is capable of improvement.

Whom farre before did march, a goodly hand Of tall young men, all abls armes to sound.

Spenser.
What measure of ability in such things shall serve to make men capable of that kind of office, he doth not determine.

Hooker.
Able may be added to a noun by way of epithet, when it denotes a positive degree of ability, as an able commander, an able financier.

I look upon an able statesman out of husiness like a huge whalc, that will endeavor to overturn the ship unless he has an empty cusk to play with.

Tatler.
Capable may be used absolutely to express a mental power.

Look you how pale he glares 1 His form and cause conjoined, preaching to stones, Would make them capable.

Sharspeare.
Capable and capacious, thongh derived from the same verb capio, to take or receive, are distinguished from each other in respect to the powers or properties of the objects to which they are applied, capable being said of powers generally, capacious only of the property of having amplitude of space, or a power to take in or comprehend; as men are capable of thought or reason, of life or death, etc. ; a ball may be said to be capaciores, or, figuratively, a man has a capacious mind.

[^1]
## TO ABJURE, RECANT, RETRACT, RB voke, recall.

ABJURE, in Latin abjuro, is com. pounded of the privative $a b$ and juro, to swear, signifying to swear to the contrary, or give up with an oath. RECANT, in Latin recanto, is compounded of the privative $r e$ and canto, to sing or declare, signifying to unsay, to contradict by a counter declaration. RETRACT, in Latin retractus, participle of retraho, is compounded of re, back, and traho, to draw, signifying to draw back what has been let go. REVOKE and RECALL have the same original sense as recant, with this difference only, that the word call, which is expressed also by voke, or in Latin voco, implies an action more suited to a multitude than the word canto, to sing, which may pass in solitude. We abjuse a religion, we recant a doctrine, we retract a promise, we revoke a command, we recall an expression.

What has been solemnly professed is renounced by abjuration; what has been publicly maintained as a settled point of belief is as publicly given up by recanting; what has been pledged so as to gain credit is contradicted by retracting; what has been pronounced by an act of authority is rendered null by revocation; what has been misspoken through inadvertence or mistake is rectified by recalling the words.

Although Archbishop Cranmer recanted the principles of the Reformation, yet he soon after recalled his words, and died boldly for his faith. Henry IV. of France abjured Calvinism, but he did not vetract the promise which he had made to the Calvinists of his protection. Louis XIV. drove many of his best subjects from France by revoking the edict of Nantes. Interest but too often leads men to abjure their faith; the fear of shame or punishment leads them to recant their opinions; the want of principle dictates the retracting of one's promise; reasons of state occasion the revoking of decrees; a love of precision commonly induces a speaker or writer to recall a false expression.
The pontiff saw Britannia's golden fleece, Once all his own, invest her worthier sons? Her verdant valleys, and her fertile plains, Yellow with grain, abjure his hatefut sway.

Saenstone

A false satire ought to be recanted for the sake of him whose reputation may be injured.

Johnson.
When any scholar will convince me that these were futile and malicieus tales against Socrates, I will retract all credit in them, and thank him for the conviction.

Cumberland.
What reason is there, bnt that those grants and privileges should be revoked, or reduced to their first intention?

Spenger.
That socicty hath before consented, without renoking the same after. Hooser.
Tis done, and since 'tis done 'tis past recall, And aince 'tis past recall must be forgotten.

Datden.
TO ABOLISH, ABROGATE, REPEAL, REVOKE, ANNUL, CANCEL.
ABOLISH, in French abolir, Latin $a b$ oleo, is compounded of $a b$ and oleo, to lose the smell, signifying to lose every trace of former existence. ABROGATE, in French abroger, Latin abrogatus, participle of abrogo, compounded of $a b$ and rogo, to ask, signifying to ask away, or to ask that a thing may be done away; in allusion to the custom of the Romans, among whom no law was valid unless the consent of the people was obtained by asking, and in like manner no law was onmade without asking their consent. REPEAL, in French rappeller, from the Latin words re and appello, signifies literally to call back or unsay what has been said, which is in like manner the original meaning of RETOKE. ANNUL, in French $a n$ nuller, comes from unl, in Latin nihil, sig nifying to reduce to nothing. CANCEL, in French canceller, comes from the Latin rancello, to cut crosswise, signifying to strike ont crosswise, that is, to cross out.

The word abolish conveys the idea of putting a total end to a thing, and is applied properly to those things which have been long in existence, and firmly established: an abolition may be effected either by an act of power, as to abolish an institution, or an order of men, and the like.

On the parliament's part it was proposed that all the bishops, deans, and chapters might be immediately tyken away and abolished.

Clarenton.
Or it may be a gradual act, or effected by indirect means, as to abolish a custom, practice, etc.

The long-continaed wars between the English and Scots had then raised iovincible jealousies
and hate, which loag-contimued peace hath long aince abolished.

Sir Jorn Hafward
AII the other terms have respect to the partial acts of men, in undoing that which they bave done. Laws are either repealed or abrogated, but repealing is a term of modern use, applied to the acts of public councils or assemblies, where laws are made or unmade by the consent or open declaration of numbers. Abrogate is a term of less definite import; to abrogate a law is to render it null by any act of the legislature; thus, the making of a new law may abrogate the old one.

If the Presbyterians shnuld obtain their enda, I could not be sorry to find tbem mistaken in the point whicb they have most at heart, by the repeal of the test; I mean the veaefit of employments.

SWIfT.
Solon abrogated all Draco's sanguinary laws except those that affected murder.

Cumbebland.
Revoking is an act of individual au-thority-edicts are revoked; annulling is an act of discretion, as official proceedings or private contracts are annulled; cancelling is a species of annulling, as in the case of cancelling deeds, bonds, obligations, etc. None can abrogate but those who have the power to make. Any one who has the power to give his word may also revoke it, if he see reason so to do. Any one who can bind himself or others, by any deed or instrument, may annul or render this null and void, provided it be done for a reasonable cause, and in the proper manner. As cancelling serves to hot out or obliterate what bas been written, it may be applied to what is blotted out of the memory. It is a voluntary resignation of right or demand which one person has upon another.

[^2]I will annul,
By the high power with which the laws invest me,
Those guilty forms in which you have entrapp'd, Basely entrapp'd, to thy detested nuptials, Ny queen betrotb'd.

Thomson.
This hour make friendships which he breaka the next,
And every breach suppliea a vile pretext, Basely to cancel all concessions past, If in a thousand you deny the last.

Combirlaita

## ABOMINABLE, DETESTABLE, EXRCRABLE.

Thz primitive idea of these terms, agresable to their derivation, is that of badness in the highest degree; conveying by themselves the atrongest signitication, and excluding the necessity for every other modifying epithet.

The ABOMINABLE thing excites aversion; the DETESTABLE thing, hatred and revulsion ; the EXECRABLE thing, indignation and horror.

These sentiments are expressed against what is abominable by strong ejaculations, against what is detestable by animadversion and reprobation, and against what is execrable hy imprecations and anathemas.

In the ordinary acceptation of these terms, thay serve to mark a degree of excess in a very bad thing; abominable expressing less than detestable, and that less than execrable. This gradation is surfciently illustrated in the following example. Dionysius, the tyrant, haviag been informed that a very aged woman prayed to the gods every day for his preservation, and wondering that any of his subjeets should he so interested for his safety, lnquired of this woman respecting the motives of her conduct, to which she replied, "In my infancy I lived under an abominable prince, whose death I desired ; but when he perished, he was succeeded by a detestable tyrant worse than himself. I offered up my vows for his death also, which were in like mamer answered; but we have sinoe had a worse tyrant than he. This execrable monster is yourself, whose life I have prayed for, lest, if it bs possible, you should be succeeded by one even more wicked."

The exaggeration conveyed by these expressions has given rise to their abuse in vulgar discourse, where they are often employed indifferently to serve the humor of the speaker.

This abominable andeavor to suppress or lessen evcrything that is praiseworthy is as frequeot emeng the men as ameng the women.

SteELE.
Nothing can atons for the want of modesty, without which beauty is ungraceful, and wit $d_{6}$ testable.

Stelee.
All vote to leave that cocecrable shore, Polluted with the blood of Polydore.

## ABOVE, OVER, UPON, BFYOND.

When an object is ABOVE another, it exceeds it in height; when it is OVER another, it extends along its superior surface; when it is UPON another, it comes in coatact with its superior surface; when it is BEYOND another, it lies at a greater distance. Trees frequently grow above a wall, and sometimes the branches hang over the wall, or rest upon it, but they seldom stretch much beyond it.
So when with crackling flemes a caldron fries, The bubuling waters froin the bettom rise, Above the brim they force their flery way, Black vapors climb aloft and cloud the day. Dayden.
The geese fly o'er the harn, the bees in arms
Drive headlong from their waxen cells in swarms.
Dhyien.
As 1 did stand my watch upon the hill I look'd toward Birnam, und anen methought The wood hegan to move. Shakopeaze.
He that sees a dark end shady grove
Stays not, hut looks beyond It ou the eky.
Heraert.
In the figurative sense, the first is mostly employed to convey the idea of superiority; the second, of authority; the third, of immediate influgnoe; and the fourth, of extent. Every one should be above falsehood, but particularly those who are set over others, who may have an influence on their minds beyond all calculation.
The public power of oll societies is above epory soul oontained in the sane societies.

Hoomea.
The church has over her, bishops able to silence the factious, no less by their preaching then their nuthority.

South.
This is thy work, Almighty Previdence,
Whose power beyond the stretch of human thought
Revolves the orbs of emplre. Thomson.
TO ABRIDGE, CURTAIL, CONTRACT.
ABRIDGE, in French abréger, Latin abbreviare, is compounded of the intensive syllable $a b$ and breviare, from brevis, short, signifying to make short. CURTAIL, in French courte, short, and tailler, to cut, signifies to diminish in length by cutting. CONTRACT, in Latin contractus, participle of contraho, is compounded of con and traho, signifying to draw close together.

By abridging, in the figurative as well as the literal sense, the quantity is dimip

## ABRUPT

ished; by curtailing, the measure or number is reduced; by contracting, the com pass is reduced. Privileges are abridged, pleasures curtailed, and powers contracted. It is ungenerous to abridge the liberty of any one, or curtail him of his advantages, while he makes no improper use of them; otherwise it is advisable, in order to conract his means of doing mischief.

This would very much abridge the lover's pains in this way of writing a letter, as it would enable him to express the most nseful and significant words with a single touch of the needle. Addison.
I remember several ladies who were once very near seven feet high, that at present want some inches of five: how they came to be thus curtailed I cannot learn.

Addison.
He that riges up early and goes to bed late only to receive addresses is really as moch tied and abridged in his freedom as he that waits all that time to present one.

Sodrt.
God has given no man a body as strong as his appetites; but has corrected the boundlessness of his voluptuous desires, by stinting his strength and contracting his capacities.

SOUTH.

## ABRIDGMENT, COMPENDIUM, EPITOME, DIGEST, SUMMARY, ABSTRACT.

The first four terms are applied to a distinct work, the two latter to parts of a work.

An ABRIDGMENT is the reduction of a work into a smaller compass. A COMPENDIUM is a general and concise view of any science, as geography or astronomy. An EPITOME is a compressed view of all the substantial parts of a thing, or, in other words, the whole of any matter brought into a small compass. A DIGEST is any materials digested in order. A SUMMARY comprehends the heads and subdivisions of a work. An ABSTRACT includes a brief but comprehensive view of any particular proceeding. Abridgments often surpass the originals in value when they are made with judgment. Compendiums are fitted for young persons to commit to memory on commencing the study of any science. There is perhaps not a better epitome than that of the Universal History by Bossuet, nor a better digest than that of the laws made by order of Justinian. Systematic writers give occasional summaries of what they have been treating upon. It is necessary to make abstracts of deeds or judicial proceedings.

I shall lay before my readers an abridgment of some few of their extravagancies, in hopes that they will in time accustom themselves to dream a little more to the purpose.

Spectator.
Indexes and dictionaries are the compendium of all knowledge.

Pops.
From hence (as Servius remarks) Virgil toak the hint of his Silenus, the subject of whose song is so exact an epitome of the contents of the Metamorphoses of Ovid , that among the ancient titles of tbat eclogue, the Metamorphosis was one. Warbuaton.
If we had a complete digest of Hindoo and Mahommedan laws, after the model of Justinian's celebrated Pandects, we should rarely be at a loss for principles and rules of law applicable to tha cases before us.

Sir W. Jones.
As the Theseida, upon which Chaucer's Knirht's Tale is founded, is very rarely to be met with, it may not be unpleasing to the reader to see here a slort summary of it. Tyewnitr.

Though Mr. Halhed performed his part with fidelity, yet the Persiao interpreter had supplied him only with a loose, injudicious epitome of the original Sanscrit ; in which abstract many essential passages are omitted.

Sib W. Jones.
Epitome and abstract are taken for other objects, which contain within a small compass the essence of a thing.

The face is the epitome of the whole man, and the eyes are, as it were, the epitome of the face.

Hogries.
But man the abstraet
Of all perfection, which the workmanship
Of heaven hath modelled, in himself cootains
Passions of several qualities.
Fond.

## ABRCPT, RCGGED, ROUGF.

ABRUPT, in Latin abruptus, participle of abrumpo, to break off, signifies the state of being broken off. RUGGED, in Saxon hrugge, comes from the Latin mugosus, full of wrinkles. ROUGH is in Saxon reoh, high German rauh, low German rug, Dutch ruig, in Latin rudis, uneven.

These words mark different degrees of unevenness. What is abrupt has greater cavities and protuberances than what is rugged; what is rugged has greater irregularities than what is rough. In the natural sense abrupt is opposed to what is unbroken, rugged to what is even, and rough to what is smooth. A precipice is abrupt, a path is rugged, a plank is rough. The abruptness of a body is generally occasioned by a violent concussion and separation of its parts; ruggedness arises from natural, but less violent causes; roughness is mostly a natural property, although sometimes produced by friction

The precipice abrupt Projecting borror on the blackened fiood, vottens at thy return. Thomson's Sumber

The evils of this life appear like rocks and precipices, rugged and barren at a distance; but at our nearer approach we find them little fruitful spots.

Spectator.
The common, overgrown with fern, and rough With prickly gorse, that shapeless and deformed, And dangerous to the touch, has yet its bloom.

Cowper.
Not the rough whirlwind, that deforms
Adra's black gulf, and vexes it with storms, The stublorn virtue of his soul can move.

Francts.
In the figurative or extended application, the distinction is equally clear. Words and manners are abrupt when they are sudden and unconnected; the temper is mugged which is exposed to frequent ebullitions of angry humor; actions are rough when performed with violence and incaution. An abrupt behavior is the consequence of an agitated mind; a rugged disposition is inherent in the character; a rough deportment arises from an undisciplined state of feeling. An habitual steadiness and coolness of reflection is best fitted to prevent or correct any abruptness of manvers; a cultivation of the Christian temper cannot fail of smoothing down all muggedness of humor; an intercourse with polished society will inevitably refine down all roughness of behavior.

> My lady craves

To know the cause of your abrupt departure.
Shak8peare.
The greatest favors to such an one can neither softer nor win upon him, neither melt nor endear him, but leave him as hard and rugoed as ever. South.
Kind words prevent a good deal of that perverseness which rough and imperious usage often produces in generous minds.

Locke.

## TO ABSCOND, STEAL AWAY, SECRETE ONE'S SELF.

ABSCOND, in Latin abscondo, is compounded of abs and condo, signifying to hide from the view, which is the original meaning of the other words; to abscond is to remove one's self for the sake of not being discovered by those with whom we are acquainted. To STEAL AWAY is to get away so as to elude observation. To SECRETE ONE'S SELF is to get into a place of secrecy without being pereived

Dishonest men abscond, thieves steal away when they dread detection, and fugitives secrete themselves. Thosc who ab. scond will have frequent occasion to steal away, and still more frequent occasion to secrete themselves.

## ABSENT, ABSTRACTED, ABETRACT, DIVERTED, DISTRACTED.

ABSENT, in French absent, Latin $a b$ sens, comes from $a b$, from, and sum, to be, signifying away or at a distance from all objects. ABSTRACTED, or ABSTRACT, in French abstrait, Latin abstractus, participle of abstraho, or $a b$, from, and traho, to draw, signifies drawn or separated from all objects. DIVERTED, in French divertir, Latin diverto, compounded of di or dis, asunder, and verto, to turn, signifies turned aside from the object that is present. DISTRACTED, of course, implies drawn asunder by different objects.

A want of proper attention is implied in all these terms, but in different degrees and under different circumstances. $A b$. sence of mind is either a state or a habit; a man may be occasionally absent.
I have hardly seen a line from any of these gentlemen, but spoke them as absent from what they were cloing, as they profess they are when they cone into company.

Spectaton.
Or a man may contract an habitual ab. sence, either from profound study, or from any other less commendable cause.
Nothing is so incompatible with politeness as any trick of absence of mind.

Earl of Chatham.
Abstraction denotes a state, and, for the most part, a temporary state.
He would begin the ceremony again, and having gone through it, break from his abstraction, walk briskly on, and join his companions.

## Boswell.

The term absent simply implies not present with one's mind, not observant of present objects, but it does not necessarily imply thinking on anything; a man may be absent who is thinking on nothing.
Theophrastus called one who barely rehearsed his speech, with his eyes flxed, an "absent actor." Hughes.
Abstracted, on the other band, denotes a deep thought on something not present.

That space the evil one abstracted stood From his own evil, and for the time remained Stupidly good.

Milton.
Abstract may in poetry be used in the sense of abstracted.
Abstraet as in a trance, methonght I saw, Though sleeping, where lay, and saw the shape, Still glorious, hefore whom awake I stood.

Milton.
Absent and abstracted denote an exclusion of present objects; diverted and distracted, a misapplied attention to present objects, or to such objects as do not demand attention. An absent man never has his body and mind in the same place; the abstracted man is lost in thinking; a man who is easily diverted seeks to take an interest in every passing object; a distracted man is unable to think properly on anytbing: it may be good to be sometimes diverted.

The mind is refrigerated by interruption; the thoughts are diverted from the principal suhject ; the reader is weary he knows not why.

Johnson's Preface to Shakspeate.
It is bad at any time to be distracted, particularly when it arises from passion.

He used to cave for his Marianne, and call upon her in his distracted fits.

Addison.

## TO ABSOLVE, ACQUTT.

ABSOLVE, in Latin absolyo, is compounded of $a b$, from, and solvo, to loose, signifying to loose from that with which one is bound. ACQUIT, in French acquitter, is compounded of the intensive syllable ac or ad, and quit, quitter, in Latin quietus, quiet, signifying to make easy by the removal of a charge.

These terms imply the setting free from guilt or its consequences. Absolving may sometimes be applied to offences against the laws of man, but more frequently to offences against God; acquitting applies solely to offences against man. The conscience is released by absolution; the body, goods, or reputation are set free by an acquittal.
Yet to he secret, makes not sin the less;
'Tis only hidden from the vulgar view, Maintains indeed the reverence due to pritices, ,ut not absolves the conscience from the crime. Dryden.
The fanlt of Mr. Savage was rather negligence than ingratitude; but Sir Richard Steele must likewise be acquitfed of severity; for who is
there that can patiently bear contempt from off whom he has relieved and supported?

Johngon.

## to absolve, acquit, Clear.

ABSOLVE in this case, as distinguish. ed from the former article ( $v$. To absolve), is extended to all matters affecting the conscience generally. ACQUTT (v. To absolve, acquit) and CLEAR, in the sense of making clear or free from, are applied to everything which may call for blame, or the imputation of what is not right. A person may be absolved from bis oath, acquitted or pronounced quit of every charge, and cleared from every imputhtion.
Compell'd by threats to take that hloody oath And the act ill, I am absolv'd by both.

Wallee.
Those who are truly learned will acquit me in this point, in which I have been so far from offending, that I have been scrupulous perhaps to a fault in quoting the authors of several passages which I might have made my own. Addison.

He set himself with very great zeal to clear the Romish church of idolatry. Burnet.

## ABSOLUTF, DESPOTIC, ARBITRARY, TYRANNICAL.

ABSOLUTE, in Latin absolutus, participle of absolvo, signifies absolved or set at liberty frem all restraint as it regards persons; unconditional, unlimited, as it regards things. DESPOTIC, from despot, in Greek $\delta_{\varepsilon} \sigma \pi \sigma^{\prime} r \eta$, a master or lord, implies being like a lord, uncontrolled. ARBITRARY, in French arbitraire, from the Latin arbitrium, will, implies belonging to the will of one independent of that of others. TYRANNICAL signifies being like a tyrant.

Absolute power is independent of and superior to all other power: an absolute monarch is uncontrolled not only by men, but things; he is above all law except what emanates from himself. When this absolute power is assigned to any one according to the constitution of a govern. ment, it is despotic. Despotic power is therefore something less than absolute power: a prince is absolute of himself; he is despotic by the consent of others. In the early ages of society monarchs were absolute, and among the Eastern nations they still retain the absolute form of government, though much limited by esp
tablished usage. In the more civilized stages of society the power of despots has beeu considerubly restricted by prescribed laws, insomuch that despotism is now classed among the regular forms of government.
An hanest private man often grows cruel and abandoned when converted into an absolute prince.

ADDison.
Such an history as that of Suetonius is to me an unanswerable argument against despotic power.

AdDison.
Absolute is a term of a general application in the sense of absolved or freed from all control or limit; in this sense God is said to be absolute.

Unerring power 1
Supreme and absolute, of these your ways You render no account.

Lillo.
Sometimes it is applied either to the power itself or to the exercise of power, as absolute rule or dominion; despotic is likewise applied to the exercise of the power as well as the power itself, as despotic sway; arbitrary and tyrannical are used only in this last application: the latter is always taken in a bad sense, the former sometimes in an indifferent sense. With arbitrariness is associated the idea of caprice and selfishness. With tyran$n y$ is associated the idea of oppression and injustice. Among the Greeks the word rupaveos, a tyrant, implied no more thau what we now understand by despot, or, more properly, one who gained the supreme power in a republic; but from the natural abuse of such power, it has acquired the signification now attached to it, namely, of exercising power to the injury of another. If absolute power come into the hands of any one man or body of men, it is fair to expect that it will be used arbitrarily. In despotic governments the tyrannical proceedings of the subordinate officers are often more intolerable than those of the prince.

The power of the viceroy is very absolute; be has not only the command of all the military force in the kingdom, but likewise presides with unbounded authority in all civil tribunals.

Brydone.
Whatever the will commands, the whole man minst do ; the empire of the will over all the faculties being absulutely overruling and despotic.

Soutr.
By an arbitrary proceeding I mean one conducted by the privete opinions or feelings of the man who attempts to regulate.

Buaae.

Our sects a more tyrannic power assume, And would for scorpions change the rod of Rome

Roscommon

## TO ABSORB, SWALLOW UP, INGULF, ENGROSS, IMBIBE.

ABSORB, in French absorber, Latin $a b$ sorbeo, is componnded of $a b$ and sorbeo, tc sup up, in distinction from SWALLOW UP-the former denoting a gradual con. sumption; the latter, a sudden envelopment of the whole object. The excessive heat of the sun absorbs all the nutritious fluids of bodies animal and vegetable. The gaming-tahle is a vortex in which the principle of every man is swallowed up with his estate. INGULF, compounded of $i n$ and $g u l f$, signifies to be enclosed in a great gulf, which is a strong figurative representation for being swallowed up. As it applies to grand and sublime objects, it is used only in the bigher style.
The rays of the sum are reflected by a white body, and absorbed by a black one. Bacon.

Surely the bare remembrance that a man was formerly rich or great cannot make him at all happier there, where an infinite happiness or an infinite misery shall equally swallow up the sense of these poor felicities.

Sобти.
Ingulf' $d$, all helps of ert we veinly try
To weather leeward shores alas! too nigh.
Falconer.
ENGROSS, which is compounded of the French words en gros, whole, signifies to purchase wholesale, so as to swallow up the profits of others. In the moral application therefore it is very analogous to absorb. The mind is absorbed in the contemplation of any subject when all its powers are so bent upon it as not to admit distraction. The mind is engrossed by any subject when the thoughts of it force themselves upon its contemplation to the exclusion of others which should engage the attention.
Absorbed in that immensity I see,
I slarink abased, and yet aspire to thee. Cowpes.
Those two great things that so engross the desires and designs of both the nobler and ignobler sort of mankind, are to be found in celigion, namely , wisdom and pleasure.

South.
$A b s o r b$ conveys the idea not only of taking from something, but also of taking to itself; engrobs conveys the idea only of taking to itself, but that to the exclusion of others; a certain subject absorbs the faculties, and metaphorically,
the roots of plants absorb moisture; a person engrosses the conversation so that others cannot take a part in it.

From the earliest accounts of the Greeks to their absorption into the Roman elopire, we cannot judge that their iatestine divisions consumed less than millions of their inhabitaots. Bubke.

This inconvenience the politician must expect from others, as well as they have felt from him, anless he thinks that he can engross this principle to himself, and that others cannot be as false and atheistical as himself.

Absorb, and IMBIBE, from in and bibo, to drink, both imply the taking in by a gradual process; but the former includes the idea of being taken in so as to be lost, the latter that of being taken in so as to form a part of that by which it is received.

I have been tempted to think that they (the comets) did not return at all, but were absorbed in the bady of the sun.

Baydone.
As meadows parch'd, brown groves, and with'ring flowers,
Imbibe the sparknig dew and genial showers,
Thus to man's grateful soul from Heav'n descend The mercies of his Father, Lord, and Friend.

Sir W. Jones.
So in the improper application, an idea absorbs the mind, and the mind imbibes the idea.
The agreeable prospect of soon meeting $a b$ sorbed all melancholy thoughts. Bayoone.

The colonies had formed within themselves assemblies so exceedingly resembling a parliament in all their functious and power, that it was impossible they should not imbibe some opinion of a similar authority.

Buke.

## TO ABSTAIN, FORBEAR, REFRAIN.

ABSTAIN, in French abstenir, Latin abstineo, is compounded of $a b$ or $a b s$, from, and teneo, to keep, signifying to keep one's self from a thing. FORBEAR is compounded of the preposition for, or from, and the verb to bear or carry, signifying to carry or take one's self from a thing. REFRAIN, in French refréner, Latin refrono, is compounded of $r e$, back, and fraeno, from frcenum, a bridle, signifying to keep back as it were by a bridle, to bridle in.

All these terms imply the omission to do anything, but vary in the circumstances and in the motives for the omission. To abstain is the general term, to forbear and refrain are particular modes of abstaining. Abstaining is an act that
may require no self-denial, nor oppose any inclination; forbearing and refrainiug both imply a certain degree of opposition to the will or inclination, the latter much more than the former. We abstain from doing indifferent things from motives of convenience, as to abstain from speaking upon a particular subject, or we abstain from important matters from a sense of duty, as "to abstain from the appearance of evil." We forbear from prudence or duty to do that which we have motives for doing; as we forbear to do an injury though in return for an injury. We refrain, from the same motives, from doing that which we are strongly inclined or impelled to do, as to refrain from ex. pressing the feelings of the moment.

A little wisdom and an easy observation were enough to make all men that love themselves to abstain from sneh diet which does not nourish.

TAYLOR.
By forbearing to do what may be innoceatly done, we may add hourly new vigor and resolution, and secure the power of resistance when pleasure or interest shall lend their charms to gnilt.

Johnson.
These words are often coupled with a negative, to show the inability of the agent to omit doing a thing, as when it is said, "I cannot abstain from the gratification," or "I cannot forbear mentioning," etc., or "she was so affected that she could not refrain" from tears.

## Though a person cannot abstain from beiag weak, he may from being wicked. Addison. <br> We are so used and accustomed to this imperfection in ourselves, that we cannot forbear in some measure ascribing it to him in whom there is no shadow of imperfection. <br> Abdison.

If we conceive a being, created with all his faculties and scnses, to open his eyes in a most delightful plain, to view for the first time the serenity of the sky, the splendor nf the sun, the verdure of the fields and woods, the glowing colors of the flowers, we can hardly believe it possible that he should refrain from harsting into an ecstasy of joy, and pouring out his praises to the Creator of those wonders. Str W. Jones.

Abstaining as a religious duty is mostly said of indulgences as to food or otherwise which are prohibited; as it is the part of the Mohammedan faith to abstain from wine; forbearing is mostly said of that which concerns others. Every one is too liable to offend, not to have motives for forbearing to deal harshly with the offences of others.

As for fasting and abstinence, which is many times very helpful and suhservient to the ends of religion, there is no such extraordinary trouble in it if it be discreetly nanaged. Tillotson.
The kindest and the happiest pair Will tind occasion to forbear, And something, every day they live, To pity aod perhaps forgive.

Cowper.

## ABSTINENCE, FAST.

ABSTINENCE is a general term, applicable to any object from which we abstain; FAST is a species of abstinence, namely, an abstaining from food. The general term is likewise used in the particular sense, to imply a partial abstinence from particular food; but fast signifies an abstinence from food altogether.

Fridays are appointed by the Church as days of abstinence; and Good-Friday as a day of fast.

Taylor.
1 am verily persuaded that if a whole people were to enter into a course of abstinence, and eat nothing hut water gruel for a fortnight, it would abate the rage and animosity of parties. Such a fast would have the natural tendency to the procuring of those ends for which a fast is proclaimed.

Adoigon.

## ABSTINENT, SOBER, ABSTEMIOUS, TEMPERATE.

ABSTINENT ( $v$. To abstain) respects everything that acts on the senses, and in a limited sense applies particularly to solid food. SOBER, from the Latin sobrius, or sebrius, that is, sine ebrius, not drunk, implies an abstinence from excessive drinking. ABSTEMIOUS, from the Latin abstemius, compounded of abs and temetum, wine, implies the abstaining from wine or strong liquor in general. TEMPERATE, in Latin temperatus, participle of tempero, to moderate or regulate, implies a well regulated abstinence in all manner of sensual indulgence.
The first of these terms is generic, the rest specific. We may be ubstinent without being sober, sober without being abstemious, and all together without being temperate. An abstinent man does not eat or drink so much as he could enjoy; a sober man may drink much without being affected; an abstemious man drinks nothing strong; a temperate man enjoys all in a due proportion. A particular passion may cause us to be abstinent either partially or totally; sobriety may often depend upon the strength of the con-
stitution, or be prescribed by prudence: necessity may dictate abstemiousness, but nothing short of a well-disciplined mind will enable us to be temperate.
To sct the mind above the appetites is the end of abstinence, which one of the fathers ohserves to be, not a virtue, but the ground work of virtue. JOHNSON.
Cratinus carried his love of wine to snch ao excess, that he got the name of $\phi i$ лототоs, launching out in praise of drinking, and rallying all aobristy out of countenance.

Cumberland.
The strongest oaths are straw To th' fire i' th' blood; be more abstemious, Or else good-night your vow.

Shakspeabr.
If we consider the life of these ancient sages, a great part of whose philosophy consisted in a temperate and abstemious course of life, one would think the life of a philosopher and the life of a man were of two different dates. ADdison.

TO ABSTRACT, SEPARATE, DISTINGUISH.
ABSTRACT, v. Absent. SEPARATE in Latin separatus, participle of separo, is compounded of se and paro, to dispose apart, signifying to put things asunder, or at a distance from each other. DIS TINGUISH, in French distinguer, Latin distinguo, is compounded of the separative preposition dis and tingo, to tinge or color, signifying to give different marks to things, by which they may be known from each otber.

Abstract, as compared with the othen terms, is used in the moral sense only: separate mostly in a physical sense: distinguish either in a moral or physical sense: we abstract what we wish to regard particularly and individually; we separate what we wish not to be united; we distinguish what we wish not to confound. The mind performs the office of abstraction for itself; separating and distinguishing are exerted on external objects. Arrangement, place, time, and circumstances serve to separate: the ideas formed of things, the outward marks attached to them, the qualities attributed to them, serve to distinguish. By the operation of abstraction the mind creates for itself a multitude of new ideas; in the act of separation bodies are removed from each other by distance of place; in the act of distinguishing objects are discovered to be similar or dissimilar. Qual: ties are abstracted from the subjects in
which they are inherent; countries are separated by mountains or seas; their inhabitants are distinguished by their dress, language, or manners. The mind is never less abstracted from one's friends than when separated from them by immense oceans: it requires a keen eye to distinguish objects that bear a great resemblance to each other. Volatile persons easily abstract their minds from the most solemn scenes to fix them on trifling objects that pass before them: an unsocial temper leads some men to separate themselves from all their companions: an absurd ambition leads others to distinguish themselves by their eccentricities.

We ought to abstract our minds from the observation of an excellence in those we converse with, till we have received some good information of the disposition of their minds. Steele.

Fontenelle, in his panegyric on Sir Isaac Newton, closes a long enumeration of that philosopher's virtues and attainments with an observation that he was not distinquished from other men by any singularity either uatural or affected. Johnson.
It is an eminent instance of Newton's superiority to the rest of mankind, that he was able to separate knowledge from those weaknesses by which ktowledge is generally disgraced.

Johnson.

## ABSTRACTED, ABSTRACT.

ABSTRACTED, as in the former case ( $v$. Absent), is properly applied to persons or things personal. ABSTRACT, which is but a contraction of the former, is most commonly used to denote the qualities of things. A person is said to be abstracted who is in a state of abstraction; or a person may lead an abstracted life or course of life, or follow an abstracted theory, when the mind is altogether abstracter from external or sensible objects; a thing is said to be abstract which is formed by the operation of abstraction or abstracted thinking, as an abstract idea, wbich is abstracted or separated by the mind from the objects to which they belong or inhere; whiteness is an abstract idea, because it is conceived in the mind $a b$ stracted from snow, a wall, or any other substance that is white.

A youthful passion for abstracted devotion should nat be encouraged.

Jonnson.
It is indeed difflcult, perliaps impossible, to give limits to the mere abstract competence of the supreme power.

## ABSTRACTION, ALIENATION, ES-

## TRANGEMENT.

ABSTRACTION expresses the state of being abstracted as to one's mind or person from any object generally. ALIENATION, the state of being alienated as to one's affections from others. ESTRANGEMENT, the state of being a stranger or unknown to others. $A b$ straction expresses less than alienation or estrangement; it is simply the abstaining to take a part with others in any matter, as an abstraction from the world, its cares, pursuits, and pleasures. Alienation and estrangement both suppose an altered state of mind toward any object: alienation is where the heart and affections become alien or strange to that on which they have been or ought to be fixed; estrangement is where the person becomes distant from that with which one has been or ought to be intimate.
Whether dark presages of the night proceed from any latent power of the soul during her $a b$ straction, or from the operation of subordinate spirits, has been a dispute.

AdDison.
One is said to be abstracted from the thing, but alienated or estranged from the person or the thing.
The rough and impetunus manners of Townshend began to alisnate the king and disgust the queen.

Coxe.
Upon this latter marriage the Lord Mandeville totally estranged himself from court.

Clarennon.

## TO ABUSE, MISUSE.

ABUSE, in Latin abusus, participle of abutor, compounded of $a b$, from, and utor, to use, signifies to use away or wear away with using; in distinction from MISUSE, which signifies to use amiss.

Everything is abused which receives any sort of injury; it is misused if not used at all, or turwed to a wrong use. Young people are too prone to abuse books for want of setting a proper value on their contents; they do not always avoid misusing them in their riper years, when they read for amusement only instead of improvement. Money is abused when it is clipped, or its value any way lessened; it is misused when it is spent in excoss and debauchery.

I know no evil so great as the abuse of the understanding, and yet there is no one vice more common.

Steele.

## ACCIDENT

God requires not men to wrong or misuase thair facultian for him, nor to lie to others or themselves for his aake.

LOCKE.

## ABUSE, INVICCIVE.

ABUSE ( $v . T_{0}$ abuse) is here taken in the metaphorical application for ill-treatment of persons by the use of harsh words. INVECTIVE, from the Latin inveho, signifies to bear upon or against. Harsh and unseemly censure is the idea common to these terms; but the former is emplojed more properly against the person, the latter against the thing. Abuse is addressed to the individual, and mostly by word of mouth ; invective is communicated mostly by writing. Abuse is dictated by anger, which throws off all constraint, and violates all decency; invective is dictated by party spirit, or an intemperate warmth of feeling in matters of opinion. Abuse is always resorted to by the vulgar in their private quarrels; invective is the ebullition of zeal and ill-nature in public concerms. The more rude and ignorant the man, the more liable he is to indulge in abuse; the more restless and opiniated the partisan, whether in religion or politics, the more ready he is to deal in invective.

At an entertainment glvan by Pislstratus to some of his Intimates, Thrasippus, a man of violent passion and inflamed with wine, took aoma occasion, not recorded, to break out into the most vivent abuse and insult.

Cumberland.
This is the true way of examining a libel; and, whan man consider that no man living thinks the better of thair heroea and patrons for the panagyric given them, none can think themselves lessenad by their invective.

Steele.

## ACCEPTABLE, GRATEFUL, WELCOME.

ACCEPTABLE signifies worthy to be accepted. Grateful, from the Latin gratus, pleasing, signifies altogether pleasing; it is that which recommends itself. The acceptable is a relative good; the grateful is positive; the former depends upon our external condition, the latter on our feelings and taste; a gift is acceptable to a poor man, which would be refused by one less needy than himself; harmonious sounds are always grateficl to a musical ear.
I cannot but think tha following letter from the Emperor of China to the Pope of Rome, proposing a coalition of the Chinese and Roman Chacches, will be aoceptable to the curious.

STEELE.

The kids with pleasure browse the bushy plains The showers ura gruteful to the awelling grain. Dryden,
WELCOME signifies come well or in season for us. Acceptable and welcoms both apply to external circumstances, and are therefore relatively employed; but the former is confined to such things as are offered for our choice, the latter refers to whatever happens according to our wishes: we may not always accept that which is acceptable, but we shall nev. er reject that which is welcome: it is an insult to offer anything by way of a gift to another which is not acceptable; it is a grateful task to be the bearer of wel. come intelligence to our friends.
If the mind is at any time vacant from passion and desire, there are atill some objects that ars more acceptable to us than othera. Reid.
Whatever is remote froz common appearancea is always weloome to vulgar as to childiah credulity.

Joinson.

## ACCEPTANCE, ACCEPTATION,

Thошон both derived from the verb accept, have this difference, that the former is employed to express the active sense of the verb, the latter the passive sense. Acceptance is the act of accepting, acceptation the state of being accepted, as the acceptance of a favor lays a person under an obligation. A book, or whatever else is offered to us, may be worthy of our acceptance or not; a word aequires its acceptation from the manner in which it is generally accepted by the learned.
It is not nccessary to refuse bonefits from a bad man, when the aoceptance implies no approbation of his crimes.

Johnson.
On the subject of dress I may add, by way of caution, that the ladies would do well not to forget themselves. I do not mean this in the common acceptation of the phrase, which it may be sometimes convenient and proper to do.

Mackenzie.

## ACCIDENT, CHANCE.

ACCIDENT, in Latin accidens, from $a_{4}$ or ad and cadens, and CHANCE, in French chance, also connected with cadens, both signify falling out, i. e., without any design; but the former, by the force of the ac or ad, signifies falling out at a given time, or under given circumstances; chance, on the other hand, signifies fall. ing out without any qualification or re striction. Both may be employed to dn

## ACCIDENTAL

note either the manner or cause of things happening, or the things themselves that so happen; in the first sense, accident and chance may be used indifferently in the colloquial expressions to happen by chance or by accident, but otherwise accident is used ouly in respect to particular events, as, it was pure accident; but chance is employed to denote a hidden senseless cause of things, as opposed to a positive intelligent cause. Atheists ascribe all things to chance; whatever happens by secondary causes hidden from our view we are accustomed to ascribe to chance, which is only a mode of confessing our ignorance as to how it happens.
Notbing in the revolution, no, not to a phrase or a gesture, not to the fashion of a hat or a shoe, was left to accident: all has been the result of design.

Bоaкe.
Chance never acts in perpetual uniformity and consistence with itself.

ADDISON.
When taken for the thing that happens, accident is said ordinarily of things that have been ; chance of things that are to be. That is an accident which is done without intention; that is a chance which cannot be brought about by the use of means. It is an aceident when a house falls; it is a chance when and how it may fall. Accidents cannot be prevented; chances cannot be calculated upon. Accidents may sometimes be remedied: chances can never be controlled. Accidents give rise to sorrow; they mostly occasion mischief: chances give rise to hope; they often produce disappoint. ment; it is wise to dwell upon neither.
That little accident of Alexander's taking a fancy to bathe himself caused the interruption of his march, and that interruption gave occasion to that great victory that founded the third monarchy of the world.

Souta.
In fnturity events and chances are yet floating at large without apparent connection with their causes, and we therefore easily indulge the liberty of gratifying ourselves with a pleasing choice.

Johnson.
Sometimes chance is used without reference to time for any fortuitous event, and in that case it is more expressive than the word accident.

[^3]The term accident may likewise some-
times be taken for what may happen in future.
This natural impatience to look into futarity, and to know what accidents ruay happen to uis hereafter, has given birth to many arts and inventions.

ADDIBOM.
ACCIDENT, CONTINGENCY, CASUALTY.
ACCIDENT, v. Accident. CONTIN. GENCY, in French contingence, Latin con tingens, participle of contingo, compound. ed of con and tango, to touch one anoth. er, signifies the falling out or happening together, or the thing that happens in conjunction with another. CASUALTY, in French casualté, from the Latin casualits, and cado, to fall or happen, signifies the thing that happens in the course of events.
all these words imply whatever takes place independently of our intentions, Accidents express more than contion gencies; the former comprehend events with their causes and consequences; the latter respect collateral actions, or circumstances appended to events; casualties have regard simply to chrcumstances. Accidents are frequently occasioned by carelessness, and contingencies by trivial mistakes ; but casualties are altogether independent of ourselves. The overturning a carriage is an accident; our situa. tion in a carriage at the time is a contingency, which may occasion us to be more or less hurt; the passing of any one at the time is a casualty. We are all exposed to the most calamitous accidents, and our happiness or misery depends upon a thousand contingencies; the best concerted scheme may be thwarted by casualties, which no human foresight can prevent.

This (deformity) has the same effect in natural faults as maiming and mutilation has from accidents.

Bunge.
Nothing less than infinite wisdom can have an absolute command over fortune; the highest degree of it which man can possess is by no means equal to fortuitous events, and to such contingencies as may rise in the prosecution of our affairs.

Addison.
Men arc exposed to more casuatties than women, as battles, sea-voyages, with several dangerous trades and professions.

Addison.
ACCIDENTAL, INCIDENTAL, CASUAL, CONTINGENT.
ACCIDENTAL. v. Accident INCIDENTTAL, fromineident, in Latin inciders
and incido, or in and cado, to fall upon, sigoifies belonging to a thiug by chance. CASUAL, v. Accident. CONTINGENT, v. Contingency.

Accidental is opposed to what is designed or planned; incidental to what is premeditated; casual to what is constant and regular; cortingent to what is definite and fixed. A meeting may be wecidental, an expression incidental, a look, oxpression, etc., casual, an expense or circumstance contingent. We do not expect what is accidental; we do not suspect or guard against what is incidental; we do not heed what is casual; we are not prepared for what is contingent. Many of the most fortunate and important occurrences in our lives are accidental; many remarks, seemingly incidental, do in reality conceal a settled intent; a casual renark in the course of conversation will sometimes make a stronger impression on the minds of children than the most eloquent and impressive discourse or repeated counsel; in the prosecution of any plan we ought to be prepared for the numerous contingencies which we may meet with to interfere with our arrangements.

> Thls book fell accidentally into the hands of one who had rever seen it befnre. ADDison.
> Savage lodged as much by acciclent, and passcd the night sometimes in mean houses, which are set open at night to any casual warderers.
-Tohnson.
This discourse (of Dr. Tillotson on the Reformation), though an excelleut and judicious one in the main parts of it, yet contained some incidental assertions which gave no small offence to many.

Birch.
We see how a contingent event baffles man's knowledge and evades his power. South.

## ACCOMPANIMENT, COMPANION, CONCOMITANT.

ACCOMPANIMENT is properly a colective term to express what goes in company, and is apphed only to things; COMPANION, which also signifies what is in the company, is applied either to persons or to things. CONCOMITANT, from the intensive syllable con and comes, a companion, implies what is attached to an object, or goes in its train, and is applied only to things.

When said in relation to things, accomzaniment implies a necessary connection, mompanion an incidental connection; the
former is as a part to a whole, the latte is as one whole to another: the accompaniment belongs to the thing accompanied, inasmucl as it serves to render it more or less complete; the companion belongs to the thing accompanied, inasmuch as they correspond: in this manner singing is an accompaniment to instrumental music; subordinate ceremonies are the ac. companiments in any solemn service; but a picture may be the companion of another picture from their fitness to sta hd together. A concomitant is as much of an appendage as the accompaniment, but it is applied only to moral objects; thus morality is a concomitant to religion.

We may well helieve that the ancient heathen bards, who were chiefly Asiatic Greeks, performed religious rites and ceremonjes in metre with ac* compreniments of music, to which they were devoted in the extreme.

Combertand.
Alas, my snul! thou pleasing companion of this body, thou fleeting thing that art now deserting it, whither art thou flying? Tatlek.

As the beauty of the body accompanies the health of it, so certainly is decency concomitant to virtue.

Hиores.

## TO ACCOMPANY, ATTEND, ESCORT.

ACCOMPANY, in French accompagner, is compounded of ac or ad and compagner, in Latin compagino, to put or join together, signifying, to give one's company and presence to any object, to join one's self to its company. ATTEND, in French attendre, compounded of at or ad and tendo, to tend or incline toward, signifies to direct one's notice or care toward any object. ESCORT, in French escorter, from the Latin cohors, a cohort or band of soldiers that attended a nuagistrate on his going into a province, signifies to accompany by way of safeguard.

We accompany those with whom we wish to go; we attend those whom we wish to serve; we escort those whom we are called upon to protect or guard. We accompany our equals, we attend our superiors, and escort superiors or inferiors. The desire of pleasing or being pleased actuates in the first case; the desire of serving or being served, in the second case; the fear of danger or the desire of security, in the last place. One is said to have a numerous company, a crowd of attendants, and a strong excort; but otherwise one person only may accompany or
attend, though several are wanting for an escort. Friends accompany each other in their excursions; a servant attends his master on a journey; a strong escort is necessary in travelling through unfrequented and dangerous roads.
This account in some measure excited our curiosity, and at the entreaty of the ladies I was prevailed upon to accompany them to the playhouse, which was no other than a barn. Goldsmite.
Wben the Marquis of Wharton was appointed Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, Addison attended him as his secretary.

Johnson.
He very prudently called up four or five of the hostlers that belonged to the yard, and engaged them to enlist under his command as an escort to the coach.

Hawkesworth.
Accompany and attend may likewise be said of things as well as persons. In this case the former is applied to what goes with an object so as to form a part of it; the latter to that which follows an object as a dependent upon it. Pride is often accompanied with meanness, and attended with much inconvenience to the possessor.

The old English plainness and sincerity, that generons integrity of nature and henesty of disposition, which always argnes true greatness of mind, and is usually arcompanied with undaunted courage and resolution, is in a great measure lost among us.

Tillotson.
Humility lodged in a worthy mind is always attended with a certain homage, which no haughty soul, with all the arts imaginable, can purchase.

Htones.
The practice of religion will not only be attended with that pleasure which naturally accompanies those actions to which we are habituated, but with those supernumerary joys that rise from the consciousness of such a pleasure. Addison.

## TO ACCOMPLISH, EFFECT, EXECUTE, ACHIEVE.

ACCOMPLISH, in French accomplir, is compounded of the intensive syllable ac or ad, and complir, in Latin compleo, to complete, signifying to complete to the end, or according to the end proposed. EFFECT, in Latin effectus, participle of efficio, compounded of $e f$ and $e x$, out of or up, and facio, to make, signifies to make up until nothing remains to be done. EXECUTE, in Latin executus, participle of exequor, compounded of ex and sequor, to follow, signifies to follow up or carry through to the end. ACHIEVE, in French achever, from chef, a chief, significs to perform as a chief.

To accomplish is properly a mode of
effecting, namely, to effect completely, or to the utmost extent proposed; to accomplish an object, therefore, signifies more than simply to effect a purpose, both as to the thing aimed at and the means em. ployed in bringing it about. Extraordinary means are requisite for ascomplish. ing, and ordinary means for effecting. To accomplish is properly said of that which a person sets before himself; but to ef. fect, exccute, and achieve do not relate to the views of the person acting, but to the thing brougbt ahout. To effect expresses less than execute or achieve: whatever is brought about or into effect is effected; what is executed is complicated in its nat. ure, as to execute a design or project; what is achieved is grand, as to achieve an enterprise. Practical abilities are requisite for effecting, skill for executing, spirit and talent for achieving. Some persons are always striving to attain an end without ever accomplishing what they propose. It is the part of wisdom to suit the means to the end when we have any scheme to effect. Those who are readiest in form. ing projects are not always the fittest for carrying them into execution. That ardor of character which impels to the achievement of arduous undertakings belongs but to very few. We should never give up what we bave the least chance of $a c$ complishing, if it be worth the labor; nor pursue any plan which affords us no prospect of effecting what we wish; nor undertake what we do not feel ourselves competent to exccute, particularly when there is anything extraordinary to achieve.

It is the first rule in oratory that a man must appear such as he would persuade others to be; and that can be accomplished only by the force of his life.

Swift.
Reason considers the motive, the means, and the end, and honors courage only when it is employed to effect the purpose of virtue.

Hawresworth.
We are not to indulge our corporeal appetites with pleasures that impair our intellectual vigor, nor gratify our minds with schemes which we know our lives must fail in attempting to execute.

Johnson.
It is more than probable that in case our freethinkers could once achieve their glorious design of sinking the credit of the Christlan religion, and causing the revenues to be withdrawn whicb their wiser forefathers had appointed to the support and encouragement of its teachers, in a lit, tle time the Shaster would be as intelligible as the Greek Testament.

Berkilet.

## ACCOMPLISHED, PERHECT.

These cpithets express an assemblage of all the qualities suitable to the subject; and nurk the qualification in the highest degree. ACCOMPLISHED refers only to the artificial refiuements of the mind; PERFECT is suid of things in general, whether natural or artificial, mental or corporeal.

An acquaintance with modern languages and the ornamental branches of the arts and sciences constitntes an person accomplishel; t the highest possible degree of skill in any art constitutes a man a perfect artist.

For who expects that under a tutor a young gentleman should be an accomplished public orator or logician?

Locke.
Within a ken our army lies, Our men more perfect in the use of arms.

Shakspeare.
An accomplishment is aequired; but a perfection is either acquired or natural.

The English nation in the time of Slakspeare was yet struggling to emerge from barbarity ; and to be able to read and write was an accomplishment still valued for its rarity. Jounson.

A man endowed with great perfections, without good-hreeding, is like one who has his pocket fill of gold, but always wants change for his ordinary occasions.

Stele.
TO ACCOST, SALUTE, ADDRESS, GREET, HAIL, WELCOME.
ACCOST, in French accoster, is compounded of ac or ad. and the Latin costa, a rib or side, signifyng to come by the side of a person. SALUTE, in Latin saluto, from salus, health, signifies to bid goad-speed. ADDRESS, in French addresser, is compounded of ad and dresser, from the Latin direxi, preterite of dirigo, to direct or apply, signifying to direct one's discourse to a person.
To accost and salute are said of persons on their first meeting; address may be said of those who direct their discourse to others at any time. The leading idea of accost is that of speaking to a person on coming up to them; salute is to notice a person, which may be by words or otherwise; that of address is to direct one's words to the indiyidual, which may either be personally or by writing. Accosting is an act of famil-
iarity not warranted by anything but an intimate acquaintance, or for purposes of business ; saluting is an act of courtesy between friends which cannot be dispensed with; addressing is a matter of convenience or discretion.
When Aneas is sent by Virgil to the shades, he meets Dido the Queen of Carthage, whom his pertidy had hurried to the grave; he accosts her with tenderness and excuses, but the lady turns away like Ajux in mute disdain. Jounson.
Strabo tells ns he saw the statue of Memnon, which, according to the poets, saluted the norning sun every day at its first rising, with a harmonious sound.

Prideaux.
I was harassed by the multitude of eager sulutations, and returued the common civilities witli hesitation and impropriety. Jounson.
I still continued to stand in the way, having scarcely strength to walk farther; when another soon uddressed me in the same manner.

Jogns dr.
GREET, in Suxon gretan, German grüssen, Low-German gröten, etc., probably from the Saxon gryth, Swedish grud, peace, implies a verbal and friendly salute between equals, conveying a good and kind wish. HAIL, from heal and hcalth, denotes a wish for the healtb and long life of the person addressed, which was a customary form of address among the Eastern nations on approaching their sovereign; the word is now used to denote a similar expression on solemn occasions, particularly by the poets. WELCOME denotes an expression of good wishes and kind regards on a person's first arrival ; it is therefore confined to strangers or those who have been absent for a time.
Not only those I named I there shall grest, But my own gallant, virtuous Cato meet.

Denham
The Trojan bands returning Hector wait, And hail with joy the champion of their state.

Pope.
Our crosses on the way
Have made it tedions, wearisome, and heavy. I want more uncles to welcome me.

Shatspefry

## ACCOUNT, RECKONING, BILL.

ACCOUNT, componnded of ac or ad and count, signifies to count to a person, or for a thing; an account is the thing so counted. RECKONING, from the verb to reckon, signifies the thing reckoned up. BILL, in Saxon bill, in all probability comes from the Swedish byla,

## ACCOUNT

to build, signifying a written contract for building vessels, which in German is still called a beilbrief; hence it has been emploped to express various kinds of written documents. These words, which are very similar in signification, may frequently be suhstituted for one another.

Account is the generic, the others the specific terms: a reckoning and bill is an account, thongh not always vice versa: accunt expresses the details, with the sum of them counted np ; reckoning implies the register and notation of the things to be reckoned up; bill denotes the details, with their particular charges. An yccount shonld be correct, containing neither more nor less than is proper; a rech:oning should be explicit, leaving nothing nnooticed as to dates and names; a bill should be fair. We speak of keeping an account, of coming to a rechoning, of sending in a bill. Customers have an account with their tradespeople; masters have a reckoning with their workpeople; tradesmen send in their bills at stated periods.

Account, from the extensive use of the term, is applicable to everything that is noted down, the particulars of which are considered worthy of notice, individually or collectively: merchants keep their accounts; an account is taken at the Cus-tom-house of all that goes in and out of the kingdom; an account is taken of all transactions, of the weather, of natural phenomena, and whatever is remarkable. Reckoning, as a particular term, is more partial in its use: it is mostly confined to the dealings of men with one another; in which sense it is superseded by the preceding term, and now serves to express only an explanatory enumeration, which may be either verbal or written. Bill, as implying something charged or engaged, is used not only in a mercantile, hut a legal sense; hence we speak of a bill of lading, a bill of parcels, a bill of exchange, a bill of indictment, or a bill in Parliament.
At many times I brought in my accounts,
Laid them before you; you would throw them off, And say you found them in my honesty.

Shatspeare.
Merchant with some rudeness demanded a room, and was told that there was a good fire in the next parlor, which the company were about to leave, heing then paying their reckoning.

Johnson.

Ordinary expense ought to be limited by 9 man's estate, and ordered to the best, that the biuld may be less than the estimation abroad.

Bacon.

## account, Narrative, description.

ACCOUNT ( $v$. Account) is the most general of these terms; whatever is noted as worthy of remark is an account. NARRATIVE, from narrate, in Latin narratus, participle of narro or gnaro, signifies the thing made known. DESCRIPTION, from describe, in Latin de scribo, or de and scribo, to write down, signifies the thing written down.

Account has no reference to the person giving the account; a narrative must bave a narrator; a description must have a describer. An account may come from one or several quarters, or no specified quarter; but a narrative and description bespeak themselves as the production of some individual. Accounts from the armies are anxiously looked for in time of war; he suddenly broke off his narra. tive; his book is full of descriptions.

The accounts which charge him with having maltreated the Pope's person are not only unauthenticated, but positively false.

Sir Walter Scott.
Cynthia was much pleased with my narrative.
Tatler.
Most readers, I believe, are more charmed with Milton's description of paradise than of hell.

ADdison.
An accouni may be given of political events, domestic occurrences, or natural phenomena, bnt more particularly of matters of temporary and immediate interest; it may be true or false: a narrative is mostly personal, respecting the proceedings, accidents, or adventures of individuals ; it may be real or fictitious; a description does not so much embrace occurrences as local circumstances, properties, and characteristics ; it is either correct or otherwise.

A man of business, in good company, who gives an account of his ahilities and despatches, is hardly more insupportable than her they call a notable woman.

Steele.
Few navratives will, either to men or women. appear more incredible than the histories of the Amazons.

Johnson.
It (the catacomb) remains entire, and answera the deseription he (Polybins) gives of it.

Beydone.

## aCCURATE, leXACT, PRECISE.

aCCURATE, in French accurate, Latin accuratus, participle of accuro, compounded of the intensive $a c$ or $a d$ and curo, to take care of, signifies done with great care. EXACT, in French exacte, Latin exactus, participle of exigo, to finish or complete, denotes the quality of completeness, the absence of defect. PRECISE, in French précis, Latin proecisus, participle of procido, to cut by rule after the manner of earpenters, signifies the quality of doing by rule.

Accurate refers to the care bestowed upon any matter to make it what it ought to be; exact and precise simply denote the quality of the thing, the former inplying completeness, the latter nicety as to the manner of executing anything. From this difference in their meaning ariscs a difference in their application; a painting, on examination or on observation, is more properly said to be accurate; a model, figure, or measure, to be exact ; a line, a rule, or a form, to be precise.

Halley was the first who made an acourate observation of the transit of Mercury over the disk of the sun.

Adams.
If we differ in opinion abont two quantities, we can have recourse to a common measure, to determine the question with the greatest exuctuess.

Bceez.
The rose is even more beautiflul before it is full blown and in the bud, before the exact figure is formed.

BurEE.
When more of these orders than one are to be set in several stories, there must be an exquisite care to place the columus precisely over one another.

WOTTON.
The law in this point is preciss.
Bacon.
These epithets rise in sense upon each other, exact signifying nore than accurate, and procise a greater degree of minuteness than either. With this distinction they may be applied to the same or similar objects: a description or view may be accurate and exact, but in the former case it is only just as far as it goes, in the latter it is fuller of particulars and details.

The destruction volcanoes occasion engrosses the attention of people too much to permit them to examine accurately the appearances which accur.

Adams.
I have not particularized any more: I do not pretend to earactness.

Burke.

A time or a period is said to be exact; an hour, a moment, or instant, precise; an expression accurate; the meaning of a $\begin{array}{r}\text {. } \\ \text { ord } \\ \text { precise. }\end{array}$

The time of this great revolution in our landed property cannot be ascertained with exactness.

Blackatone.
For the hour precise
Exacts our parting.
Milton.
An aptness to jumble things together wherein can be found any likeness, hinders the mind from accurats conceptions of them.

Locke.
Angels and spirits, in their several degrees of elevation above us, may be endowed with mora comprehensive faculties; and some of them perhaps have perfect and exact views of all finite beings that come under their cousideration. Locke.

The term taste, like other figurative terms, is not extremely accurate.

Buree.
A definition is the only way whereby the pron cise meaning of moral words can be known.

Locke.
In denoting moral qualities or habits, accuracy may be applied to whatever men attempt to do; exactness to matters of econony, prudence, and duty; precision, in regard to manners, modes, and forms. Accuracy is indispensable in ei. ther business or science, but particular. ly in commercial and legal transaetions; exactness is requisite in the payment of debts and the observance of all obligations. Some men may be very accurate in their particular line who are not very exact in fulfilling their engagements. In some cases, where great results may flow from trifling eauses, the greatest precision becomes requisite; we may, however, be too precise when we dwell on unimportint particulars, or adhere too tenaciously to forms and modes, but we never ean be too accurate or exact ; hence the epithet $p$ rerise is sometimes taken for affeetedly exact. A man may be precise in bis dress who is not remarkable either for accuracy or exactness in his general eon. duct.

An eminent artist who wrought up his pictures with the greatest accuracy, and gave them all those delicate tonches which are apt to please the nicest eye, is represented as tuning a theorbo.

Addigok.
This lady is the most eacact economist, withont appearing busy.

Congreve.
An apparent desire of admiration, a reflection mpon their own merit, and a precise bebavior in their general conduct, are almost inseparable accidents in beauties.

Hrease.

## ACKNOWLEDGE

## TO ACCUSE, CHARGE, IMPEACH, ARRAIGN.

ACCUSE, in Latin accuso, compounded of $a c$ or $a d$ and causa, a cause or trial, signifies to bring to trial. CHARGE, from the word cargo, a burden, signifies to lay on a burden. IMPEACH, in French mpêcher, to hinder or disturb, compounded of em or in and pes, the foot, signifies to entangle the feet in anything. ARRAIGN, compounded of ar or ad and raign or range, signifies to range, or set at the bar of a tribunal.

The idea of asserting something to the prejudice of another is common to these terms; but accuse is said of acts, eharge of moral qualities constituting the character: we accuse a person of murder; we charge him with dishonesty. Accuse is properly a formal action; charge is an informal action: criminals are accused, and their accusation is proved in a court of judicature to be true or false; any person may be charged, and the charge may be either substantiated or refuted in the judgment of a third person.

The Countess of Hertford, demanding an audience of the Queen, laid before her the whole series of his mother's cruelty, exposed the improbability of an uccusation, by which he was charged with an intent to commit a murder that could produce no advantage. Johnson's Life cf Savage.

Nor was this irregularity the only charge which Lord Tyrconnel brought against him. Having given him a collection of valuable books stamped with his own arms, he had the mortification to see them in a short time exposed for sale.

Johnson's Life of Savaoe.
Impeach and arraign are both species of accusing; the former in application to statesmen and state concerns, the latter in regard to the general conduct or principles; with this difference, that he who impeaches only asserts the gnilt, but does not determine it ; but those who arraign also take upon themselves to declde: statesmen are impeached for misdemeanors in the administration of government: kings arraign governors of provinces and subordinate princes, and in this manner kings are sometimes arraigned before mock tribunals: our Saviour was arraigned before Pilate; and creatures in the madness of presumption arraian their Creator.

Aristogiton, with revengeful cunning, impeach ed several courtiers and intinates of the tyrant. Cumbealand.
O the inexpressible horror that will uize apon a poor sinner, when he stands araigned at the bar of divine justice!

Souta.

## TO ACCUSE, CENSURE.

ACCUSE, v. To accuse, charge. CEN. SURE, in French censure, in Latin cen sura, is derived from censor, a Roman magistrate who took cognizance of the morals and manners of the citizens, as also of the domestic arrangements of the city. It signifies not only the office of censor, but, in an extended sense, the act of blaming or punishing offenders against morality, which formed a prominent feature in his office.

To accuse is only to assert that which is prejudicial to another; to censure is to take the fault for granted. We accuse only to make known the offence, to provoke inquiry; we censure in order to inflict a punishment. An accusation may be false or true; a censure mild or severe. It is extremely wrong to accuse another without sufficient grounds; but still worse to censure him without the most substantial grounds. Every one is at liberty to accuse another of offences which he knows him for a certainty to have committed; but none can censure who are not authorized by their age or station.
Mr. Locke accuses those of great negligence who discourse of moral things with the least ob. scurity in the terms they make use of. Buderil.
If any man measure his words by his heart, and speak as he thinks, and do not express more kindness to every man than men usually have for any man, he can hardly escape tbe censure of the want of breeding.

Timlotson.

## TO ACKNOWLEDGE, OWN, CONFESS, AVOW.

ACKNOWLEDGE, compounded of om or ad and knowledge, implies to bring to knowledge, to make known. OWN is a familiar figure, signifying to take to one's self, to make one's own ; it is a common substitute for confess. CONFESS, in French confesser, Latin confessus, participle of confitcor, compounded of con and fateor, signifies to impart to any one. AVOW, in French avouer, Latin advoveo, signifies to row or protest to any one.

These words all denote the making
known to others what relates to ofe's self, or that in which one has taken a part; acknowledge is used in this general sense in a diversity of applications; the other terms are partially emploved, and with various modifications in their meaning. Acknowledge and own are employed either in matters of indifference or those which are blameworthy; confess mostly in such matters as are eriminal or in a high degree culpable. A person acknowledges that he was present, or owns that he assisted another, he confesses a theft, or confesses his guilt, or a sinner confeeses his sins. To acknowledge and own, when applied to culpable matters, may either have respect to particular transactions or general characteristics, as to acknowledge or own the fact, to acknowledge or own one's weakness, fallibility, incapacity, etc. ; to confess is mostly said of particular transactions, as to confess the crime laid to one's charge. To acknowledge, being a voluntary act, may be either by words or actions, or tacitly without any outward expression; confessing, on the other hand, being mostly called for in consequence of an interrogatory or the necessities of the party, it mnst always be by express words.
None of them (the nuns) had the sincerity to acknowledge the unhappiness of their condition.

Bnydone.
And now, my dear, cried she to me, I will fairiy own that it was I that instructed my girls to encourage our landiord's addresses. Goldsmith.

To acknowledge and own also signify to admit tbat a thing belongs to one, but the former denotes only a general relationship, the latter a special ownership; with this distinction we may speak of acknowledging or owning a son; but we may likewise acknowledge many things which we cannot properly own, as to acknowoledge a woman as one's wife, or any particular person as a prince, or any particular state as independent.

[^4]which application they are comparable with avow. In this case to acknowledge is most properly applied to matters of opinion, own to matters of feeling, although they may in many such case be indifferently employed.
I must acknowlealoe, for my own part, that I take greater pleasure in considering the works of the creation in their immensity than in their minuteness.

Aodison.
In such an assembly it was impossible for the heart not to dilate and expand itself; I own that mine was often so full that I could hardly find utterance.

Baydone.
To acknowledge is to declare in a general manner one's assest to anything, to confess is to declare in a solcmn manner one's assent to matters of faith ; to avows is to declare the motives or reasons of one's actions, particularly such as might with more propriety be concealed; as to acknouledge the justness of a remark, to confess the faith, to avow one's motives, contempt, scorn, etc.
They acknowledge no power not directly ema. nating from the people.

Burse.
Spite of herself, e'en envy must confebs That I the friendship of the great possess.

Francis.
Whether by their settled and a ponved scorn of thoughtless talkers, the Persians were able to diffuse to any great extent the virtue of taciturnity, we are hindered by the distance of those times from boing able to discover.

Johngon.

## ACQUAINTANCE, FAMILIARITY, INTIMACY.

ACQUAINTANCE comes from an quaint, which is compounded of the in tensive syllable ac or ad and quaint, in old French coint, Teut. gehannt, known, signifying known to one. FAMILIARITY comes from familiar, in Latin familiaris and familia, signifying known as one of the family. INTIMACY, from intimate, in Latin intimatus, participle of intimo, to love entirely, from intimus, innermost, signifies known to the innermost recesses of the heart. These terms mark different degrees of closeness in the social intercourse; acquainiance expressing less than familiarity, and that less than intimacy.
A slight knowledge of any one constitutes an acquaintance; to be familiar requires an acguaintance of some standing; intimacy supposes such an acquaintance as is supported by friendship.

Tacsher

## ACQUIRE

Acquaintance springs from occasional intercourse; familiarity is produced by a daily intercourse, which wears off all constraint, and banishes all ceremony; intimacy arises not merely from frequent intercourse, but unreserved communication. An acquaintance will be occasionally a guest; but one that is on terms of fameliarity has easy access to our table; and an intimate likewise lays claim to a share at least of our confidence. An acquaintance with a person affords but little opportunity for knowing his character; familiarity puts us in the way of seeing his foibles, rather than his virtues; but intimacy eoables us to appreciate his worth.

Those who are apt to be familiar on a slight aequaintance will never acquire any degree of intimacy.

Trusler.
An acquaintance is a being who meets us with a smile and salute, who tells as with the same breath that he is glad and sorry for the most trivial good and ill that befalls ns.

Hawnesworth.
His familiars were his entire friends, and conld have no interested views in courting his acquaintance.

Steene.
At an entertainment given by Pisistratns to some of his intimates, Thrasippus took some occasion, not recorded, to break out into the nost violent abuse.

Cumberlana.
A simple acquaintance is the most desirable footing on which to stand with all persons, however deserving. If it have not the plcasures of familiarity or intimacy, it can claim the privilege of being exempted from their pains. "Too much familiarity," according to the old proverb, "breeds contempt." The unlicensed freedom which commonly attends famil iarity affords but too ample scope for the indulgence of the selfish and unamiable passions. Intimacies begun in love often end in hatred, as ill chosen friends commonly become the bitterest enemies. A man may have a thousand acquaintances, and not one whom he should make his intimate.

Acquaintance grew; th' acquaintance they improve
To friendship; friendship ripen'd into love.
Eusden.
That familiarity produces neglect has been long observed.

Johnson.
The intimacy between the father of Engenio and Agrestis prodnced a tender friendship between his sister and Amelia. Haweesworth.

These terms may be applied to things as well as persons, in which case they bear a similar analogy. An acquaintance with a subject is opposed to entire ignorance upon it; familiarity with it is ths consequence of frequent repetition; and intimacy of a steady and thorough research. In our intercourse with ths world we become daily acquainted witk fresh subjects to engage our attention Some men have by extraordinary dili gence acquired a considerable familiari $t y$ with more than one language and science; but few, if any, can boast of hav. ing possessed an intimate acquaintanco with all the particulars of even one language or science. When we can translate the authors of any foreign language, ws may claim an acquaintance with it; when we can speak or write it frecly, we may be said to be familiar with it; hut an intimate acquaintance comprehends a thorough critical intimacy with all the nice. ties and subtleties of its structure.

With Homer's heroes we have more than historical acquaintance: we are made intimatr with their habits and manners. Conabeblanj
The frequency of enry makes it so familias that it escapes our notice. Johnsom

TO ACQUIRE, OBTAIN, GAIN, WIN, EARN.
ACQUIRE, in Freach acquirer, Latio acquiro, is compounded of ac or ad and quaro, to seek, signifying to seek or get to one's self. OBTAIN, in French ob. tenir, Latin obtineo, is compounded of ob and teneo, to hold, signifying to lay hold or secure within one's reach. GAIN and WIN are derived from the same source; namely, the French gagner, German gewinnen, Sisxon winnen, Latin vinco, Greek $\kappa a \iota \nu \%$ at or $\nu \kappa \omega$, to conquer, signifying to get the mastery over, to get into one's possession. EARN comes from the Saxon tharnan, German erndten, Frieslandish arnan, to reap, which is connected with the Greek apvval, to take or get.

The idea of getting is common to these terms, but the circumstances of the action vary. We acquive by our own efforts; we obtain hy the efforts of others as well as ourselves; we gain or win by striving; we earn by lahor. Talents and industry are requisite for acquiring; what we acquire comes gradually to us io con

अequence of the regular exercise of our abilities ; in this manner, knowledge, honor, and reputation are acquired. Things are obtained by all means, honest or dishonest; whatever comes into our possession agreeable to our wishes is obtained; favors and requests are always obtained. Fortune assists in both gaining and winning, but particularly in the latter case; a subsistence, a superiority, a victory, or battle, is gained; a game or a prize in the lottery is won. A good constitution and full employment are all that is necessary for earning a livelihood. Fortunes are acquived after a course of years; they are obtained by inheritance, or gained in trade.

No virtue is acquired. In an instant, but step by step.

Sir W. Scort.
The Directory made a tyrannical use of the power which they had obtuined. Sin W. Scorr.

Were not this desire of fame very strong, the difficnlty of obtaining it, and the danyer of losing it when obtained, would be sufficient to deter a man from so vain a pursnit. Addison.

He whose mind is engaged by the acquisition or improvement of a fortnne, not only escapes the insipidity of indifference and the tediousness of inactivity, but guins enjoyments wholly unknown to those who live lazily on the toils of others.

JOHNSON.
What is acquired is solid, and produces lasting benefit: what is obtained may of ten be injurious to one's health, one's interest, or one's morals : what is gained or won is often only a partial advantage, and transitory in its nature; it is gained or won only to be lost; what is earned serves sometimes only to supply the necessity of the moment; it is hardly got and quickly spent. Scholars acquire learning, obtain rewards, gain applause, and win prizes, which are often hardly earned by the loss of health.
It is Sallust's remark upon Cato, that the less he coveted glory the more he acquired it.

Addison.
If a prinee place men in wealthy circumstances, the first thing they think of in danger is how to preserve the advantages they have obtained, withont regard to his fate to whom they owe them.

Sir W. Scotr.
Where the danger ends, the hero ceases: when he has aom an empire, or gained bis mistress, the rest of his story is not worth relating.

Steele.
An honest man may freely take his own; The goat was mine, by singing fairly won.

Daydin.

They who have carned their fortune by in borions and indnstrious life are naturally tena cious of what they have painfully aoquired.

Brats.

## TO ACQUIRE, ATTAIN.

To ACQUIRE (v. To acquire, obtain) is a progressive and permanent action. To ATIAIN, in Latin attineo, compounded of $a b$ or $a d$ and teneo, to hold, signifying to rest at a thing, is a perfect and finished action. We always go on acquiring; but we stop when we have attained. What is acquired is something got into one's possession; what is attained is the point arrived at. We acquire a language; we attain to a certain degree of perfection. By abilities and perseverance we may acquire a considerable fluency in speaking several languages; but we can scarcely expect to attain to the perfection of a native in any foreign language. Ordinary powers coupled with diligence will enable a person to acquire whatever is use. ful'; but we cannot attain to superiority without extraordinary talents and determined perseverance. Acquirements are always serviceable; attainments always creditable.
A genins is never to be acquired by art, but is the gift of nature. Gur.
Inquiries after happiness, and rules for attaining it, are not so necessary and useful to man. kind as the arts of consolation, and supporting one's self nuder affiction.

Shephard.

## ACQUIREMENT, ACQUISITION.

Two abstract nouns, from the same verb, denoting the thing acquired. AC. QUIREMENT implies the thing acquired for and by ourselves; ACQUISITION, that which is acquired for the benefit of one's self or another. People can expect to make but slender acquirements without a considerable share of industry; and without them they will be no acqui. sition to the community to which they have attached themselves. Acquirement respects rather the exertions employed; acquisition the benefit or gain accruing To learn a language is an acquirement: to gain a class or a degree, an acquisi tion. The acquirements of literature fas exceed in value the acquisitions of fortune.
Men of the greatest application and acquirements can look back apon many vacant spares and ncglected parts of time.


To me, who have taken pains to look at beanty, abstracted from tha consideration of its being an object of desire; at power only as it sits npon onother without any hopes of partaking any share of it ; at wisdon and capacity without any pratension to rival or envy its doquisitions; the world is not only a mero scene, but a pleasant one.

Steele.

## ACRIMONY, TARTNESS, ASPERITY, HAKSHNESS.

These epithets are figuratively employed to denote sharpness of feeling corresponding to the quality in natural bodies. ACRIMONY, in Latin acrimonia, from acer, sharp, is the characteristic of garlic, mustard, and pepper, that is, a biting sharpness. TARTNESS, from tart, is not improbably derived from tartar, the quality of which it in some degree resembles; it is a high degree of acid peculiar to vinegar. ASPERITY, in Latin asperitas, from asper, and the Greek $a \sigma \pi \rho o g$, fallow, without culture and without fruit, signifying land that is too hard and rough to be tilled. HARSHNESS, fram harsh, in German and Teutonic herbe, herbisch, Swedish kerb, Latin acerbus, denotes the sharp, rough taste of unripe fruit.

A quick sense produces acrimony; it is too frequent among disputants, who embitter each other's feelings. An acute sensibility coupled with quickness of intellect produces tartness; it is too frequent among females. Acrimony is a transient feeling that discovers itself by the words ; tartness is an habitual irritability that mingles itself with the tone and looks. An acrimonious reply frequently gives rise to much ill-will; a tart reply is often treated with indifference, as indicative of the natural temper, rather than of any unfriendly feeling.

The genius, even when he endeavors only to antertain or instruct, yet suffers persecution from innumerabla critics, whose acrimony is excited merely by the pain of seeing others pleased.

Johnaon.
They cannot be too sweet for the king'a tartness.

Sfakapeare،
Asperity and harshness respect one's conduct to iuferiors; the latter expresses a strong degree of the former. Asperity is opposed to mildness and forbearance; harshness to kindness. A reproof is conveyed with asperity, when the words and logks copvey strong displeasure; a treat-
ment is harsh when it wounds the feel ings, and does violence to the affections. Mistresses sometimes chide their servants with asperity; parents sometimes deal harshly with their children.
No harsh refection lat remembrance raise; Forbear to mention what thou canst not praise.

Prioz.
The nakedness and asperity of the wintry world always fills the beholder with pensive and profound astonishment.

Johnson.

## TO ACT, DO, MAKE.

ACT, in Latin actus, participle of ago, to drive or impel, signifies literally to move or put in motion. DO, in German thun, like the Greek $\theta$ aival, signifies to put or put in order, to bring to pass. MAKE, in Saxon macan, German machen, etc., is connected with the Greek $\mu \eta \chi^{a \nu \eta}$, art, signifying to put together with art.

All these terms imply to exert a pow. er in a given form and manner: act, which is the general term, conveys this general idea without any further qualifcation; the other terms convey this idea with modifications. We always act when we $d o$, but we do not always do when we act. To act is applied either to persons or things, as a spring or a lock acts; to do applies in this sense to persons only. To act is also mostly intransitive or reflective, as to act well or ill in this or that manner; to do is always transitive, as to do right or wrong, to do one's duty.
If we look down from the sublime of nature to its minutix, we shall still find the same power (of electricity) acting, though perhaps in leas legible characters.

Brydone.
Marcus Anrelius declares that, by imitating the Gods, it was always his study to have as few wants as possible in himaelf, and to do all the good he could to others.

Adilson.
One may either act a part or do one's part, whichare essentially different things; to act a part is eitber really or fictitiously to act in any part; but to do our part is to do that which is allotted to us as our part or duty.

He acted every part of an orstor.
Gulliver'a Travela
The church hath done her part, in compliance with the designs of God's mercy and providence. to deliver it (the scripture) safely to us, and ragke it useful for us.

Comrer.
To do and to make, in regard to persons, are hoth used in the sense of voluntarily exerting a power to bring a thing
to pass; but do spplies to the ordinary business of life or what is done by a given rule, as to do a work, to do jnstice; make applies to that which is done by a particular contrivance or for a particulsr purpose, 88 to make s pen or a table, etc. What is done once may have been done before, snd may be done again; but what is made is at once brought into existence, and, if it be made again, it can only be by imitation.

What shall I do to be forever known, And make the age to come my own? Cowler.
Empire! than poor and despicalle thing,
When such as these make and unmake a king. Dryden.
To do snd to make, as spplied to things, signify to cause; but the former is used only in the expressions to do good or hsrm, the lstter is ordinsrily used, to make room, to moke a thing easy, etc.

## TO ACT, WORK, OPERATE.

To ACT (v. To act) is to exert a simple power, or by simple means, as a wire acts. WORK, like the German wirken, etc., Greek etoyalopas, is to exert complex powers, or exert power by a gradusl process. A machine uorks, but esch of its parts is said to act; so beer works, and bresd works; acting may be accompanied with no particular effect or change in the body that acts, but that which works mostly undergoes a change snd also produces chsnges, as medicine, which works in the systen. Sometimes act as well as work is taken in the sense of exerting a power upon other bodies and producing changes, as the sun acts on the plants.

An increase of the electrical matter ndds much to the progress of vegetation ; it probably acts there in the same manner as in the animal body. Brydone.
This so wrought upon the child that aftere ward be desired to be taught.

Locke.
To work and OPERATE both imply to act, or exert a power in order to bring about some end or purpose; but operate is applied to matters of a general nature in soience or morals, as a measure operatas, or words may operate on the mind, or ressons msy operate on the understanding. To work is mostly spplied to fsimillar matters and particular objects, as the hand works, the head works, the brain works; operate is always intransitive.

Sornetimes a pession seems to operate
Almost in contrudiction to itself.
Shibete:
Some deadly draught, sotne euemy to life, Boils in my bowels and works out my sonl.

Derdek.
As nouns, action implies either the act of seting or the thing done (v. Action, deed); work, the act or state of working, or what results from the work, as to go to work or be at work, the work of one's hands ; operation, either to the act of operating, ss the operation of thought or the operation of vegetation, or the mode of operating, as the operations of time sre various.
Nor was the nork impaired by storms alone, But felt th' approaches of too warm a sun. Pore.
Spleculative painting, without the assistance of manual oparation, can never attain to perfec. tion, but slothfully languishes; for it was never with his tongue that Apelles performed his noble works.

Driden.
There are in men operations natural, rational, supernatural, sorne politic, some finally ceclesiastic.

Hooser.

## ACT, ACTION, DEED.

The words act, action, and deed, though derived from the preceding verbs, have an obvious distinction in their meaning. ACT, in French acte, Latin actum, denotes the thing done. ACTION, in French action, Latin actio, signifies doing. Act is a single exercise of power, as an act of the will or an act of the mind, the act of walking, speaking, and the like; action, a continued exercise of power, or a state of exercising power, as to be in action, as opposed to rest; the action of walking is agreeshle in fine weather.
I shall distribute the redress of private wrnngs into three several species: first, that which is obtained by the mere act of the parties them seives; secondly, that which is effected by the mere act and operation of law ; and, thirdly, that which arises from suits, etc.

Blackstone.
Good company, lively conversations, and the endearments of friendship, fill the mind with preat pleasure; a temporary solitude, on the other hand, is itself agreeable. This may perv haps prove that we are creatures designed for contemplation as well as action.

Burke.
When these words sre taken in the sense of the thing done, they admit of a similar distinction. An act is the single thing done, or what is done by a single effort, as that is your act or his act; an action may consist of more acts than one, or embrace the causes and conaequenceas

## ACTION

of the action, as a bold action, to judge of actions, etc.
Any malfeasance, or act of one man, whereby another is injuriously treated or damnified, is a transgression or trespass.
blackstone.
Many of those actions which are apt to procure fame are not in their nature conducive to our uilimate happiness.

Addison.
Hence it is that the term act is more proper than action, where it is so defined as to imply what is single and simple, as an act of authority, an act of government, an act of folly, and the like; but otherwise the word action is to be preferred where the moral conduct or character is in question. We may enumerate particular acts of a man's life, as illustrative of certain traits in his character, or certain circumstances in his life; but to speak at large of his actions would be to describe his character.
He (the court favorite) can do an infinite number of acts of generosity and kindness. Burke.
A man thus armed (with proper assurance), if nis words or actions are at any time misinterpreted, retires within himself.

ADDison.
Act and deed are both employed for what is done; but aet refers to the power exerted, and deed to the work performed; as a voluntary or involuntary act, a good or bad deed.
Who forth from nothing call'd this comely frame; His will and $a c t$, his word and work the same.

Prion.
To bring the man into judgment to answer for his deeds, the soul and tbe body must be brought together again.

Sherlock.
Act is mostly employed either in an abstract or familiar application; deed is employed for whatever men do in the business of life, particularly in those things which are extraordinary.

Cato said, the best way to keep good act.s in memory was to refresh them with new. Bacon.

I on the other side,
Us'd no ambition to commend my deeds.
milon.
Acts are either public or private, of individuals or of bodies, as acts of government, acts of Parliament; deeds are always private, or what is done by men individually.

Opposition to acts of power was to be marked by a kind of civil proseription.

Burke.
So creeping close as snake in hidden weedes, Inquireth of our atates and of our knightly deeds.

Acts are in their proper sense infon mal; but deeds may sometimes be for. mal instruments: when you speak of a thing as a man's act and deed, this is not tautology; it is his act as far as he and no one else acts in it, it is his deed as far as it is that which is done completely, or is accomplished.
ACTION, GESTURE, GESTICULATION: POSTURE, ATTITUDE.
ACTION, v. To act. GESTURE, in French geste, Latin gestur, participle of gero, to carry one's self, signifies the manner of carrying onc's body. GESTICU. LATION, in Latin gesticulatio, comes from gesticulor, to make many gestures. POSTURE, in French posture, Latin positura, a position, comes from positus, participle of pono, siguifying the manner of placing one's self. ATTITUDE, in French attitude, Italian attitudine, is changed from aptitude, signifying a propriety as to disposition.

All these terms are applied to the state of the body; the three former indicating a state of motion: the two latter a state of rest. Action respects the movements of the body in general; gesture is an action indicative of some particular state of mind; gesticulation is a species of artificial gesture. Raising the arm is an action; bowing is a gesture. Actions may be ungraceful ; gestures indecent. A suitable action sometimes gives great force to the words that are uttered; gestures often supply the place of language between people of different nations. Actions characterize a man as vulgar or well-bred; gestures mark the temper of the mind. There are many actions which it is the object of education to prevent from growing into habits; savages express the vehement passions of the mind by vehement gestures on every occasion, even in their amusements. An extravagant or unnatural gesture is termed a gesticula. tion; a sycophant, who wishes to cringe into favor with the great, deals largely in gesticulation to mark his devotion; a buffoon who attempts to imitate the gestures of another will use gesticulation; and the monkey who apes the actions of human beings does so by means of gesticulations.

[^5]action, without which part he affirms that the best orator in the world can never succeed.

Huores.
Our best actors are somewhet at a loss to support themselves with proper peature as they move from any considerable distance to the front of the stage.

Steele.
Neither the judges of onr laws, nor the representatives of the people, would be much affected by lahored geaticulation, or believe any man the more, becanse be rolled his eyes, or puffed uis cheeks.

JOHNSON.
Posture and attitude both imply a mode of placing the body, but the posture is either natural or assumed; the attitude is always assumed or represented: natural postures are those in which tbe body places itself for its own conveniences, as sitting, standing, on lying postures.

They (who went to consult the oracle of Amphraseus) then went to sleep lying on a victim's skin, and in that posture expected a revclation by dream.

Potres.
A posture, when assumed, may be distorted or ridiculous, to suit the humor of the party, as mountebanks put themselves ioto ridiculous postures; or they may be artfully contrived to improve the carriage of the body, as the postures of a dancingmaster ; and, in graver matters, a person may put himself in a posture of defence.

[^6]An attitude is assumed in order to display some grace of the body, or some affection or purpose of the mind, as to stand in a graceful attitude, to represent any one in the attitude of prayer.

He was armed in mail: his body covered with a short gown; his legs crossed; for he had either the merit of visiting the Holy Land or (which would entitle him to thet attitude) made a vow to perform that explatory pilgrimage. Pennant.

These terms may be applied to things personified, with precisely the same distinction.

Felsehood in a short time found, by experience, that her superiority consisted only in the celerity of her course, and the change of her posture.

Johnson.
Falsehood always endeavored to copy the mien and attitudes of truth.

Johnson.
They may also be applied figuratively to other objects besides the body, as an army assumes a menacing attitude, a critical posture of affairs.

Milton has represented this violent spirit (Moloch) as the first that rises in thet essembly to give his opinion on their present posture of affairs.

Adpison.
His attitude wes now an alerming one to Eu* rope.

Sig W. Scotta

## ACTION, AGENCY.

ACTION ( $v$. To act) is the effect; AGENCY (v. To act) the cause. Action is inherent in the subject: agency is something exterior; it is, in fact, put. ting a thing into action: in this manner the whole world is in action through the agency of the Divine Being.

It is better therefore that the earth should move about its own centre, and make those usefnl vicissitudes of night and day, than expose al. ways the same side to the action of the sun.

## Bentley.

A few advances there are in the following pepers tending to assert the superintendence and agency of Providence in the natural world.

Woodward.
ACTIVE, DILIGENT, INDUSTRIOUS, ASBIDUOUS, LABORIOUS.
ACTIVE, from the verb to act, implies a propensity to act, to be doing something without regard to the nature of the object. DILIGENT, in French diligent, Latin diligens, participle of diligo, to choose or like, implies an attachment to an object, and consequent attention to it. INDUSTRIOUS, in French industrzeux, Latin industrius, is probably changed from endostruus, that is, endo or intro, within, and struo, to build, make, or do, signifying an inward or thorough inclination to be engaged in some serious work. ASSIDUOUS, in French assidu, in Latin assidurus, is compounded of as or ad, and siduus, from sedeo, to sit, signifying to sit close to a thing. LABORIOUS, in French laborieux, Latin laboriosus, from labor, implies belonging to lator, or the inclina tion to labor.

We are active if we are only ready to exert our powers, whether to any end or not; we are diligent when we are active for some specific end; we are industrious when no time is left unemployed in some serious pursuit; we are assiduous if we do not leave a thing until it is finished; we are caborious when the bodily or mental powers are regularly employed in some bard labor. A man may be active without being diligent, since he may employ
himself in what is of no importance; but he can scarcely be diligent without being active, since diligence supposes some degree of activity in one's application to a useful object. A man may be diligent without being industrious, for he may diligently employ bimself about a particular favoritc object withoot employing himself constantly in the same way; and he may be industrious without being diligent, since diligence implies a free exercise of the mental as well as corporeal powers; but industry applies primcipally to manual labor. Activity and diligence are therefore commonly the property of lively or strong minds, but industry may be associated with moderate talents. A man may be diligent without being assiduous; but he cannot be assidnous without being diligent, for assiduity is a sort of perseveriog diligence. A man may be industrious witbout being laborious, but not vice versd; for laboriousness is a severer kind of industry.
Providence has made the human soul an actios being.

Jonnson.
A constant and unfailing obedience is above the reach of terrestrial diligence.

Johmson.
It has been observed by writers of morality, that, in order to quicken human industry, l'rovidence has so contrived tbat onr daily food is not to le procured withont much pains und labor.

Admison.
If ever a cure is performed on a patient, where quacks are concerned, they can claim no greater share in it than Virgil's lapis in the curing of Eneas; he tried his skill, was very assiduons about the wound, and indeed was the only visible means that relieved the hero; but the poet assures us it was the particnlar assistance of a deity tbat speeded the operation.

Реadee.
If we look into the brute cacation, we find all its individuals engaged in a paincul and laborious way of life to procure a necessary subsistence for themselves.

Admison.
ACIIVE, BRISK, AGILE, NIMBLE.
ACTIVE, $v$. Active, diligent. BRISK has a common origin with fresh. AGILE, in Latin agilis, comes from the same verb as active, signifying a fitness, a readiness to act or move. NIMBLE is probably derived from the Saxon nemen, to take, implying a fitness or capacity to take anything by a celerity of movement.

Activity respects one's transactions; briskness one's sports: men are active in carrying on business; children are brisk in their play. Agility refers to the light
and easy carriage of the body in spring. ing; nimbleness to its quick and gliding movements in running. A rope-dancer is agile; a female moves nimbly. Ac tivity results from ardor of mind; brisk. ness from vivacity of feeling: agility is produced by corporeal vigor and habitual strong exertion; nimbleness results from au habitual effort to move lightly.

There is not a more painful action of the mind than invention: yet in dreams it works with that ease and actionty, that we are not sensible when the faculty is employed.

Admison.
I made my next application to a widow, and artacked her so briskly that I thought myself within a fortnight of her.

ВоDGEL
When the Prince touched the stirrup, and was going to speak, the ofticer, with an incredible agility, threw himself on the earth, and kissed his feet. Steble.
0 friends, I hear the tread of nimble feet
Hasting this way.
Mllenon.

## ACTIVE, BUSY, OFFICIOUS.

ACTIVE, v. Active, diligent. BUSY, in Saxon gebysgod, from bisgian, German beschäffigt, from beschäffigen, to occupy, and schaffen, to make or do, implies a propensity to be occupied. OFFICIOCS, in French officieux, Latin officiosus, from officium, duty or service, signifies a propensity to perform some service or office.

Active respects the habit or disposition of the mind; busy and officiows, either the disposition of the mind, or the employment of the moment: the former regards every species of employment; tbe latter only particular kinds of employment. An active person is ever ready to be employed; a person is busy when he is actually employed in any object; he is officious when he is employed for others. Active is always taken in a good, or at least an indifferent sense; it is opposed to lazy: busy, as it respects occupation, is mostly in a good sense ; it is opposed to being at leisure; as it respects disposition, it is always in a bad sense: officious is seldom taken in a good sense; it implies being busy witbout discretion. To an active disposition nothing is more irksome than inaction; but it is not concerned to inquire into the utility of the action. It is better for a person to be busy than quite unemployed; but a busy person will employ himself about the con. cerns of others, when he has none of his
own sufficiently important to engage his attention; an officious person is as unfortunate as he is troublesome; when he strives to serve he has the misfortune to annoy.
The pursuits of the active part of mankind are either in the paths of religion and virtue, or, on the other hand, in the roads to wealth, honor, or pleasures.

Addroon.
We see multitudes busy in the pursuit of riches, at the expense of wisdom and virtue. Johnson.
The air-pump, the barometer, the quadrant, and the like inventions, were thrown ont to those $b u s y$ apirits (politicians), as tubs and harrels are to a whale, that he may let the ahip sall on without disturbance.

Addron.
I was forced to quit my first lodgings by reason of an officious landlady, that would be asking me every morning how I had slept.

Addison.

## ACTOR, AGENT.

These terms vary according to the different senses of the verb from which they are drawn. AOTOR is used for one who either acts a part, or who represents the actions and characters of others, whether real or feigned.

Of all the patriarchal histories, that of Joseph and his brethren is the most remarkable, for the characters of the actors, and the instructive natmre of the events.

Blait.
AGENT is, in the general sense, an active or actiag being, one possessing and exerting the facuity of action, as a free agent, a moral agent.
Heaven made us agents free to good or ill, And forc'd it not, though le foresaw the will.

Driden.
The agent is properly opposed to the patient in the physical world.
They produced wonderfnl effects by the proper application of agents to patients. Temple.

Agent is also taken generally for whatever puts in motion.
I expect that no pagan agent shall be introduced into the poem, ur any fact related which a nan cannot give credit to with a good conscience. Addisor.

## ACTOR, PLAYER, PERFORMER.

The ACTOR and PLAYER both perform on a stage; but the former is said in relation to the part that is acted, the latter to the profession that is followed. We may be actors occasionally, without being players professionally, but we may
be players without deserving the name of actors. Those who personate charac ters for their amusement are actors, but not players: those who do the same for a livelihood are players as well as actors; hence we speak of a company of players, Dot actors. So likewise in the figurative sense, whoever acts a part real or ficti tious, that is, on the stage of life, or the stage of a theatre, is an actor; but he only is a player who performs the fictitious part; heace the former is taken in a bad or good sense, according to circum stances.
Cicero is known to have been the intimato friend of Roscius the actor. Hogres.

Our orators (says Cicero) are, as it were, the actors of truth itself; and the players the imitators of truth. Huches.

The player is always taken in a less favorable seose, from the artificiality which attaches to his profession.

> All the world's a stage,

And all the men and women merely players.
Shakspeare.
Performer signifies, in its most geveral sense, oue that performs any act or part; but in a limited sense, one who performs a part in a public exhibition, whether as a singer, actor, dancer, or otherwise.

He addresses himself to the heart, while most of the modern performers sing only to the fancy. Brydome.
actual, real, positive.
ACTUAL, in French actuel, Latin actioalis, from actio, a deed, signifies belonging to the thing done. REAL, in French réel, Latin realis, from res, signifies belonging to the thing as it is. POSITIVE, in French positif, Latin positivus, from pono, to place or fix, signifies the state or qual. ity of being fixed, established.

What is actual has proof of its existence within itself, and may be exposed to the eye; what is ral may be satisfactorily proved to exist; and what is positive precludes the necessity of a proof. Actual is opposed to the supposititious, conceived, or reported ; real to the feigned, imaginary; positive to the uncertain, doubtful. Wbatever is the condition of a thing for the time being is the actual condition; sorrows are real which flow from a substantial cause; proofs are pos
itive which leave the mind in no uncertainty. The actual state of a nation is not to be ascertained by individual instances of poverty, or the reverse; there are but few, if any, real objects of compassion among common beggars; many positive facts have been related of the deception which they have practised. By an actual survey of human life, we are alone enabled to form just opinions of mankind; it is but too frequent for men te disguise their real sentiments, although it is not always possible to obtain positive evidence of their insincerity.

The very notion of any duration being past implies that it was once present; for the tdea of being once present is actually included in the idea of its being past.

Addison.
We may and do converse with God in person really, and to all the furposes of giving and receiving, though not visibly.

South.
Dissimulation is taken for a man's positively professing himself to be what he is not. South.

## TO ACTUATE, IMPEL, INDUCE.

AOTUATE, from the Latin actum, an action, implies to call into action. IMPEL, in Latin impello, is compounded of $i m$, toward, and pello, to drive, signifying to drive toward an object. INDUCE, in Latin induco, is compounded of in and duco, signifying to lead into an object.

One is actuated by motives, impelled by passions, and induced by reason or inclination. Whatever actuates is the result of reflection; it is a steady and fixed principle: whatever impels is momentary and vehement, and often precludes reflection: whatever induces is not vehement, though often momentary. One seldom repents of the thing to which one is actuatcd; as the principle, whether good or bad, is not liable to change: but we may frequently be impelled to measures whieh cause serious repentance: the thing to which we are induced is seldom of suffieient importance to call for repentance.

[^7]
## acute, keen, shrewd.

ACUTE, in French acute, Latin acubus, from acus, a ncedle, signifies the quality of sharpness and pointedness peculiar to a needle. KEEN, in Saxon cene, probably comes from snidan, to cut, signifying the quality of being able to cut, SHREWD, probably from the Teutonic bescinreyen, to enchaut, signifies inspired or endowed with a strong portion of intuitive intellect.

In the natural sense, a fitness to pierce is predominant in the word acute; and that of cutting, or a fitness for cutting, in the word keen. The same difference is observable in their figurative acceptation. An acute understanding is quick at discovering truth in the midst of falsehood; it fixes itself on a single point with wonderful celerity: a keen understanding cuts or removes away the artificial veil under which the truth lies hidden from the view : a shrewd understanding is rather quick at discovering new truths, than at distinguishing truth from falsehood. Acuteness is requisite in speculative and abstruse discussions; keenaess in penetrating characters and springs of action; shrewdness in eliciting remarks and new ideas. The acute man detects errors, and the keen man falsehoods; the shrewd man exposes follies. Arguments may be acate, reproaches keen, and replies or retorts shrewd. A polemic, or a lawyer, must be acute, a satirist keen, and a wit shrewd.

His acuteness was most eminently signalized at the masquerade, where lie discovered his acquaintance through their digguises with such wonderful facility.

Jounson.
The village songs and festivities of Bacchus gave a scope to the wildest extravagancies of mummery and grimace, mixed with coarse but keen raillery.

Cembealand.
You statesmen are so shreud in forming schemes ! Jeffret.

## TO ADD, JOIN, UNITE, COALESCE.

ADD, in Latin addo, compounded of $a d$ and $d o$, to give or put, signifies to put one thing to another. JOIN, in French joindre, and Latin jungo, is in all probability connected with, if not derived from, the Greek $\zeta_{\varepsilon v \gamma \omega}$, to yoke, that is, to set one thing in juxtaposition with another. UNITE, from the Latin unus, one,
slgnifies to make into one. COALESCE, in Latin coalesco, or co or con and alesco or cresco, signifies to grow together.

We add by putting a part to any body so as to form a whole; we join by attaching two whole bodies to each other; we unite by putting two bodies to or into one another, so tbat they may become one body; things coalesce when their parts mingle together so as to form one substance. Additions may be made to whatever admits of becoming greater in size or quantity; a wing may be added to a building, or a house may be added to a row of houses; junctions may be made of any two bodies which can touch each other in any part ; thus two houses may be joined, or two countries, lands, kingdoms, etc., may be joined: unions may be formed of any thiogs which admit of being made into one so as to lose their individuality ; as, if two houses be made into one, they may be said to be united: things may be said to coalesce, the minutest parts of which will readily fall into one another; a coalition is properly a complete union, and is applied to the natural process of bodies. Adding is opposed to subtracting or diminishing, joining to separating, uniting to dividing, and coalescing to falling asunder.

I then purchased an orange-tree, to which in due time I added two or three myrtles.

Cowper.
The animal and vegetable kingdoms are so nearly joined, that, if you will take the lowest of the one and the highest of the other, there will scarce be perceived any difference between them.

Loces.
One elbow at eacla end, And in the midst an elbow it received, United yct divided.

Cowper.
When vapors are raised, they have not the transparency of the air, being divided into parts too small to canse any reflection in the superflcies; bnt, when they begin to coalesse and constitnte glohules, those globules become of a convenient size.

Newton.
They preserve this distinction in their noral application. One virtue or perfection may be added to another; persons join in matrimony, trade, or other particular act; they unite in families, in mind, or modes of living; qualities may be joined with others in the same substance, without any necessary connection between them; they are united when they belong to or are intimately conneoted with
each other; nations coalesce when they adopt the same language, laws, and manners; parties coalesce when they lay aside their differences and unite.

Every man of common-seuse can demonstrate in speculation, and may he fully convinced, that all the praises and commendations of the whole world can add no more to the real and intrinsic value of a man than they can $a d d$ to his stature.

> SWIFT.

It is not from his form, in which we trace
Strength joined with beauty, difgnity with grace: That man, the master of this globe, derives His right of empire over all that lives. Cowpea.
I assure myself that Eugland, Scotland, and Irelend, well united, is such a trifoile as no prince except yourself (who are the worthiest) weareth in his crown.

Bacon.
No coalition which under the specions name of independency carries in its bosom the unreconciled principles of the original discord of parties, ever was or ever will be a healing coulition.

Bu\&ke.

## ADDIGT, DEVOTE, APPLY.

ADDICT, from addico, or ad and dico, to speak or declare in favor of a thing, signifies generally to apply one's self to it. DEVOTE, from the Latin devoveo, or $d e$, on account or behalf of, and voveo, to vow, signifies to make a solemn vow or resolution for a thing. APPLY, in French appliquer, and Latin applico, from $a p$ or $a d$ and plico, signifies to knit or join one's self to a thing.

To addict is to indulge one's self in any particular practice; to denote is to direct one's powers and means to any particular pursuit ; to apply is to employ one's time or attention about any object. Men are addicted to learning; they devote their talents to the acquirement of any art or science; they apply their minds to the investigation of a subject.

As he had a good estate, he made a good use of it, denying himself in all worldly pomp, and applying himself constantly to his studies.

Burnet.
He was from his childhood addicted to study. Wood.
Persons who have devoted themselves to God are venerable to all who fear him. Berkeley.

Addict is seldomer used in a good than in a bad sense; devote is mostly employed in a good sense; apply in an indifferent sense. We are addicted to a thing from an irresistible passion or propensity; we are devoted to a thing from a strong but settled attachment to it; we apply to a
thing from a sense of its utility. We addict ourselves to study by yielding to our passion for it; we devote ourselves to the service of our king and country by employing all our powers to their benefit; we apply to business by giving it all the time and attention that it requires.

As the pleasures of luxury are very expensive, they put those who are addicted to them upon raising fresh supplies of money by all the methods of rapacionsness and corruption. ADdison.

So richly gifted with the best endowments both of heart and understandiog, he devoted a long and labortous life to the service of his king and conatry.

Life of Lobd Ellesmere.
Easy in his private circumstances, and totally void of every wish to accumulate, his zeal for his country, and his application to business, were not subject to be diverted from their proper exortions.

Cumberland.

## TO ADDRESS, APPLY.

ADDRESS is compounded of $a d$ and dress, in Spanish derecar, Latin direxi, preterite of dirigo, to direct, signifying to direct one's self to an object. APPLY, ข. To addict.

An address is immediately directed from one party to the other, either personally or by writing; an application may be made through the medium of a third person. An address may be made for an indifferent purpose or without any express object; but an application is always occasioned by some serious circumstance. We address those to whom we speak or write: hut we apply to those to whom we wish to communicate some object of personal interest. An address, therefore, may be made without an application; and an application may be made by means of an address. An address may be rude or civil; an application may be frequent or urgent. It is impertinent to address any one with whom we are not acquainted, unless we have any reason for making an application to them. It is a privilege of the British Constitution, that the subject may address the monarch, and apply for a redress of grievances. A court is addressed by a suitor or counsel on his behalf ; it is applied to by means of legal forms for the redress of grievances. We cannot pass tbrough the streets of the metropolis without being continually addressed by beggars, who apply for the relief of artificial more than of real wants.

Men in power are always exposed to be publicly addressed by persons who wish to obtrude their opinions upon them, and to have perpetual applications from thoss who solicit favors.
Many are the inconveniences which happeo from the improper manner of address, in common speech, between persoas of the same or differeat quality.

Steele.
In cases of prohibition, the party aggrieved in the court below applies to the superior court.

Blacestone.

## ADDRESS, SPEECH, HARANGUE, ORATION.

ADDRESS, $v$. To address. SPEECH, from speak, signifies the thing spoken. HARANGUE has been derived from the Saxon hringen, to ring, signifying a noisy address. ORATION, from the Latin ora, to beg or entreat, signifies that which is said by way of entreaty.

All these terms denote a set form of words directed or supposed to be directed to some person: an address in this sense is always written, but the rest are really spoken, or supposed to be so; a speech is in general that which is addressed in a formal manner to one person or more; an harangue is a noisy, tumultuous speech addressed to many; an oration is a solemn speech for any purpose. Addresses are frequently sent up to the throne by public bodies. Speeches in Parliament, like harangues at elections, are often little better than the crude effusions of party spirit. The orations of Demosthenes and Cicero, which bave been so justly admired, received a polish from the correct. ing hand of their authors before they were communicated to the public.

[^8]Every circnmstance in their speeches and actions is with justice and delicacy adapted to the persons who speak and act.

Addison on Milton.
There is scarcely a city in Great Britain but has one of this tribe, who takes it into his protection, and on the market-days harangues the good people of the place with aphorisms and recipes.

Pearce on quaces.

[^9]
## ADHERE

## ro ADDUCE, ALLEGE, ASSIGN, ADvance.

ADDUCE, in Latin adduco, compounded of $a d$ and duco, to lead, signifies to bring forward, or for a thing. ALLEGE, in French alléguer, in Latin allego, compounded of al or ad and lego, in Greek $\lambda_{k \gamma \omega} \omega$, to speak, signifies to speak for a thing. ASSIGN, in French assigner, Latin assigno, compounded of as or ad and signo, to sign or mark out, signifies to set apart for a purpose. ADVANCE comes from the Luatin advenio, compounded of ad and venio, to come or canse to come, signifying to bring forward a thing.

An argument is adduced; a faet or a charge is alleged; $n$ reason is assigned; a position or an opinion is advanced. What is adduced tends to corroborate or invalidate; what is alleged tends to criminate or exculpate; what is assigned tends to justify or support; what is advanced tends to explain and illustrate. Whoever diseusses disputed points must have arguments to adduce in faver of his principles; censures should not be passed where nothing improper can be alleged; a conduct is absurd for which no reason can be assigned; those who advanee what they cannot maintain, cxpose their ignorance as mueh as their folly. We may controvert what is adduced or advanced; we may deny what is alleged, and question what is assigned. The reasoner adduces facts in proof of what he has advanced; the aceuser alleges ciroumstanees in support of his charge; the philosophical investigator assigns causes for particular phenomena.

I have said that Celsus adduces neither oral por written authority against Christ's miracles. Cumberland.

The criminal alloged in his defence, that what he had done was to raise mith, and to avoid ceremony.

Addison.
If we consider what prowdential reasons may be assigned for these three particulars, we shall find that the numbers of the Jews, their dispersion, aod adherence to their religion, have furnished every agc, and every nation of the world, with the strongest arguments for the Christian faith.

Addison.
I have heard of one that, having advanced some erroneons doctrines of philosophy, refused to see the experiments by which they were confited.

Johnson.

## TO ADHERE, ATTACH.

ADHERE, from the French adhérer, Latin adhacro, is compounded of ad and hara, to stiek close to. ATTACLI, in French attacher, is compounded of at or ad and tach or touch, signifying to come so near as to touch.

A thing is adherent by the union which nature prodnces; it is attached by arbitrary ties which keep it close to another thing. Glutinous bodics are apt to ad. here to everything they touch; a smaller building is sometimes attached to a larger by a passage, or some other mode of com. munieation. What adheres to a thing is closely joined to its outward surface; but what is attached may be fastence to it by the intervention of a third body. There is a universal adhesion in all the parti. cles of matter one to another; the sails of a vessel are attached to a mast by means of ropes; or bodies are attached by bare locality, or being in the same enclosure.
The wain goes heavily, impeded sore By congregated loads adhering close To the clogged wheels.

Cowper.
The play which this pathetic prologue was $a t$ tached to was a comedy, in which Laberius took the character of a slave.

Cumberland.
In the improper and figerative application, things adhere from a fitness of their natures.
Where, with our brazen swords, we stoutly fouglt, and long,
And after conquests got, residing these among,
First planted io those parts our brave courageous brood,
Whose natnres so adher'd unto their ancient blood.

Drayton.
Things are attached to each other by politieal ties.
How many imaginary parks have been formed where deer never were seen! And how many houses misnamed halls, which never had attached to them the privileges of a manor!

Pennant.
Adherence and attachment are both applied to persons in a moral sense; the former as it respects matters of prineiple, the latter as it respects matters of inclination or interest. Adherence is always marked by a particular line of conduct; but attachment msy exist without any particular expression. A person ad heres to a prince or a community so long as he follows the one or co-aperates with
the other; he is attached to a person whenever the feeling or relation is created.
He ought to be indulgent to tender consciences, but, at the same time, a firm adherer to the established church.

Swift.
The conqueror seems to have been fully apprised of the strength which the new government might derive from a clergy more closely attached to himself.

Tybwhitt.
In the same manner, a person adheres to matters of opinion, by professing bis belief; he is attached to objects from habit or private motives.
The frm adherence of the Jews to their religion is no less remarkable than their numbers and dispersion.

ADdison.
Attached to Tamworth, he (Mr. Guy) founded there an almshouse and a library. Pennant.

## ADHESION, ADHERENCE.

These terms are both derived from the verb adhere, one expressing the proper or figurative sense, and the other the moral sense or acceptation. There is a power of adhesion in all glutinous bodies; a disposition for adherence in steady minds.

> We suffer equal pain from the pertinacious adhesion of unwelcome innages, as from the evarescence of those which are pleasing and useful.

Johnson.
Shakspeare's adherence to general nature has exposed him to the censure of critics, who form their judgments upon narrower principles.

JOLINSON.

## ADJACENT, ADJOINING, CONTIGUOUS

ADJACENT, in Latin adjiciens, participle of adjicio, is compounded of $a d$ and jacio, to lie near. ADJOINING, as the words imply, signifies being joioed togetber. CONTIGUOUS, in French contigu, Latin contiguus, comes from contingo, or con and tango, signifying to touch close.

What is adjacent may be scparated altogether by the intervention of some third object; what is adjoining must touch in some part; and what is contiguous must be fitted to touch entirely on one side. Lands are adjacent to a house or a town; fields are adjoining to each other; and houses contiguous to each other.
They have been beating $n \mathrm{p}$ for volunteers at York and the towns adjacent, but nobody will list.

Granville.
As he happens to have no estate adjoining equal to his own, his oppressions are often borne without resistance.

Joenson.

We arrived at the utmost boundaries of a wood which lay contiguoue to a plain. Stcele.

## TO ADMIT, RECEIVE.

ADMIT, in French admettre, Latin ad mitto, compounded of ad and mitto, signi. fies to send or suffer to pass into. RE. CEIVE, in French recevoir, Latin recipio, compounded of re and capio, wignifies to take back or to one's self.

To admit is a general term, the sense of which depends upon what follows; to receive has a complete sense in itself: we cannot speak of admitting, without asso. ciating with it an idea of the object to whicb one is admitted; but receive includes no relative idea of the receiver or the received. Admitting is an act of relative import; receiving is always a positive measure : a person may be admitted into a housc, who is not prevented from en. tering; he is received only by the actual consent of some individual. We may be admitted in various capacities; we are received only as guests, friends, or in. mates. Persons are admitted to the ta. bles, and into the familiarity or conf. dence of others; tbey are hospitahly re. ceived by those who wish to be their entertainers.
Somewhat is sure design'd by fraud or force; Trust not their presents, nor admit the horse.

Dryder.
He star'd and roll'd his haggard eyes around; Then said, "Alas! what earth remains, what sea Is open to receire unhappy me?" Dryden.

When applied to unconscious agents, the distidetion is similar: rays of light are admitted into a room, or ideas into the mind, when they are suffered to enter at pleasure; but things receive each other for specific purposes, according to the lars of nature.
If a stream of liglit be admitted by a small hole into a dark room, and made to pass by the edge of a knife, it will be diverted from its natural course, and inflected toward the edge of the knife.
adams.
The thin-leav'd arbute hazel-grafts receives, And planes huge apples bear, that bore hut leaves.

Dryden.
We admit willingly or reluctantly; we rcceive politely or rudely. Foreign am. bassadors are admitted to an audience, and received at court. It is necessary to be cautious not to admit any one into our society who may not be agreeable and

## ADMIT

suitable companions; but still more necessary not to receive any one into our houses whose character may refleet disgrace on ourselves. Whoever is admitted as a member of any community should consider himself as bound to conform to its regulations; whoever is received into the service of another should study to make bimself valued and esteemed. A winning address', and agreeable manners, gain a person admittance into the genteelest circles; the talent for affording amusement procures a person a good reception among the mass of mankind.
The Tyrian train, admitted to the feast, Approach, and on the painted couches rest.

Dayden.
Pretending to consult
About the great reception of their king, Thither to come.

Milton.
to admit, allow, PERMIT, SUFFER, tollerate.
ADMIT, ${ }^{2}$ To admit, receive. ALLOW, in French allouer, eompounded of the intensive syllable al or ad and loner, in German loben, old German laubzan, low German laven, Swedish lofwa, Danish love, etc., Latin laus, praise, laudare, to praise, signifying to give consent to a thing. PERMIT, in French permettre, Latin permitto, is compounded of per, through or away, and mitto, to send or let go, signifying to let go its way. SUFFER, in French souffrir, Latin suffero, is compounded of sub and fero, signifying to bear with. TOLERATE, in Latin toleratus, participle of tolero, from the Greek $\cdot \lambda a \omega$, to sustain, signifying also to bear or bear with.

To admit is an involuntary or negative act; to allow is voluntary and positive: we admit by simply not refusing or preventing; we allow by positively granting or complying with; we admit that which concerns ourselves, or is done toward ourselves; we allow that which is for the convenience of others, or what they wish to do: one admits the freedoms or familiarities of those who choose to offer them; one allows an indulgence to a child. To permit is very nearly allied to allow, both in sense and application, with this differenee, that permit is more formal and positive, being employed in respect to more important matters; as a father permits
his son to travel; one man permits an other to use his name. To suffer and tuh erate are nearly allied to admit, but both are mere passive acts, and relate to matters which are more objectionable and serious: what is admitted may be at most but inconvenient; what is suffered may be burdensome to the sufferer, if not morally wrong; what is tolerated is bad in itself, and suffered only because it cannot be prevented: a parent frequently suffers in his children what he condemns in others; there are some evils in society which the magistrate finds it needful to tolerate.

A well-regulated society will be eareful not to admit of any deviation from good order, wbich may afterward become injurious as a practice: it frequently happens that what has been allowed from indiscretion, is afterward claimed as a right: no earthly power can permit that which is probibited by the divine law: when abuses are suffered to creep in and to take deep root in any established in. stitution, it is difficult to bring about a reform without endangering the existence of the whole; when abuses, therefore, are not very grievous, it is wiser to tolerate them than run the risk of producing a greater evil.
The Earl of Manehester being equally concerned with themselves, they neither could nor would admit any parley without bim.

Rushworth.
The Lacedæmonian lawgiver allowed marriages between those that had only the same mother, and different fathers.

Potter
Permit our ships a shelter on your shores,
Refitted from your woods with planks and oars; That if our prince be safe, we may renew Our destin'd course, and Italy pursue. Dryden.
No man can be said to enjoy health, who is only not sick, withont he feel within himself a lightsome and invigorating principle, which will not euffer him to remain idle.

Spectator.
No man ought to be tolerated in an habitual humor, whim, or particularity of behawior, by any who do not wait upon him for bread.

Steele.

## TO ADMIT, ALLOW, GRANT.

These terms are here compared only in regard to matters of speculation; and in this ease they rise in sense, ALLOW being more voluntary and positive than ADMIT, and GRANT more so than allow. What is admitted is that which it is eithor
not easy or possible for a person to deny; certain facts are admitted which are too clearly proved to be disputed: what is allowed is that which is agreed to from the conviction or feelings of the party allowing; it is said mostly of that in which the interests as well as the opinions of men are concerned; he allows that it would be good, but thinks that it is not practicable: what is granted is agreed upon as true, and is said most properly of ahstract or self-evident truths; as to grant that two and two make four, or to take that for granted which is the point in dispute.

Though the fallibility of man's reason, and the narrowness of his knowledge, are very liberally confessed, yet the conduct of thuse who so willingly admit the weakness of human nature seems to discover that this acknowledgment is not sincere.

JOHNSON.
The zealots in atheism are perpetually teasing their friends to come over to them, althongh they abtow that neither of them shall get anything by the bargain.

ADDISON.
I take it at the same time for granted that the immortality of the soul is sufficiently established by other arguments.

Steele.

## ADMITTANCE, ADMISSION.

These words differ according to the different acceptations of the primitive from which they are both derived; the former being taken in the proper sense or familiar style, and the latter in the figurative sense or in the grave style. The ADMITTANCE to public places of entertainment is, on particular occasions, difficult. The ADMISSION of irregularities, however trifling in the commencement, is mostly attended with serious consequences.
Assurance never failed to get admittance into the houses of the great.

Moore.
The Gospel has then only a free admission thto the assent of the understanding, when it brings a passport from a rightly disposed will.

Soutil.
Admittance is properly confined to the receiving a person or a thing into a given place; admission includes in itself the idea not only of receiving, but also the purpose of receiving. Whoever is admitted, or has the liberty of entering any place, whether with or without an object, has admittance; but a person has admission to places of trust, or into offices and the like.

He has free admittance into all courns and tribunals.

Betdone.
Others get admission into sbops, or places where they experience hard work, hard lodg. ings, and scanty food.

Pennant
There is a similar distinction between these words in their application to thinge.

In the entertainments of conversation, such an open, taking agreeableness, as if no thoughts of business could ever find admittunce. Camden,

In one part (of London Bridge) had been a drawbridge, useful either by way of defence, or for the actmission of ships into the upper part of the river.

Penmant.

## TO ADMONISH, ADVISE.

ADMONISH, in Latin admoneo, is com. pounded of the intensive $a d$ and moneo, to advise, signifying to put seriously in mind. ADVISE is compounded of the Latio $a d$ and visus, participle of video, to see, signifying to make to see or to show.

Admonish mostly regards the past; advice respects the future. We admonish a person on the errors he has committed, by representing to him the extent and consequences of his offence; we advise a person as to his future conduct, by giving him rules and instructions. Those who are most liable to transgress require to be admonished; those who are most inex. perienced require to be advised. Admo. nition serves to put people on their guard against evil ; advice to direct them in the choice of good.

He of their wicked ways Shall them admonish, and before them set The paths of righteousness.

Mileron.
My worthy friend, the clergyman, told us that he wondered any order of persons should think themselves too considerable to be advised.

ADDIGON.

## admonition, warning, CAUTION.

ADMONITION, v. To admonish. WARNING, in Saxon wamien, Germad wavnen, probably from währen, to perceive, signifies making to see. CAUTION, from caveo, to beware, signifies the making beware. A guarding against evil is common to these terms; but admonition expresses more than warning, and that more than caution.

Au admonition respects the moral conduct; it comprehends reasoning and remonstrance: warning aod caution respect the personal interest or safety; the former comprehends a strong forcible repre-
sentation of the evil to be dreaded; the latter a simple apprisal of a future contingency. Admonition may therefore frequently comprehend warning; and warning may comprehend caution, though not vice versd. We admonish a person against the commission of any offence; we warn him against danger; we caution him against any misfortune. Admonitions and warnings are given by those who are superior in age and station ; cautions by any who are previously in possession of information. Parents give admonitions; ministers of the Gospel give warnings; 'indiffersnt persons give cautions. It is necessary to admonish those who have once offended to abstain from a similar offence; it is necessary to warn those of the consequences of sin who seem determined to persevere in a wicked course; it is necessary to caution those against any false step who are going in a strangs path. Admonitions should be given with mildness and gravity; warnings with imprassive force and warmth; cautions with olearness and precision. The young require frequant admonitions; the ignorant and self-deluded solemn warnings; the inexperienced timely cautions. Admonitions ought to be listened to with sorrowful attention; warnings should make a deep and lasting impression; cautions should he borne in mind; but admonitions ars too often rejected, warnings despised, and cautions slighted.

At the same time that $I$ am talking of the cruolty of urging people's faults with severity, I cannot hut bewail some which men ere guilty of for want of calmonition.

Steele.
Hed we their wisdom, should we, often warned, Still need repeated warnings, end et lest, A thousend awful admonitions scorn'd, Die self-accused of hife run all to waste?

Cowper.
You oaution'd me aguinat thelr charms,
But never gave me equal arms;
Your dessona found the weakest part,
Aim'd at the head, but reach'd the heart.
Smift.
Admonitions are given by persons only; *arnings and cautions are given by things as well as persons. The young are admonished by the old; the death of friends serves as a warning to the survivors; the unfortunate accidents of the careless sarve as a caution to others to a void the like error.

Not e'en Philander had bespoke bis shrond, Nor had he cause-a wurning was denied.

> Youno

The requisition of sureties must be underatood rather as a caution againat the repetition of the offence, than eny immediate punishment.

Blacestone.
TO ADORE, WORSHIP.
ADORE, in French adorer, Latin adoro, that is ad and oro, to pray to. WORSHIP, in Saxon weorthscype, is contracted from worthship, implying either the object that is worth, or the worth itself; whence it has been eorployed to designate the action of doing suitable homage to the object which has worth, and, by a just distinction, of paying homage to our Maker by religions rites.

Adoration is the service of the heart toward a Superior Being, in which we acknowledge our dependence and obedience by petition and thanksgiving; worship consists in the outward form of showing revereuce to some supposed superior being. Adoration can with propriety be paid only to the one true God; but worship is offered by heathers to stocks and stones. We may adure our Maker at all times and in all pleces, whenever the heart is lifted up toward Him; hut we worship Him only at stated times, and according to certain rules. Outward signs are but secondary ln the act of adoration; and in divine worship there is often nothing existing but the outward form. We may adore without warshipping; but we ought not to worship without adoring.
Menunder sayg, that "God, the Lord and Father of ell thinga, is alone worthy of our humble adoration, being at once the maker and giver of all blessinga."

Cumberland.
By reason man a Godhead can discern,
But how he should be worshipp' $d$ cannot leurn.
Dryden.
to adore, REVERENCE, VENERATE, REVERE.
ADORE, v. To adore, worship. REV. ERENCE, in Latin reverentia, reverence or awe, implies to show revergnce, from revereor, to stand in aws of. VENERATE, in Latin veneratus, participle of veneror, probably from venere, beauty, signifying to bold in very high esteem for its superior qualities. REVERE is another form of the same verb.

Adoration has been before considered only in relation to our Maker; it may, however, be employed in an improper and extended application to express in the strongest possible manner the devotion of the mind toward sensible objects. Good princes are frequently said to be adored by their subjects.

They (Salmasius and Scaliger) were vilified and trudueed by them, who, if they had been of their own communion, they had almost adored them.

Bentley.
Reverence is equally engendered by the contemplation of superiority, whether of the Supreme Being as our Creator, or of any earthly being as our parent: it differs, however, from adoration, inasmuch as it has a mixture of fear, arising from the consciousuess of weakness and dependence, or of obligations for favors received. Adoration in this case, as in the former, requires no external form ; it is properly the homage of the mind: rever. encing our Maker is also an inward sentiment; but reverencing our parents, who are invested with a sacred character, includes in it an outward expression of our sentiments by our deportment toward them.
"Thare is no end of his greatness." The most
exalted ereature he has made is only capable of
adoring it; none but himself can comprehend
it.
The war protracted, and the siege delay'd,
Were diue to Hector's and this hero's hand,
Beth brave alike and equal in command;
Eneas, not inferior in the field,
In pious reverence to the gods excell'd. Addison.

Dryden.
As sentiments of the mind, there is this distinction between reverence and veneration, that the latter has none of the feeling of fear which forms a part of the former. The contemplation of a sacred edifice which combines grandeur with solemn:ty, will awaken reverence; the contemriation of any place rendered sacred by ios antiquity awakens veneration.
Tbey, who had always been enemies to the ohureh, prevailed with him to lessen his reverence for it.

Clarendon.
It seems to me remarkable that death increases our veneration for the good, and extenuates our hatred of the bad.

Johnson.
Between the verbs to revere and to reverence, there is but a small shade of difference in the sense: the former de.
notes a sentiment of the mind only; the latter the expression of that sentiment, as well as the sentiment itself.
And had not men the hoary head rever'd, And boys paid reverence when a man appear'd, Both must have died, though rieher akins they wore,
And saw more heaps of acorns in their atore.
Creech.
Hence we say with more propriety, to revere, not to reverence a name or memory of any one, etc.

I revere your honorable names,
Your useful labors, and important aims.
Cowper,

## TO ADORN, DECORATE, EMBELLISH.

ADORN, in Latin edorno, is compounded of the intensive syllable $a d$ and orno, in Greek $\omega \rho a \omega \omega$, to make beautiful, signilying to dispose for the purpose of ornament. DECORATE, in Latin decoratus, participle of decoro, from decorus, becoming, signifies to make becoming. EM BELLISH, in French embellir, is compounded of the intensive syllable em or in and bellir or bel, in Latin bellus, hand. some, signifying to make handsome.

We adorn by giving the best external appearance to a thing; we decorate by annexing something to improve its appearance; we embellish by giving a finishing stroke to a thing that is well executed, or adding to the beauty of a thing. Females adom their persons by the choic. and disposal of their dress; or gentlemen adorn their estates by giving them the appearance of tasteful cultivation : a headdress is decorated with flowers, or a room with paintings: fine writing is embellishec? by suitable flourishes.
A few years afterward (1751), by the death of his father, Lord Lyttleton inherited a baronet's title, with a large estate, which, though perhaps he did not alugment, he was careful to adorn by a house of great elegance, and by much attention to the decoration of his park. - Jonnson.
I shall here present my reader with a letter from a projector, concerning a new office which he thinks may very much contribnte to the em. bellishment of the eity:

Addison.
Adorn and embellish are figuratively employed; decorate only in the proper sense. Inanimate objects may be adorned, or the mind is adomed by particular virtues which are implanted in it ; a narrative is embellished by the introduction of soms striking incidents.

## ADVANTAGE

As vines the trees, as grapes the vines adorn.
Dryoen.
Milton, though he fetches this beaztiful circamstance from the Iliad and Eneid, does not only inscrt it as $u$ beautiful embellishment, but makes an artiul use of it for the proper carrying on of his fable.

Addiaon.
のO ADULATE, FLATTER, COMPLIMFNT,
ADULATE, in Latin adulatus, participle of adulor, is changed from adoleo, to offer incense. FLATTER, in French fatter, comes from flatus, breath, signifying to say what is light as air. COMPLI MENT comes from comply, and the Latin complaceo, to please greatly.

We adulate by discovering in our actions as well as words an entire subserviency: we flatter directly by words expressive of admiration ; indirectly by actions which convey the same sentiments: we compliment by fair language or respectful civilities. An adulatory address is couched in terms of feigned devotion to the object; a flattering address is filled with the fotitious perfections of the objcct; a complimentary address is suited to the station of the individual and the occasion which gives rise to it. Courtiers are guilty of adulation; lovers are addicted to flattery; people of fashion indulge themselves in a profusion of compliments.
The servile and excessive adulotion of the senate soon convinced Tiberius that the Roman spirit had auffered a total change under Augustus.

Cumbenland.
You may be sure a woman lnves a man when she uses his expressions, tells his stories, or imitates his mauner. This gives a aecret delight; for imitation is a kind of artless fattery, and mightily favors the principle of self-love.

SPECTATOR.
I have known a hero complimented. upon the decent majesty and atate he assumed after victory.

Pope.
Adulation can never be practised without falsehood; its means are hypocrisy and lying, its motive servile fear, its end private interest: flattery always exceeds the truth; it is extravagant praise diccated by an overweening partiality, or, what is more frequent, by a disingenuous temper: compliments are not incompatible with sincerity, unless they are dictated from a mere compliance with the prescribed rules of politeness or the momentary desire of pleasing. Adulation may be fulsome, flattery gross, complimenís unmeaning. Adulation inspires a
person with an immoderate conceit of his own importance; flattery makes him in love with himself; compliments make him in good-bumor with himself.

There he beheld how humbly diligent
New adulation was; to be at hand,
How ready tulsehood stept; how nimbly went Base pick-thank fluttery, and prevents coinmand.

Daniel.
As on the one hand ae (the upright man) is careful not to run himaelf into iaconveniences by his good-nature; so, on the other hand, the kindness and good-will he possesseth to all about him is more than a compliment or the semblance of his conntenance.

Shanf.
TO ADVANCE, PROCEED.
ADVANCE, $v$. to adduce, allege, assign, advance. PROCEED, in Latin procedo, signifies to go forward.

To advance is to go toward some point; to procced is to go onward in a certain course. The same distinction is preserved between them in their figurative acceptation. A person advances in the world who succeeds in his transactions and raises himself in society; he proceeds in his business when he carries it on as he has done before. We advance by proceeding, and we proceed in order to advance. Some people pass their lives in the same situation without advancing; some are always doing without proceeding. Those who make considerable progress in learning stand the fairest chance of advancing to dignity and honor.

It ia wonderful to observe by what a gradual progress the world of life advances through a prodigions variety of sperjes, before a creature is formed that is complete . 1 all ita sensea.

AODISON.
If the scale of being rises by such a regular progress so high as man, we may by a parity of reason suppose that it still proceeds gradually through those beings which are of a superior natare to him.

Adoison.

## ADVANTAGE, BENEFIT, UTILITX.

ADVANTAGE, in French avantage, probably comes from the Latin adventum, participle of advenio, eompounded of ad and venio, to come to, signifying to come to any one according to his desire, or agreeably to his purpose. BENEFIT, in French bienfait, Latin benefactum, eompounded of bene, well, and factum, done, signifies done or made to one's wishes. UTILITY, in Frepoh utilité, Latin utilitas,
and utilis, useful, from utor, to use, signihes the quality of being able to be used.

Advantage respects external or extrinsic circumstances of profit, honor, and convenience; benefit respects the consequences of actions and events; utility respects the good which can be drawn from the use of any object. A large house or a particular situation may have its advantages; suitable exercise is attended with benefit; sun-dials have their utility in ascertaining the hour preciscly by the sun. Things are sold to advantage; persons ride or walk for the benefit of their health; they purchase articles for their utility. A good education has always its advantages, although every one cannot derive the same benefit from t'ie cultivation of his talents, as all have not the happyart of employing their acquirements to the right objects: riches are of no utility unless rightly employed. It is of great advantage to young people to form good connections on their entrance into life; it is no less beneficial to their morals to be under the guidance of the aged and experienced, from whom they may draw many useful directions for their future conduct.
It is the great advantage of a trading nation, that there are very few in it so dull and heavy, who may not be placed in stations of life which may give them an opportunity of making their tortanes.

Addison.
For the beneft of the gentle reader, I will show that to turn over unread, and what to peruse.

Steele.

## All from utility this law approve,

As every private bliss nust spring from social love.

JENNings.

## advantage, profit.

ADVANTAGE, v. Advantage, benefit. FROFIT, in French profite, Latin profectus, participle of proficio, compounded of pro and facro, signifies that which makes for one's good.

The idea common to these terms is of some good received by a person. Advantage is general; it respects everything which can contribute to the wishes, wants, and comforts of life; profit in its proper sense is applied to pecuniary advantage. Situations have their advantages; trade has its profits.

Were I a pnet, I should say, that so munch beaulty set off with all the advantages of dress would be too powerful an antagonist over the other sex.

Goldsmith.

He does the office of a counsellor, a judge, an exeeutor, and a friend, to all his acquaintance, withont the profits which attend such offices.

Szeiele.
Advantage may be applied either to the good derived from a thing, as the advantage of dress, that is the advantage derived from dress; or to the thing from which the good is derived, as, dress is an advantage to the person.
Nothing is so glorious in the eyes of mankind, and ornamental to human nature, setting aside the infinite advantages which arise from it, an a strong, steady masculine piety.

ADDIson For he in all his am'rons battles,
$\mathrm{N}^{\prime}$ advantage fids like goods and chattels.
Butlee,
Profit is always taken for that good which is derived from a thiog.

When a man plants a tree, he cannot be presumed to plant it in contemplation of present profit.

Blackstone.
Advantage implies something annexed to or coming to a thing accidentally; or it may be what a man esteems to be an advantage: profit is that which is real, substantial, and permanent.

If we commit a smaller evil to procure a greater, certain guilt would be thus incurred, in expectation of contingent advantage. Goudsmia.

We are taught to pray, not for absolute deliv. erance from all assanlts of our enemies, but for defence in them; becanse it is oftentimes for the glory of God and the profit of his servants, that they should be assaulted.

Biddelpe.

## ADVERSE, CONTRARY, OPPOSITE.

ADVERSE, in French adverse, Latin adversus, participle of adverto, compounded of $a d$ and verto, signifies turning toward or against. CONTRARY, in French contraire, Latin contrarius, comes from contra, against. OPPOSITE, in Latin oppositus, participle of oppono, is compounded of $o b$ and pono, signifying placed in the way.

Adverse respects the feelings and in terests of persons; contrary regards theit plans and purposes ; opposite respects the situation and relative nature of things. Fortune is adverse; an event turns out contrary to what was expected; sentiments are opposite to each other. Gircumstances are sometimes so adverse as to baffle the best concerted plans; facts often prove directly contrary to the representations given of them; people with
opposite characters cannot be expected to act together with pleasure to either party.


#### Abstract

Ths perlodical winds which wers then set in were distinctly adverae to the cuurse which Plzarro propesed to steer.

Rogertson. As 1 sheuld be loath to affer none but instances of the abuse of prosperity, I am happy in recollectlug one very singular example of the conIrar'y sort.

Cumaerland. And as Egreen, when with heav'n he streve, stood opposite in arms to mighty Jove.


Dryben.
ADVERSL, INLMICAL, HOSTILE, REPUGNANT.
ADVERSE, v. Adverse. INIMICAL, from the Latin inimicus, an enemy, and HOSTILE, in Latin hostilis, from hostis, an enemy, signify belonging to an encmy. REPUGNANT, in Latin repugnars, from repugno, or re and pugno, to fight against, sigoifies warring with.

Adverse may be applied to cither persons or things; inimical and hostile to persons or things personal; repugnant to things only. A person is adverse, or a thing is adverse to an object; a per. son, or what is personal, is cither inimical or hostile to an object; one thing is repugannt to auother. We are adverse to a proposition, or circumstances are adverse to our advancement; partisans are inimical to the proceedings of government, and hostrle to the possessors of power. In respect to persons, adverse denotes merely the relation of being opposed ; inimical, the spirit of the individual in private matters; and hostile, the situation, conduct, and temper of individuals or bodies in public matters. Those who are adverse to any undertaking are not likely to use their endeavors to insure success; traders will be inimical to the introduction of anything that threatens to be injurious to their trade; some persons are hostile to establishments in religion.
Only two soldiers were killed on the side of Cortes, and two officers, with fifteen privates, of the adverse faction.

Robertion.
Ged hath shown himself to be favorable to virtue, and inimical to vice and guilt. Blaia.
Then with a purple veil involve yonr eyes,
Lest hoatile faces blast the sacrifice. Dayden.
In respect to things, what is adverse acta to the hinderance or disadvantage of the thing to which it is opposed; as ad-
verse minds, adverse circumstances. Sick. ness is adverse to the improvement of youth; what is inimical acts directly to injury, as writings which are inimical to religion, a spirit inimical to learning; what is repugnant is in a state of positive oppasition or contrariety, as slavery is repugnant to the mild spirit of Christianity.
Let nething adveres, nothing unfareseen, Impeda the bark that ploughs the deep serena. Cowper
The books (in the library) were remaining at Lambeth in 1646, two years after Archbishop Land lad been put to death; when, prebably fearing for their safety in times se inimioal to learning, Mr. Selden suggested to the University of Cambridge their right to them; and the whela were delivered into their possession. Pennant.

The exorhitant jurisdiction of the (Scotch) ecclesiastical courts were founded on maxims rapugnant to justice.

Roasatsun.

## ADVERSE, AVERSE.

ADVERSE (v. Adverse), signifying turn. ed against or over against, denotes sim. ply opposition of situation. AVERSE, from $a$ and versus, signifying turned from or away from, denotes an active removal or separation from. Adverse is therefore as applicable to inanimate as to animate objects ; averse only to animate objects. When applied to conscious agents, adverse refers to matters of opinion and sentiment; averse to matters of feeling. One is adverse to that which he thinks wrong ; he is averse to that which opposes his inclinations, habits, or interests.

Before yein were a tyrant I was yeur friend, and am now no otherwise yonr enemy than eyery Athenian must be whe is adverse to your usurpation.

Connberland.
Men relinquish ancient habits slowly, and with reluctance. They are averse to new experiments, and venture upon them with timidity.

Robeateon.

## ADVERSITY, DISTRESS.

ADVERSITY signifies adverse circumstances. DISTRESS, from the Latin distringo, compounded of dis, twice, and strixego, to bind, signifies that which binds very tight, or brings into a great strait.

Adversity respects external circumstances, distress regards either external circumstances or inward feelings. Adversity is opposed to prosperity ; distresa to ease. Adversity is a general condi
tion; distrees a particular state. Distress is properly the highest degree of adversity. When a man's affairs go altogether adverse to his wishes and hopes, when accidents deprive him of his possessions or blast his prospects, be is said to be in adversity; but when in addition to this he is reduced to a state of want, deprived of friends and all prospect of relief, his situation is that of real distress. Adversity is trying, distress is overwhelming. Every man is liable to adversity, although few are reduced to distress but by their own fault.
The other extreme whicb these considerations should arm the heart of a man against, is ntter despondency of mind in a time of pressing adversity.

SOUTH.
Most men who are at length delivered from ony great distress, indeed find that they are so by ways they never thought of.

SOUTH.

## TO ADVERTISE, PUBLISH.

ADVERTISE, from the Latin adverto, compounded of ad and verto, to turn to, signifies to turn the attention to a thing. PUBLISH, in Latin publico, that is, facere publicum, significs to make public.

Advertise denotes the means, and publish the end. To advertise is to direct the public attention to any event by means of a printed circular; publish is to make known either by oral or printed communication. We publish by advertising, but we do not always advertise when we pub. hish. Mercantile and civil transactions are conducted by means of advertisements. Extraordinary circumstances are speedily published in a neighborhood by circn. lating from mouth to month.

Every man that advertises his own excellence should write with some conscionsness of a charscter which dares to call the attention of the pnblic.

Johnson.
The criticisms which I have hitherto publishod have been made with an intention rather to discover beauties and excellences in the writers of my own time, than to publish any of their faults and imperfections.

Andison.

## ADYICE, COUNSEL, INSTRUCTION.

ADVICE, v. To Admonish. COUNSEL, in French conseil, Latin consilium, comes from consilio, compounded of con and salio, to leap together, signifying to run or act in accordance; and in an exteaded sense implies deliberation, or the thing deliberated upon, determined, and pre-
seribed. INSTRUCTION, in French in struction, Latin instructio, comes from in and struo, to dispose or regulate, signify ing the thing laid down by way of regulating.

The end of all the actions implied by these words is the communication of knowledge, and all of them include the accessory idea of superiority, either of age, station, knowledge, or talent. Ad vice flows from superior professional knowledge, or an acquaintance with things in general ; counsel regards superior wisdom, or a superior acquaintance with moral principles and practice; in. struction respects superior local knowledge in particular transactions. A medical man gives advice to bis patient; a father gives counsel to bis children; a connsellor gives advice to his client in points of law; he receives instructions from him in matters of fact. Advice should be prndent and cautious; counsel sage and deliberative; instructions clear and positive. Advice is given on all the concerns of life, important or otherwise; counsel is employed for grave and weighty matters; instruction is used on official occasions. Men of business are best able to give advice in mercantile transactions. In all measures that involve our future happiness, it is prudent to take the counsel of those who are more experienced than ourselves. An ambassador must not act withont instructions from his conrt.
In what manner can one give advice to a yonth in the parsuit and posseasion of pleasure

Steele,
Young persons are commonly inclined to slight the remarks and counsels of their elders.

Jornson,
Some convey their instructions to us in the best chosen words. Adbison.

## affable, courteous.

AFFABLE, in Latin affabilis, from af or $a d$, to, and for, to speak, signifies ready to speak or be spoken with, and is particularly applied to persons in a higher condition; princes and nobles are commonly said to be affable when they converse freely with those not in the same condition.
Charles (II.), says Cibber, was often seen here (in St. James's Park) amidat crowds of spectators, feeding his ducks and playing with his dogs, and
passing his idie moments in affability even to the ineanest of his suljects; which made him to be adored by ths common people.

Pennant.
Affability is properly confined to verbal communication; but COURTEOUSNESS, from the word court, signifying after the manner of a court or courtier, refers to actions and manners; affability flows from the natural temper; courteousness from good-breeding, or the acquired temper.
She sighs and says, forsooth, and cries helgh-ho ! She'll take ill words o' thi steward and the servants,
Yet answer affably and modestly.
Beaumont and Fletcher.
Whereat the Eifn knight with speeches gent
Hiinf first galuted, who, well as lie might,
Him fair salutes again, as seemeth courteous knight.

West.

## AFFAIR, BUSINESS, CONCERN.

AFFAIR, in French affaire, is comfounded of $a f$ or $a d$ and faire, in Latin facio, to make or do, signifying the thing that is made, done, or that takes place for a person, or for a given purpose. BUSINESS, from busy (v. Active), signifies the thing that makes or interests a person, or with which he is busy or occupied. CONCERN, in French concerner, Latin concerno, compounded of con and cerno, to look, signifies the thing looked at, thought of, or taken part in.

An affair is what happens; a business is what busies; a ancern is what is felt. An affair is general; it respects one, many, or all: every business and concern is an affair, though not vice versa. Business and concern are personal; business is that which engages the attention; concern is that which interests the feelings, prospects, and condition, advantageonsly or otherwise. An affair is important; a business is serious; a concern momentous. The usurpation of power is an affair which interests a nation; the adjusting a difference is a business most suited to the ministers of religion; to make one's peace with one's Maker is the concern of every individual. Affairs are administered; business is transacted; concerns are managed. The affairs of the world are administered by a Divine Providence. Those who are in the practice of the law require peculiar talents to fit them for transacting the complicated business,
which perpetually offers itself, Some men are so involved in the affairs of this world, as to forget the concerns of the next, which ought to be nearest and dearest to them.

I remember in Tully's epistle, in the recon. mendation of a man to an affuir which had no manner of relation to money, it is suid, yon may trust him, for he is a frugal man. Steele.
We may indeed say that our part does not suit us, and that we could perform another better; but this, says Epictetus, is not our business.

Addibon.
The sense of other men ought to prevail over us in things of less consideration; but not in concerns where truth and henor are engaged.

SteEle

## TO AFFECT, CONCERN.

AFFECT, in French affecter, Latin affec tum, participle of afficio, compounded of ad and facio, to do or act, signifies to act upon. CONCERN (v. Affair).

Things affect us which produce any change in our outward circumstances; they concern us if connected with our circumstances in any shape. Whatever af. fects must concern; but all that concerns does not affect. The price of corn affects the interest of the seller; and therefore it concerns him to keep it up, without regard to the public good or injury. Things affect either persons or things; but they concern persons only. Raiu affects the hay or corn; and these matters concern every one more or less.
We see that every different spectes of sensibls creatures has its different notions of beauty, and that each of them is affected. with the beuuties of its own kind.

Addison.
This gives all Europe, in my opinion, too closa and connceted a ooncern in what is done in France.

Burke.
Affect and concern have an analogous meaning likewise, when taken for the influence on the mind. We are affected by things when our affections only are awak. ened by them: we are concerned when our understanding and wishes are engaged. We may be affected either with joy or sorrow: we are concerned only in a painful manner. People of tender sensibility are easily affected: irritable people are concerned about trifles. It is natural for every one to be affected at the recital of misfortunes; but there are people of so cold and selfish a character as not to be concerned about anything whicb

AFFECT
does not immediately affect their own persons or property.

An ennobling property of it (religious pleasure) is, that it is such a nature that it never satiates; for it properly affects the spirit, and a spirit feels no weariness.

SODTH.
Without concern he hears, but hears from far, Of tumults, and descents, and distant war.

Dayden.

## TO AFFECT, ASSUME.

AFFECT, in this sense, derives its origin immediately from the Latin affecto, to desire after eagerly, signifying to aim at or aspire after. ASSUME, in Latin assumo, compounded of as or ad and sumo, to take, signifies to take to one's self.

To affect is to use forced efforts to appear to have that which one has not; to assume is to appropriate to one's self that which one has no right to have. One affects to have fine feelings, and assumes great importance. Affectation springs from the desire of appearing better than we really are; assumption from the thinking ourselves better than we really are. We affect the virtues which we have not; we assume the character which does not belong to us. An affected person is always thinking of others; an assuming person thiuks only of himself. The af. fected man strives to gain applanse by appearing to be what he is not; the assuming man demands respect upon the ground of what he supposes himself to be. Hypocrisy is often the companion of affectation, self-conceit always that of assumption.
In conversation the medium is neither to affect silence or cloquence.

Sterne.
Laughs not the heart when giants big with pride Asoume the pompous port, the martial part?

Chuachita.
To affect is always taken in a bad sense; but to assume may be sometimes an indifferent action at least, if not justifiable. Men always affect that which Is supposed to please others, in order to gain their applause; but they sometimes cussume a name or an authority, which is no more than their just right.

He had the spleen to a high degree, and affeeted an extravagant behavior.
bornet.
This when the rarious gods had urg'd in vain, Ge etraight assum'd his native form again. Pope.

AFFECTED

## TO AFFECT, PRETEND TO.

AFFECT, v. To affect, concern. PRE TEND, in Latin pretendo, that is, pree and tendo, signifies to hold or stretch one thing before another by way of a blind.

These terms are synonymous only ir the bad sense of setting forth to others what is not real: we affect by putting on a false air; we pretend by making a falso declaration. Art is employed in affect. ing; assurance and self-complacency in pretending. A person affects not to hear what it is convenient for him not to answer; he pretends to have forgotten what it is convenient for him not to recollect, One affects the manners of a gentleman, and pretends to gentility of birth. One affects the character and habits of a scholar; one pretends to learning. To affect the qualities which we have not spoils those which we have; to pretend to attainments which we have not made, obliges us to have recourse to falsehoode in order to escape detection.
Self quite put off, affects with too much art To put ou Wood ward in each mangled part. Chuаеныд.
There is something so natively great and good in a person that is truly devout, that an awkward man may as well pretend to be genteel as s bypocrite to be pious.

Starle.

## AFFECTED, DISPOSED.

AFFECTED ( $v$. To affect, concern) sig. nifies moved or acted upon by any particular circumstance, as to be affected at any spectacle. DISPOSED, from dispose, to settle or put in order, signifies settled or determined as to one's purpose; as disposed to do a good turn.

She (the prophetess) was not always affected in the same manner: for if the spirit was in a kind and gentle humor her rage was not very violent.

Potter.
When Jove, dreposed to tempt Saturnia's spleen, Thus wak'd the fury of his partial queen. Pope.

Affected likewise signifies to be affected with a particular sentiment, which brings it nearer to the sense of disposed in denoting a state of mind, but disposed in this case implies a settled if not an habitual temper, affection a temporary and partial state : subjects are either well or ill affected to their government; people are either well or ill disposed as regards their moral character or rrinciples.

Ho belng designed governor of tha cilty of DubAn, landed there the last day of December, 1641, to the great joy and comfort of all his Majeaty'a Protestant and well affected subjecta. Temple.

Private Iffe, which ls the nursery of the Commonwealth, ia yet in general pure and disposed to virtua.

Burke.

## AFFECTION, LOVE.

AFFECTION, from the verb affect ( $v$. Ta affect), denotes the state of bcing kindly affected toward a person, LOVE, in low German leeve, high German liebe, like the English lief, low German leef, higb German lieb, dear or pleasing, is connected with the L tin libet, it is pleasing, and by metathesis with the Greek $\phi 1 \lambda o s$, dear, sigaifying the state of hulding a person dear.

These two words are comparable, inasmuch as they denote a sentiment toward any object: they differ both in the nature of the object and the nature of the sentiment. Affection is private or confinad to ona or more partioular individaals; love is either general or particular : It eithar ambracea all objects capable of swakanlng the asentiment, or it is confinad to particular objects : in the former casa love exprasses the sentiment of the Divine Being toward all His creatures, and also that of man to the rest of his fellow-creat. ures.
Those who will not feel Him in his love will to sure to teel Him in hia displeasura.

Addibon,
When applled to partlcular ohjects, love is a much warmer sentlment than affection. The latter eubsiste between persons of the same sex, the former in a particular manner between persons of a different sex. Affection is a tender and durable sentiment, a chastened fealing under the control of the understanding which promises no more pleasure tban it gives; love is an ardent sentiment which, as between the gexes, has all the characteristics of a passion; being exclusive, restless, and fluctuating. Love may subsist before marriage, but it must terminate in affection in order to insure bappiness after marriage.
Bnt thou whose years are mora to mine allied, No fate my vow'd affection aball divida
From thee, haroic yontb!
DAYDEN.
The poets, the moralists, the painters, in all their descriptiona, allegories, and pictures, have
represented love as a soft torment, a bitler sweet a pleasing pain, or an agreeable distress.

ADDISON.
Between the words affection and lova there is this further distinction, that tho former does not always imply a kindly or favorable sentiment; there may be an ill as well as a good affection: the affections of a people to a government may be various; the affection of a prince mas change from favor to diafavor toward a subject.

Though every man might give hls vote which way he pleased, yet, it he thwarted the Roman deaigns, he was looked upon witb a jealous eye, as an ill affected person.

Potter.

## AFFECTIONATE, KIND, FOND.

AFFECTIONATE, from affection (v. Affection), denotes the quality of baving affection. KIND, from the word kind, kindred or family, denotes the quality or feeling engendered by the family tie. FOND, from the Saxon fandian, to gape, and the German finden, to find or seek, denotes a vehement attachment to a thing.

Affectionate characterizes the feeling; kind has mostly a reference to the action: affectionate le directed to a particular objeet; kind to objects generally. Relations are affectionate to each other, persons may be kind to any one, even to mers strangers.
Faithfuil remembrancer of one sa deari Oh, welcome guest, though unexpected here Who biddaat ma honor with an artleaa aong, Affectionate, a mother loat so long.
Cowpea: On tha Reeeipt of my Mother'e Picture.
Richard was particularly kind to bia favorite city (Chester).

Pennant.
So toward animals generally we may be kind, and toward favorite animals af. fectionate.
Thay (the Arabs) never beat or correct thair horses, but treat them with kindness, evea with affection.

Goldsmite.
As epithets, these words observe the same distinction; a mother or a child is affectionate, a master kind; looks, or whatever serve to express affection, are said most appropriately to be affection. ate; offices, or any actions prompted by the general sentiment of kindness, are called kind.

Onr salutations were very hearty on both sides, conaisting of many kind shakes of the hand, and
affoctionato looks which we cast upon one another.

ADDISON.
Affectionate nnd kind are always taken in the good sense for a proper sentiment; fondness is an excess of liking for any object, which, whether it be a person or a thing, is more or less reprehensible; children are always fond of whatever affords them pleasure, or of whoever gives them indulgences.

Riches expose a man to pride and luxury, a foolish elation of heart, and too great fondness for the present world. ADdison.

## TO AFFIRM, ASSEVERATE, ASSURE, VOUCH, AVER, PROTEST.

AFFIRM, in French affermir, Latin affirmo, compounded of $a f$ or $a d$ and firmo, to strengthen, significs to give strength to what has been said. ASSEVERATE, in Latin asseveratus, participle of assevero, compounded of as or ad and severus, signifies to make strong and positive. ASSURE, in French assurer, is compounded of the intensive syllable as or $a d$ and sure, signifying to make sure. VOUCH is probably changed from vow. AVER, in French averer, is compounded of the intensive syllable $\alpha$ or $\alpha d$ and verus, true, signifying to bear testimony to the truth. PROTEST, in French protester, Latin protesto, is compounded of pro and testor, to call to witness as to what we think about a thing. All these terms indicate an expression of a person's conviction.

In one sense, to affirm is to declare that a thing is, in opposition to denying or declaring that it is not; in the sense bere chosen, it signifies to declare a thing as a fact on our credit. To asseverate is to declare it with confidence. To vouch is to rest the truth of another's deciaration on our own responsibility. To aver is to express the truth of a declaration unequivocally. To protest is to declare a thing solemnly, and with strong marks of sincerity. Affirmations are made of the past and present; a person affirms what he has seen and what he sees. Asseverations are strong affirmations, made in cases of doubt to remove every impression disadvantageous to one's sincerity. Assurances are made of the past, present, and future; they mark the conviction of the speaker as to what has been, or is, and his intentions as to what shall be ${ }_{i}$
they are appeals to the estimation which another has in one's word. Vouching is an act for another; it is the supporting of another's assurance by our own. Aver. ring is employed in matters of fact; we aver as to the accuracy of details; we aver on positive knowledge that sets aside all question. Protestations are stronger than either asseverations or assurances, they are accompanied with every act, look, or gesture, that can tend to impress conviction on another.

Affirmations are employed in giving evidence, whether accompanied with an oath or not; liars deal much in assevera. tions and protestations. People asseverate in order to produce a conviction of their veracity; they protest in order to obtain a belief of their innocence; they aver where they expect to be believed. As. surances are altogether personal; they are always made to satisfy some one of what they wish to know and believe We ought to be sparing of our assuranca of regard for another. Whenever we affirm anything on the anthority of another, we ought to be particularly cautious not to vouch for its veracity if it be not unquestionable.

An infidel, and fear?
Fear what? a dream? a fable?-How thy dread, Unwilling evidence, and therefore strong, Affords my cause an undesign'd support!
How disbelief affirms what it denies! Yocno.
I judge in this case as Charles the Second victualled his navy, with the bread which one of his dogs chose of several pieces thrown before him, rather than trust to the asseverutions of the victuallers.

Steele.
My learned friend assurbd me that the earth had lately received a shock from a comet that crossed its vertex.

Steele.
All the great writers of the Augustan age, for Whom singly we have so great an esteem, stand np together as vouchers for one another's reputation.

ADDIson.
Among ladies, he positively averred that nonsense was the most prevailing part of eloquence, and had so little complaisance as to say, "a woman is never taken by her reason, but always by her passion."

Stelele

## TO AFFIRM, ASSERT.

AFFIRM, v. To affirm, asseverate. AS. SERT, in Latin assertus, participle of as sero, compounded of as or ad and sero, to connect, signifies to convect words into a proposition. To affirm is said of facts; to assert, of opinions; we affirm what $\pi A_{i}$
know; we assert what we believe. Whoever affirms what he does not know to be true is guilty of falsehood; whotver aszerts what be cannot prove to be true is guilty of folly. We contradict an affrmation; we confute an assertion.

> That this man, wise and virtuous as he was, pagsed always unentangled thrcugh the snares of life, it would be prejudice and temerity to affrm. It is asserted by a tragon's poet, that "est miser nemo nisi comparatus "Jo "no man is miserable, but as he is conipared with others happier than himself." This position is not strictly and phil-osophically true. Jounson.

TO AFFIX, SUBJOIN, ATTACH, ANNEX.
AFFIX, in Latin affixus, participle of affigo, compounded of af or ad and figo, to fix, signifies to fix to a thing. SUBJOIN is compounded of $s u b$ and join, signifying to join to the lower or farther extremity of a body. ATTACH, v. To adhere. ANNEX, in Latin annexus, participle of annecto, compounded of an or ad and necto, to knit, signifies to knit or tie to a thing.

To affix is to put anything as an essential to any whole; to subjoin is to put anything as a subordinate part to a whole: in the former case, the part to which it is put is not specitied; in the latter, the syllable $s u b$ specifies the extremity as the part: to attach is to make one person or thing adhere to anotber by a particular tie mostly in the moral sense; to annex is to bring uhings into a general connection with each other. A title is affixed to a book; a few lines are subjoincd to a letter by way of postscript; we attach blame to a person; a certain territory is annexed to a kingdom. Letters are affixed to words in order to modify their sense, or names are affixed to ideas: it is necessary to subjoin remarks to what requires illustration: we are apt from prejudice or particular circumstances to attach disgrace to certain professions, which are not only useful but important; papers are annexed by way of appendix to some important transaction.

[^10]I subjoin to this paper some explanstion of the word tyrant.

## Cumbealand

As our nature is at present corstituted, attach$\theta d$ by so many strong connections to the world of sense, and enjoying a communication so feeble and distant with the world of spirits, we need fear no danger from cultivating intercourse with the latter as much as possible.

The evils inseparably annexed to the present condition are numprous and afllictive. Johnsom.

## TO AFFLICT, DISTRESS, TROUBLE.

AFFLICT, in Latin afflictus, participle of affligo, compounded of af or ad and figo, in Greek $9 \lambda_{1} \beta \omega$, to press hard, signifies to bear upou any one. DISTRESS, v. Adversity. TROUBLE signifies to cause a tunult, from the Latin turba, Greek $\tau v \rho \beta \eta$ or $\mathcal{S o p}^{2} \boldsymbol{\beta} \beta$ os, a tumult.

When these terms relate to outward circumstances, the first expresses more than the second, and the second more than the third. People are afflicted with grievous maladies. The mariner is distressed for want of water in the midst of the wide ocean; or an embarrassed tradesman is distressed for money to maintain his credit. The mechanic is troubled for want of proper tools, or the head of a family for want of good domestics.
A melancholy tear affliets my eye, And my heart labors with a sudden sigh. Prior.
I often did beguile her of her tears
When I did speak of some distressful stroke
That my youth suffered.
Sharspeare.
The boy so troubles me
'Tis past enduring.
Srakspeanr.
When they respect the inward feelings, afflict conveys the idea of deep sorrow; distress that of sorrow mixed with anxie ty; trouble that of pain in a smaller de gree. The death of a parent afficts; the misfortunes of our family and friends distress; crosses in trade and domestic inconveniences trouble. In the season of affliction prayer affords the best consolation and surest support. The assistance and sympathy of friends serve to relieve distress. We may often help ourselves out of our troubles, and remove the evil by patience and perseverance. Afflictions may be turned to benefits if they lead a man to turn inwardly into himself, and examine the state of his heart and conscience in the sight of his Maker. The distresses of human life often serve only
to enbance the value of our pleasures when we regain them. Among the troubles with which we are daily assailed, many of them are too trifling for us to be troubled by them.

We last night received a piece of ill news at our club which very sensibly afficted every one of us. I questinn not but my readers themselves will be troubled at the hearing of it. To keep them no longer in suspense, Sir Roger de Coverley is dead.

Addison.
While the mind contemplates aistress, it is acted upon and never acts, and by indulging in this contemplation it becomes more and more unfit for action.

Craig.

## AFELICTION, GRYEF, SORROW.

AFFLICTION, v. To affict. GRIEF, from grieve, in German grämen, Swedish gramga, etc. SORROW, in German sorge, etc., signifies care, as well as sorrow.

All these words mark a state of suffering which differs either in the degree or the cause, or in both. Affiction is much stronger than grief; it lies deeper in the soul, and arises from. a more powerful cause; the loss of what is most dear, the continued sickness of our friends, or a reverse of fortune, will all cause affliction: the misfortunes of others, the failure of our favorite schemes, the troubles of our country, will occasion us grief. Sorrow is less than grief; it arises from the untoward circumstances which perpetually arise in life. A disappointment, the loss of a game, our own mistake, or the negligences of others, cause sorrow. Affiction lies too deep to be vehement; it discovers itself by no striking marks in the exterior; it is lasting, and does not cease when the external causes cease to act: grief may be violent, and discover itself by loud and indecorous signs; it is transitory, and ceases even before the cause which gave birth to it: sorrow discovers itself by a simple expression; it is still more transient than grief, not existing beyond the moment in which it is produced. A person of a tender mind is afflicted at the remembrance of his sins; he is grieved at the consciousness of his fallibility and proneness to error; he is sorry for the faults which he has committed. Affirtion is allayed : grief subsides: sorrow is soothed.
I do remember now: henceforth I'll bear Affiction, till it do cry out itself
Enough, enough, and die.
Shakspeare.

The melancholy silence that follows bereupor and continues until he lias recovered himself enough to reveal his mind to his friend, raises in the spectators a grief that is iuexpressible.

Addison,
The most agreeable objects recall the sorroze for her with whom he used to enjoy them.

Addison.

## TO AFFORD, YIELD, PRODUCR:

AFFORD is probably changed from afferred, and comes from the Latin affero, compounded of af or ad and fero, signi. fying to bring to a person. YIELD, in Saxon geldan, German gelten, to pay, restore, or give the value, is probably connected with the Hebrew ilad, to breed, or bring forth. PRODUCE, in Latin produco, compounded of pro, forth, and duco, to bring, signifies to bring out or into existence.

With afford is associated the idea of communicating a part or property of some substance to a person, by way of supply to his wants: meat affords nourishment to those who make use of it; the sun affords light and beat to all living creat, ures.
The genernus man in the ordinary acceptation, withont respect of the demands of his family, will soon find upon the foot of his account that he has sacriffced to foots, knaves, flatterers, or the deservedly unhappy, all the opportunities of affording any future assistance where it ought to be.

Steele.
To yield is the natural operation of any substance to give up or impart the parts or properties inherent in it ; it is the natural surrender which an object makes of itself: trees yield fruit; the seed yields grain; some sorts of grain do not yield much in particular soils, and in an ex. tended application trees may be said to yield a shade.
Their vines a shadow to their race shall yield, And the same hand that sowed shall reap the field.

Pope.
Produce conveys the idea of one thing causing another to exist, or to spring out of it; it is a species of creation, the formation of a new substance: the earth produces a variety of fruits; confined air will produce an explosion.
Their slarpen'd ends in earth their footing place, And the dry poles produce a living race.

Dryder.
In the moral application they are similarly distinguished: nothing affords so
great a acope for ridicule as the follies of faahion; nothing yields so much satisfaction as religion; nothing produces so much mischief as the vice of drunkenness.

Thls is the consolation uf all good men unto whom his ubiquity affordeth continual comtort and security.

Brown.
The mind of man desiretll evermore to know the truth, according to the nost intallible cerainty which the nature of things can yield.

Hooret.
In the times we are now surveying, the Christian religion showed its full force and etticacy on the minds of men, and many examples demonstrated what great and generous souls it was capable of producing.

Addison.

## TO AFFORD, SPARE.

AFFORD, v. To afford, yield. SPARE, in German sparen, Latin parco, Hebrew perek, to preserve, signifies here to lay apart for any particular use.

The idea of deducting from one's property with convenience ia common to these terms; but afford respects solely expensea which are no more than commensurate with our income; spare is said of things in general, which we may part with without any sensible diminution of our comfort. There are few so destitute that they cannot afford something for the relief of others who are more destitute. He who has two things of a kind may easily spare one.
Accept whate'er Exneas can afford, Untouch'd thy arms, untaken be thy sword.

Dryden.
How many men, in the common concerns of life, lend sums of money whieh they are not able to sparel

Addison.

## AFFRONT, INSULT, OUTRAGE.

AFFRONT, in French affronte, from the Latin ad and frons, the forehead, signifies flying in the face of a person. INSULT, in French insulte, comes from the Latin insulto, to dance or leap upon. The former of these actions marks defiance, the latter scorn and trimmph. OUTRAGE is compounded of out or utter, and rage or violence, signifying an act of extreme violence.

An affront is a mark of reproach shown in the presence of others; it piques and mortifies: an insult is an attack made with insolence; it irritates
and provokes: an outrage combines all that is offensive; it wounds and injurea. An inteotional breach of politeness is an affront: if coupled with any external indication of hostility, it is an insult; if it break forth into personal violeace, it is an outrage. Captions people construe every innocent freedom into an affront. When people are in a state of animosity, they seek opportunities of offering each other insults. Intoxication or violent passion impels men to the commission of outrages.

The person thus conducted, who was Hannibal, seemed much disturbed, and could not furbear complaining to the board of the affronts he had met with amung the Roman historians.

## AdDison.

It may very reasonably be expected that the old draw upon themselves the greatest part of those insults which they so much lament, and that age is rarely despised hut wben it ia cuntemptible.

Jounson.
This is the round of a passionate man's life; he coutracts debts when he is furions, which hig virtue, if he has virtue, obliges lim to discharge at the return of reason. He spends his time in outrage and reparation. JonNson.

## aFraid, Fearful, tmorous, timid.

AFRAID is changed from afeared, sig. nifying in a state of fear. FEARFUL, as the words of which it is compounded imply, signities full of fear. TLMOROUS and TIMID come from the Latin timidus, fearful, timor, fear, and timeo, to fear.

The first of these epithets denotes a temporary state, the three last a habit of the mind. Afraid may be used either in a physical or moral application, either as it relates to ourselves only or to others; fearful and timorous are applied only physically and personally; timid is mostly used in a moral sense. It is the char. acter of the fearful or timorous person to be afraid of what he imagines would hurt himself; it is not necessary for the prospect of danger to exist in order to awaken fear in such a disposition: it is the characteristic of the timid person to be afraid of offending or meeting with something painful from others; a person of such a disposition is prevented from following the dictates of his own mind. Between fearful and timorous there it little distinction, either in senge or appli. cation, except that we say fearful of la thing, not timorous of a thing.

To be always afraid of losing life is, indeed, scarcely to enjoy a life that can deserve the care of preservation.

Jounbon.
By I know not what impatience of raillery, he is wonderfnlly fearful of being thonght too great a heliever.

Sterle.
Then birds in airy space might safely move, And tim'rous bares on heaths securely rove,

Dhyoen.
He who brings with him into a clamorous multitude the timidity of recluse speculation, will suffer himself to be driven by a burst of langhser from the fortresses of demonstration. Joenson.

## AF'ГER, BEHLND.

AFTER respects order; BEHIND respects position. One runs after a person, or stands behind his chair. After is used either figurativcly or literally; behind is used only literally. Men hunt after amusements; misfortunes come after one another: a garden lies behind a house; a thing is concealed behind a bush.
Good after ill, and after pain delight, Alternate, like the scenes of day and aight. DRYDEN.
He first, and close behind him followed she, For such was Proserpine's severe decree.

Dhyden.

## to agGravate, irritate, provoike,

 exasperate, Tantalize.AGGRAVATE, in Latin aggravatus, participle of aggravo, compounded of the intensive syllable $\alpha g$ or $a d$ and gravo, to make heavy, signifies to make very heavy. IRRITATE, in Latin irritatus, participle of irrito, which is a frequentative from tra, signifies to excite anger. PROVOKE, in French provoquer, Latin provoco, compounded of pro, forth, and voco, to call, signifies to challenge or defy. EXASPERATE, Latin exusperatus, participle of exaspero, is componnded of the intensive syllable ex and asper, rough, signifying to make things exceedingly rough. TANTALIZE, in French tantaliser, Greek tavтane $\zeta \omega$, comes from Tantalus, a king of Phrygia, who, having offended the gods, was destined, by way of punishment, to stand up to his chin in water, with a tree of fair fruit hanging over his head, both of which, as he attempted to allay his hunger and thirst, fled from his touch.

All these words, except the first, refer to the feelings of the mind, and in famillar discourse that also bears the same
signification, but otherwise respects the outward circumstances. The crime of robbery is aggravated by any circumstances of cruelty; whatever comes across the feelings irritates; whatever a wakens anger provokes; whatever heightens this anger extraordinarily exasperates; whatever raises hopes in order to frustrate them tantalizes. An appearance of unconcern for the offence and its conse. quences aggravates the guilt of the of. fender; a grating, harsh sound irritates, if long continued and often repeated; angry words provoke, particularly when spoken with an air of defiance: when to this are added bitter taunts and multiplied provocations, they exasperate: the weather, by its frequent changes, tantalizes those who depend upon it for amusement. Wicked people aggravate their transgression by violence: susceptible and nervous people are most easily irritated; proud people are quickly provoked; hot and fiery people are soonest exasperated; those who wish for much, and wish for it eagerly, are oftenest tantalized.
As if nature had not sown evils enough in life, we are continually adding grief to grief, and $a g$ gravating the common calamity by our crnel treatment of one another. Addison.
He irritated many of his friends in Londoo so much by his letters, that they withdrew their contributioos. Jornson's LIFE OF SAvage.

The animadversinns of critics are commonly guch as may easily provoke the sedatest writer to some quickness of resentment. Joanson.

Opposition retards, censure exasperates, or neglect depresses.

Joinson.
Can we think that religion was designed only for a contradictinn to nature; and with the greatest and most irrational tyranny io the world to tantalize?

Soctr.

## AGGRESSOR, ASSAILANT.

AGGRESSOR, from the Latin aggressus, participle of aggredior, compounded of $a g$ or $a d$, and gredior, to step, signifies one stepping up to, falling upon, or attacking. ASSAILANT comes from assail, in French assaillir, compounded of as or $a d$, and the Latin salio, to leap upon, signifies one leaping upon or attacking any one vehemently.
The characteristic idea of aggression is that of one person going up to another in a hostile manner, and by a natural ex. tension of the sense commencing an at
tack: the characteristic idea of assailing is that of one committing an act of violence upon another. An aggressor cffers to do some injury either by word or deed; an assailant actually commits some violence: the former commences a dispute, the latter carries it on with a vehement and direct attack. An aggressor is blam. able for giving rise to quarrels : an assailont is culpable for the mischief he does. Were there no aggressors, there would be no disputes; were there no assailants, those disputes would not be serious. An aggressor may be an assailant, or an assailant may be an aggressor, but they are as frequently distinct.

Where one is the aggrbssor, and in pursuance of his first attack kills the other, the law supposes the action, however sudden, to be malicious.

Joynson's Life of Savage.
What ear so fortified and barr'd Against the tuneful force of vocal charms, Bat would with transport to such sweet assailants
Surrender its attention?
Mason.

## AGITATION, TREPIDA'TION, TREMOR, EMOTION.

AGITATION, in Latin agitatio, from agito, a frequentative of ago, to act, signifies the state of being agitated or put into action. TREPIDATION, in Latin trepidatio, from trepido, to tremble, compounded of tremo and pede, to tremble with the feet, signifies the condition of trembling in all one's limbs from head to foot. TREMOR, from the Latin tremor, signifies originally the same state of trembling. EMOTION, in Latin emotio, from emotus, participle of emoveo, compounded of $e$, out of, and moveo, to move, signifies the state of being moved out of rest or put in motion.

Agitation is a violent action backward and forward and in different ways. It may be applied either to the body or the mind; the body may be agitated or thrown into violent and irregular motion, either by external action upon it, or by the operations of grief, terror, or any other passion; the mind is agitated when the thoughts or the feelings are put iuto any violent or irregular motion. Trepidation, like the former, is an irregular motion of the body, but differs both in the manner and cause of the motion; trepidation is the hurried krembling motion of the limbs
in performing their functions, whence we speak of doing a thing with trepidation, or that there is a trepidation in a person's manner: in all cases it arises from a sentiment of fear or alarm.

It is by the embarrassment from the clothes and the agitution that people are thrown into, from finding themselves in a situation they had never experienced before, that so many lives are lost in the water.

Brydone.
The sea is very high in the canal of Malta, and our Sicilian servant is in a sad trepidation.

Brydone.
Agitation and trepidation may be both applied to bodies of men as well as individuals with a similar distinotion.

Amidst the agitations of popular government, occasions will sometimes be afforded for eminent abilities to break forth with pecaliar lustre.

Blatr.
His hirst action of note was in the battle of Lepanto, where the success of that great day, in such trepidation of the state, made every man meritorious.

Wotton.
Tremor is a trembling motion of the body, differing from the two former either in the force or the causes of the action: it is not violent nor confined to any particular part, like trepidation, and may, like agitation, arise either from physical or mental causes. There may be a tremor in the whole body, or a tremor in the voice, and the like.

He fell into such a nniversal tremor of all his joints, that when going bis legs trembled noder him.

Hervey.
Emotion refers solely to the movements of the mind, and is therefore to be compared only with agitation. Emotion is the movement of a single feeling, varying with the object that awakens it; there may be emotions of pleasure as well as of pain; agitotion may be the movement of one or many feelings, but those always of the painful kind. Emotions may be strong, but not violent : agitation will always be more or less violent.
The seventh book affects the imagination like the ocean in a calm, and fills the mind of the reader without producing in it anything like tumult or agitation.

Addison on Milton.
The description of Adam and Eve as they first
appeared to Satan is cxquisitely drawn, and suffappeared to Satan is cxquisitely drawn, and suffcient to make tbe fallen angel gaze upon them with all those embitione of envy in which he is represented.

Addison on Miletoz

## TO AGREE, $\triangle$ CCEDE, CONSENT, COMHLY, ACQUIESCE.

AGREE, in French agréer, from gré, pleasure, Latin gratia, favor, liking; or from the Latin gruo, in congruo, to accord, signifies to be in accordance or agreeable with each other. ACCEDE, in Latin accedo, ac or ad and cedo, to go or come, signifies to come toward another. CONSENT, from consentio, or con, cum, with, together, and sentio, to think or feel, signifies to think or feel in unison. COMPLY, in French complaire, Latin complaceo, or com and placeo, to be pleased, signifies to be good-humored with. ACQUIESCE, in Latin acquiesco, or ac, ad, to or with, and quiesco, to be quiet, signifies to rest contented with.

All these terms denote the falling in of any one or more persons in any matter that comes before their notice. Agree expresses this general idea without any qualifications; all the other terms express different modes of agreeing. All may agree in the same thing, or one may agree to that which is proposed; acceding, complying, and acquiescing, are the acts of persons individually; consenting is properly the act of numbers, but it is also the act of individuals; one accedes to, complies with, or acquiesces in a thing; many consent, or one consents, to a thing. Agreeing is often a casual act not brought about by the parties themselves; the other terms denote positive acts, varying in the motives and circumstances. We accede by becoming a party to a thing: those who accede are on equal terms; one objects to that to which one does not accede; we consent to a thing by authorizing it, we comply with a thing by allowing it ; those who consent or comply are not ou equal terms with those in whose favor the consent is given or compliance made; consenting is an act of authority, complying an act of good-nature or weakness; one refuses that to which one does not consent, or with which one does not comply; to acquiesce is quietly to admit; it is a passive act, dictated by prudence or duty; one opposes that in which one does not acquiesce.

To agree is to be of the same mind in matters of opinion or feeling; it is well for those who act together to be able to agree.

I have been inquiring with regard to theit winter season (in Sicily), and find all agres that it is much preferable to that of Naples.

Betidond.
The term agree is, however, commonly used in regard to acting, as well as thinking, in the ordinary transactions of life.

We agreed to adopt the infant as the orphan son of a distant relation of our own name.

Cusberlantr.
To accede and the other terms are with very few exceptions employed in practical matters, but sometimes otherwise: to ac. cede is mostly said in regard to that which is in a special manner proposed, if nol recommended; as a private individual accedes to a proposition; a plenipoten. tiary accedes to a treaty.

> At last persuasion, menaces, and the impend ing pressure of necessity, conquered her virtus and she acceded to the frand. Comberband.

To consent, as far as it is a universal act, is applied to moral objects; as cus. toms are introduced by the consent of the community; but as the act of one or more individuals, it is applied to such practical matters as interest the partieg for themselves or others; the parliament consents to the measures of the ministry; a parent consents to the marriage of a child.

My poverty, but not my will, consents.
Shakspeare.
Equals consent to that in which they have a common interest.
Long they debate, at length by joint consent, Decree to sound the brother king's intent.

Lewrs.
Complying is used in the sense of yielding to the request, demands, or wishes of another for the sake of conformity.

Inclination will at length come over to reason, although we can never force reason to comply with inclination.

Addison.
Sometimes in the general sense of yielding to the wishes of the community.

There are seldom any public diversions here (in Sicily), the attending which, and complying with their bad hours, does often more than counteract all the benefit derived from the climate.
betpone.
To acquicsee is applied in the sense of yielding or agreeing to that which is docided upon by others.

The Swiss , fearing the consequences of further resistance, reluctantly acquiesced in the proposal.

Gotheie.
In this sense we acquiesce in the dispensations of Providence.
We concelve ourselves obliged to submit unto and acquiesca in all the diapensations of Provideuce, as most wise und most righteous.

Banrow.
TO AGREE, ACCORD, SUIT.
AGREE (v. Agree, Accede) is here used in application to things only. ACCORD, in French accord, from the Latin chorda, the string of a harp, signifies the same as to be in tune or join in tune. SUIT, from the Latin secutus, participle of sequor, to follow, signities to be in a line, in the order a thing ought to be.

An agreement between two things requires an entire sameness; an accordance supposes a considerable resemblance; a suitableness Implies an aptitude to coalesce. Opinions agree, feelings accord, and tempers suit. Two statements agree which are in all respects alike: that accords with our feelings which produces pleasurable sensations; that suits our taste which we wish to adopt, or, in adopting, gives us plcasure. Where there is no agreement in the essentials of any two accounts, their authenticity may be greatly questioned: if a representation of anything accords with what has been stated from other quarters, it serves to corroborate it: it is advisable that the ages and stations as well as tempers of the parties should be suitable, who look forward for happiness in a matrimenial connection.

The laurel and the myrtle sweets agree.
Dryden.
Metre aids, and is adapted to the memory; it accords to muaic, and ia the vehicle of enthusiasm.

Cumberland.
All the works of your doctora in religion and politics have been put into their hands, and you expect that they will apply to their own case just as much of your doctrines and examples as auit your pleasnre.

Burke.
to agree, Coincide, Concur.
AGREE (v. Agree, Accede) is here taken in its application to both persons and things. It is as before the general term. COINCIDE, from the Latin con, together, and incido, to fall, implying a meeting in
a certain point, and CONCUR, from com, together, and curro, to run, implying a running in the same course, an acting together on the same principles, are mode of agreeing.

In respect to persons, they agree either in their general or particular opinions; they coincide and concur only in particu. lar opinions. A person coincides in opinion with another in regard to speculative matters, but concurs with another in re gard to practical matters; to coincide is only to meet at the same point, but tc concur is to go together in the same road or in the same course of conduct.

Since all agree, who both with judgment read, Tis the same sun, and does himself gucceed.

TATB
There is not perhaps any couple whose dispositions and religh of life are so perfectly aimilar as that their wills constantly coincide.

Hawkeswoath.
The plan being thus concerted, and my cousin's concurrence obtained, it was immediately put in execution.

HawEEAWORTR.
In respect to things, they agree in one, many, or every point, as the accounts of different persons, times, modes, and circumstances agree: things coincide or meet at one point, as where two circumstances fall out at the same time; this is a coincidence: things concur if they have the same tendency or lead to the same point; several circumstances must sometimes concur to hring about any particular event. The coincidence is mostly acci dental, the concurrence depends upon the nature of things.

How does the slender stalk of the rose agree with the bulky head under which it bends? But the rose is a beautiful flower; and can we undertake to say that it does not owe a great deal of its beauty even to that disproportion? Burke.

A coincidence of sentiment may easily happen without any communication, since there are many occasions on which all reasonable men will think alike.

Johnson.
Eminence of atation, greatness of effect, and all the favors of fortune, must concur to place excellence in public view.

Johnson.

## agreeable, pleasant, pleasing.

Thr two first of these epithets approach so near in sense and application, that they can with propriety he used indifferently, the one for the other; yet there is an occasional difference which may be clearly defined. The AGREE-

4 BLE is that which agrees with or suits the character, temper, and feelings of a person; the PLEASANT that which pleases; the PLEASING that which is adapted to please. Agreeable expresses a feeling less vivid thau pleasant: people of the soberest and gravest character may talk of passing agreeable hours, or enjoying agreeable society, if those hours were passed agreeably to their turn of mind, or that society suited their taste; but the young and the gay will prefer pleasant society, where vivacity and mirth prevail, suitable to the tone of their spirits. A man is agreeable who by a soft and easy address contributes to the amusement of others; a man is pleasant who to this softness adds affability and communicativeness. Pleasing marks a sentiment less vivid and distinctive than either. A pleasing voice has something in it which we like; an agreeable voice strikes with positive pleasure upon the ear. A pleasing countenance denotes tranquillity and contentment; it satisfies us when we view it: a pleasant countenance bespeaks happiness; it gratifies the beholder, and invites him to look upon it.

To divert me, 1 took up a volume of Shakspeare, where I chanced to cast my eye upon a part in the tragedy of Richard the Third which filled my mind with an agreeable horror. Steele.

## Pleasant the sun

When first on this delightful land he spreads His orient beams.

Milton.
Nor this alune $\mathrm{t}^{\prime}$ 'indulge a vain delight, And make a pleasing prospect for the sight.

Dhyden.

## agreement, CONTRACT, covenant, COMPACT, BARGAIN.

AGREEMENT signifies what is agreed to ( $v$. To agree). CONTRACT, in French contrat, from the Latin contractus, participle of contraho, to bring close together or bind, signifios the thing thus contracted or bound. COVENANT, in French convenant, Latin conventus, participle of convenio, to meet together at a point, signifies the point at which several meet, that is, the thing agreed upon by many. COMPACT, in Latin compactus, participle of compingo, to bind close, signifies the thing to which people bind themselves close. BARGAIN, from the Welsh bargan, to
contract or deal for, signifies the act of dealing, or the thing dealt for.

An agreement is general, and applies to transactions of every description, but particularly such as are made between single individuals, in cases where the other terms are not so applicable; a contract is a binding aqreement between in dividuals; a simple agreement may be verbal, but a contract must be written and legally executed: covenant, in the technical sense, is an agreement by deed, but in the general sense a solemn agreement; a compact is an agreement among numbers; a covenant may be a national and puhlic transaction; a compact respects individuals as members of a community, or communities with each other who are compacted together: a bargain, in its proper sense, is an agreement solely in matters of trade, but applies figuratively in the same sense to other objects. The simple consent of parties constitutes an agreement; certain solemnities are necessary to make a contract or covenant valid; a tacit sense of mutual obligation in all the parties gives virtue to a compact; an assent to stipulated terms of sale may form a bargain.

Friends make an agreement to meet at a certain time; two tradesmen enter into a contract to carry on a joint trade; and if it be under hand and seal, the stipu. lations therein contained are technically called covenants: in the Society of Freemasons, every individual is bound to secrecy by a solemn compact: the trading part of the community are continually striking bargains.

Frog had given his word that he would meet the abore-mentioned company at tbe Salutation, to talk of this agreement.

Arbethnot's History of John Bczl.
It is impossible to sce the long serolls in which every contract is included, with all their appendages of seals and attestations, withont wondering at the depravity of those beings who must be restrained from violation of promise by such formal and public eridences. Johnson.
These fiashes of blue lightning gave the sign
Of covenants broke; three peals of thunder join. Dryden.
In the beginnings and first establishment of speech, there was an implicit compact among men, founded upon common use and consent, that such and such words or voices, actions nr gestures, should be means or signs whereby they would express or convey their thoughts one to snother.

Sodth.

We see men frequently daxterons and sharp snough in making a bargain, who, if you reason with them about matters of religion, appear perfectly stupid.

Locee.

## AIM, OBJECT, END, VIEW.

ALM is mostly derived from the old French esmer or aesmer, Latin esstimo, Irish and Gaelic amas, hitting or marktag, signifying the thing looked at with the eye or the miud, consequently the particular point to which one's efforts are directed, which is had always in view, and to the attainment of which everything is made to bend. OBJECT, from the Latin objectus, participle of ob and jacio, to lie in the way, is more vague; it signifies the thing that lies before us; we pursue it by taking the necessary means to obtain it; it becomes the fruit of our labor. END, in the improper sense of end, is still more general, signifying the thing that ends one's wishes and endeavors ; it is the result not only of action, but of combined action; it is the consummation of a scheme; we must take the proper measures to arrive at it.
The aim is that which the person has in his own mind: it depends upon the character of the individual whether it be good or bad, attainable or otherwise; the object lies in the thing; it is a matter of choice, it depends upon accident as well as design, whether it be worthy or unworthy; the end is that which follows or terminates any course or proceeding; it depends upon the means talken, whether the end is arrived at or not. It is the aim of the Christian to live peaceably; it is a mark of dulness or folly to act without an object; it is sophistry to suppose that the end will justify the means.

Cunning has only private, selfish aims, and sticks at nothing which may make them succeed.

Addison.
We should sufficiently weigh the objects of our hope, whether they be such as we may reasonably expect from them what we propose in their fruition.

Addison.
Liberty and truth are not in themselves desirable, but only as they relate to a farther end.

Berkeley.
Aim and VIEW, from video, to see or look at, are both acts of the mind, but the aim is that which the mind particularly sets before itself as a thing to be pbtained; the view is, generally speaking,
whatever the mind sets before itself, whether by way of opinion or motive; a person's views may be interested or disinterested, correct or false. The aim is practical in its operations; the view is a matter rather of contemplation than of practice.
Our aim is happiness; 'tis yours, 'tis mine, Yet few attain it, if 'twas e'er attained.

Armstrong.
Not present good or ill, the joy or eurse,
But future views of better or of worse.
Pope.

## TO AIM, POINT, LEVEE.

AIM, signifying to take aim (v. Aim), is to direct one's aim toward a point. POINT, from the noun point, signifies to direct the point to anything. LEVEL, from the adjective level, signifies to put one thing on a level or in a line with another.

Aim expresses more than the other two words, inasmuch as it denotes a direction toward some minute point in an object, and the others imply direction toward the whole objects themselves. We aim at a bird; we point a cannon against a wall; we level a cannon at a wall. Pointing is of course used with most propriety in reference to instruments that have points; it is likewise a less decisive action than either aiming or levelling. A stick or a finger may be pointed at a person, merely out of derision; but a blow is levelled or aimed with an express intent of committing an act of violence.
Their heads from aiming blows they bear afar, With clashing ganntlets then provoke the war.

Dryden.
If they persist in pointing their batteries to (at) particnlar persons, no laws of war forbid the making reprisals.

ADDIson.
He calls on Bacchus, and proponnds the prize: The groom his fellow-groom at butts defies, And bends his bow, and levols with his eyes. DRYDEN.
The same analogy is kept up in their figurative application. The shafts of ridicule are kut too often aimed with little effect against the follies of fashion: remarks which seem merely to point at others, without being expressly addressed to them, have always a bad tendency; it has hitherto been the fate of infidels to level their battery of sneers, declamation, and sophistry against the Christian relig. ion only to strengthen the conviction of
its sublime truths in the minds of mankind at large.

Another kind there is, which although we desire for itself, as health and virtue and knowledge, nevertheless they are not the last mark whereat we aim, but have their further end whereunto they are referred.

Hooker. The story slyly points at you. Cumberland.

Which earnest wish he (St. Gregory Nazian(en) surely did not mean to level against the orlinance of God, but against that whicb lately bezan to be intruded by men.
barbow.

## TO AIM, ASPIRE.

AIM ( $v$. Aim) includes efforts as well as views, in olbtaining an object. ASPIRE, from as or ad, to or after, and spiro, to breatbe, comprehends views, wishes, and hopes to obtain an object.

We aim at a certain proposed point by endeavoring to gain it; we aspire after that wbich we tbink ourselves entitled to, and flatter ourselves with gaining. Many men aim at riches and honor: it is the lot of but few to aspire to a throne. We sim at what is attainable by ordinary efforts; we aspire after what is great and unusual, and often improper.
Whether zeal or moderation be the point we aim at, let us keep fre out of the one, and frost ont of the other.

Addison.
dapining to be gods, if angels fell, Aapiring to be angels, men rebei.

Pope.

## AIR, MANNHR.

AIR, In Latin aer, Greek anp, comes from the Hebrew aor, because it is the vehicle of light; hence in the figurative sense, in which it is here taken, it denotes an appearance. MANNER, in French manière, comes probably from mener, to lead or direct, signifying the direction of one's movements.

Air lies in the whole person; manner is confined to the action or me movement of a single limb. A man has the air of a common person; it discovers itself in all his manners. An air strikes at the first glance, whether the person be in motion or at rest; the manner can only be seen when the person is in action: it develops itself on closer observation. Some people have an air about them which displeases; but their manners afiterward win upon those who have a farther intercourse with them. An air is indicative of a state of mind; it may result either from a natural or habitual
mode of thinking: a nanner is indicative of the education; it is produced by external circumstances. An air is nuble or simple, it marks an elevation or sim. plicity of character: a manner is rude, rustic, or awkward, for want of culture, good society, and good example. We assume an air, and affect a manner.

The air she gave herself was that of a romp ing girl.

Steele.
The boy is well fashioned, and will easily fall into a graceful manner.

Sterle.

## AIR, MIEN, LOOK.

AIR, v. Air. MIEN, in German miene, comes, as Adelung supposes, from mähen, to move or draw, because the lines of the face which coustitute the mien in the German sense are drawn together. LOOK signifies properly a mode of looking or appearing.

The exterior of a person is compre. hended in the sense of all these words. Air depends not only on the countenarice, but the stature, carriage, and action: mien respects the whole outward appearance, not excepting the dress: look depends altogether on the face and its changes. Air marks any settled stats of the mind: mien denotes any state of the outward circumstances: look any individual movement of the mind. We may judge by a person's air, that he has a confident and fearless mind; we may judge by his sorrowful mien, that he has substantial cause for sorrow; and by sorrowful looks, that he has some partial or temporary cause for sorrow. We talk of doing anything with a particular air; of having a mien; of giving a look. An innocent man will answer his accusers with an air of composure; a person's whole mien sometimes bespeaks his wretched condition; a look is sometimes given to one who acts in concert by way of intimation.

The truth of it is, the air is generally nothing else but the inward disposition of the mind made visible.

Addieon.
How sleek their looks, how goodly is their mien, When big they strut belind a double chin!

Dryden.
What chlef is this that visits us from far,
Whose gallant mign bespeaks him train'd to war ? SteELe. How in the looks does conscious guilt appear:

## ALARM, TERROR, FRIGHT, CONSTERNA-

 TION.ALARM is generally derived from the French alarmer, compounded bf al or ad and armes, arms, signifying a cry to arms, a signal of danger, a call to defence; but it may with greater reason be derived from the German larmen, to sound or to give a sound by way of signal. TERROR, in Latin terror, comes from terreo, to produce fear. FRIGHT, from the German furcht, fear, signifies a state of far. CONSTERNATION, in Latin consternatus, from consterno, to lay low or prostrate, expresses the mixed emotion of terror and amazement which confounds.

Alarm springs from any sudden signal that announces the approach of danger. Terror springs from any event or phenomenon that may serve as a prognostic of some catastrophe. It supposes a less distinct view of danger than alarm, and affords room to the imagination, which commonly magnifies objects. Alarm therefore makes us run to our defence, and terror disariss us. Fright is a less vivid emotion than either, as it arises from the simple appearance of danger. It is more personal than either alarm or serror; for we may be alarmed or terrified for others, but we are mostly frightened for ourselves. Censternation is stronger than either terror or affright; it springs from the view of some very serious evil, and commonly affects many. Alarm affects the feelings, tevror the understanding, and fright the senses; consternation seizes the whole mind, and benumbs the faculties. Cries alarm; horrid spectacles terrify; a tumult frightens; a sudden calamity fills with consternation. One is filled with alarm, seized with terror, overwhelmed with fright or consternation. We are alarmed for what we apprehend; we are terrified by what we imagine; we are frightened by what we see; consternation may be produeed by what we learn.

None so renown'd
With breathing brass to kindle fierce alarms.
Driten.
I was once in a mixed assembly, that was fill of noise and mirth, when on sudden an old Fomen nnluckily observed there were thirteen of as in eompany. The remark struck a panic ferpor into several of us.

ADDIsON.

I have known a soldier that has entered * breact, affrighted at his own shadow.

Addison.
The son of Pelias ceased; the chiefs around, In silence wrapped, in consternation drown'd.

Pope.

## ALERTNESS, ALACRITY.

ALERTNESS, from ales, a wing, desig. nates corporeal activity or readiness for action. ALACRITY, from acer, sharp, brisk, designates mental activity. We proceed with alertness when the body is in its full vigor; we proceed with alacrity when the mind is in full pursuit of an object.
The wings that waft ou: riches out of sight Grow on the gamester's elbows; and the alert And nimble motion of those restless joints That never tire, soon fans them all awny.

Cowper.
In dreams it is wonderful to observe with what sprightliness and alacrity the soul exerts herself.

Addison.

## ALL, WHOLE.

ALL and WHOLE are derived from the same source, that is, in German all and heil, whole or sound, Dutch all, hel, or heel, Saxon al, wal, Danish al, ald, Greek odos, Hebrew chol or hol.

All respects a number of individuals; whole respects a single body with its components: we have not all, if we have not the whole number; we have not the whole, if we have not all the parts of which it is composed. It is not within the limits of human capacity to take more than a partial survey of all the interesting objects which the whole globe contains. When applied to spiritual objects in a general sense, all is preferred to whole; but when the object is specific, whole is preferable: thus we say, all hope was lost; but, our whole hope rested in this.
It will be asked how the drama moves if it is not credited. It is credited with all the credit due to a drama.

Johnson.
The whols history of this celebrated repnblic (Athens) is but one tissue of rashness, folly, ingratitude, injustice, tumult, violence, and tyranny.

Burze.

## ALL, EVERY, EACH.

ALL is collective; EVERY single or individual ; EACH distributive. All and every are universal in their signification; each is restrictive: the former are used in speaking of great numbers; the latter
is applicable to small numbers. All men gre not born with the same talent, either in degree or kind; but every man has a talent peculiar to himself: a parent divides his property among his children, and gives to each his due share.

The young fellows wera all in their Sunday clothes, and mede a good appearance.

Beydone.
Every man's performances, to be rightly estlmated, must be compared to the state of the age in which he lived.

Johnson.
Taken singly and individually, it might be difflcult to conceive how each event wrought for good. They must be viewed in their consequences and effects.

Blala.

## to allay, soothe, appease, mitiGATE, ASSUAGE.

To ALLLAY is compounded of $a l$ or $a d$, and lay, to lay to or by, signifying to lay a thing to rest, to abate it. SOOTHE probably comes from sweet, which is in Swedish süt, Low German, etc., söt, and is doubtless connected witl the Hebrew sot, to allure, invite, compose. APPEASE, in French inpuiser, is compounded of ax or $a d$ and paix, peace, signifying to quiet. MITIGATE, from mitis, neek, gentle, signifies to make gentle or easy to be borne. ASSUAGE is compounded of $a s$ or $a d$ and suage, from the Latin suasi, perfect of suadeo, to persuade, and suavis, sweet, signifying to treat with gentleness, or to render easy.

All these terms indicate a lessening of something painful. In a physical sense an irritating pain is allayed; a wounded part is soothed by affording ease and comfort. Extreme beat or thirst is allayed; extreme hunger is appeased; a punishment or sentence is mitigated.
Without expecting the return of hunger, they eat for an appetite, and prepare dishes not to allay, but to excite it.

ADDison.
To soothe the pangs
Of dying worth, and from the patriot's breast (Backward to mingle in detested war,
But foremost when engaged) to turn the death, And numberless such offices of love
Daily and nightly, zealons to perform.
Thomson.
The rest
They curt in legs and fillets for the feast, Which drawn and served, their hunger they appease.

Dryden.
I undertook
Before thee and not repenting, this obtain
Of right, that I may mitigate their doom.
Milton.

In a moral sense one allays what it fervid and vehement; one soothes what ie distressed or irritated; one appeases what is tumultuous and boisterous; one mitigates the pains of others, or what is rig. orous and severe; one assuages grief or afflictions. Nothing is so calculated te allay the fervor of a distempered imagingtion as prayer and religious meditation: religion has everything in it which can soothe a wounded conscience by presenting it with the hope of pardon, that car appease the angry passions by giving us a sense of our own sinfulness and need of God's pardon, and that can assuage the bitterest griefs by affording us the brightest prospects of future hliss.

If 1 can any way assuage private Inflammar tions, or allay public ferments, I shall apply my self to it with the utmost endeavors. ADDISON.

Nature has given all the little arts of soothdn and blandishing to the female.

ADDison
Attendant flatt'ry counts his myriads o'er, Till counted myriads soothe his pride no more.

Johnsox
Charon is no sooner appeased, and the tripla headed dog laid asleep, but Fneas makes his en. trance into the dominions of Pluto. ADdison.
All it can do is to devise how that which must be endured may be mitigated.

Hookea

## TO ALLEVIATE, RELIEVE.

ALLEVIATE, in Latin alleviatus, par. ticiple of allevio, is compounded of the intensive syllable al or ad and levo, to lighten, signifying to lighten by making less. RELIEVE, from the Latin relevo, is compounded of $r e$ and levo, to lift up signifying to take away or remove.
A pain is alleviated by making it less burdensome; a necessity is relieved by supplying what is wanted. Alleviate respects our internal feelings only; relieve, our external circumstances. That alleviates which affords ease and comfort; that relieves which removes the pain. It is no alleviation of sorrow to a feeling mind to reflect that others undergo the same suffering; a change of position is a consid. erable relief to an invalid, wearied with confinement. Condolence and sympathy tend greatly to alleviate the sufferings ot our fellow-creatures; it is an essential part of the Christian's duty to relieve the wants of his indigent neighbor.
Half the misery of human life might be extin-
guished, would men alleviate the general curse

Hiey the under by mutual offices of compassion, benevolence, and humanity.

ADdian.
Now sinking underneath a load of grief, Trom death aloue she seeks her last relief.

Dsyden.

## ambance, league, confederacy.

ALLIIANCE, in French alliance, from the Latin alligo, to knit or tie together, signifies the state of being tied. LEAGUE, In French ligue, comes from the same verb, ego, to bind. CONFEDERACY or confederation, in Latin confederatio, from con and foedus, an agreement, or fides, faith, signifies a joining together under a certain pledge.

All these terms agree in expressing the mion between two or more persona or bodies, but they differ in the nature of the union and the motive for entering into it. Alliance is the most general term, the other two are rather particular terms; an alliance may be entered into either on public grounds as between states, or on private grounds as between families or individuals; a league or confederacy is entered into upon public grounds or for common interesta, as a league between nations or states, and a confederacy between smaller powers or between individuals. Alliances are formed for the mutual conveniencea of parties, as between, states to promote commerce; leagues and confederacies are entered into mostly for purposes of self-defence or common safety against the attacks of a common enemy; but a league is mostly a solemn act between two or more states and for general purposes of safety; and may, therefore, be both defensive and offensive; a confederacy is mostly the temporary act of scveral uniting in a season of actual danger to resist a common adversary.
Who but a fonl wonld wars with Juna choose, And such alliance and auch gifts refinse? Dryden.
Rather in leagues of endless peace inite, And celebrate the Hymeneal rite. Addison.
The hlstory of mankind informs ua that a single power ia very seldom broken by a confederrey.

Johnson.
Alliance, as regards persons, ls always taken in a good oense, and as between families or individuals is mostly matrimonial. League and confederacy are frequently taken in a bad sense; we may
speak of a wloked league or an arnataral league between peraons of opposite charactera for their own private purposes, or a league between beasts for aavage pur poses; there may be a confederacy be tween persons to resist a lawful demand, or to forward any evil design.
Though domestic misery must follow an alli ance with a gamester, matchea of this sort arr mede every day.

Curaebland.
Tiger with tiger, bear with bear, you'll find
In leagues offensive end defenaive joined. Tatra
When Babel was confounded, and the great
Confederacy of projectors wild and vain
Was split linto diversity of tongues,
Then, as a ahepherd separates his fock, These to the upland, to the velley those, God drave asunder.

Cowpez

## alliance, affinity.

ALLIANCE, v. Alliance, league. AF. FINITY, in Latin affinitas, from $a f$ or ad and finis, a border, signifies a contiguitg of borders.

An alliance is a nnion artificially form. ed between persons; an affinity is a rela tion which flows from that act as far as the alliance is matrimonial-the affinity is properly that which reaults from it; when an alliance is formed between persons of different sexes, this necessarily creates an affinity between the relatives of the two partice.
0 horror 1 horror $i$ after this alliance
Let tigers metch with hinds, and wolves with aheep,
And every creature comple with ita foe.

## Dryden.

The husband and wife are but one flesh, so that he who is related to the one by consanguinity is related to the other by affinity in the same degree.

Gibson.
As respects things, alliance ls used fig: uratively in the same sense to denote their union by an artificial tie: as an allianco between church and state; affinity in this case implies a relation between things by reason of their agreement or resemblance to each other: as an affinity of sounds, or an affinity of languages.

[^11]TO ALLOT, APPOINT, DESTINE.
ALLOT, compounded of al or ad and tot, signifies to set apart by way of a lot or share. APPOINT, in French appointer, from $a p$ and point, signifies to point out or set out in a particular manner for a particular purpose. DESTINE, in French destiner, Latin destino, compoundyd of de and stino, sto or sisto, signifies to lace apart for a particular object.
The idea of setting apart or selecting ls common to these terms; but allot is used only for things, appoint and destine for persuns or things. A space of ground is allotted for cultivation; a person is appointed as steward or governor; a youth Is destined for a particular profession. Allotments and appointments are made for tmmediate purposes, destinations for a future purpose; time may be either allotted, appointed, or destined; but allot respects indefinite portions of time, as to allot a portion of one's time to religious meditation ; appoint respects any particularly defined portion of time, as to appoint an hour of meeting; destine implies a future time purposely fixed, as the des. tined hour arrived. A space may be allotted, because space may ve divided into portions: a particular place is appointed for a particular immediate object, or it is destined by some previous determination; as a person appoints the place where a house shall be built; he destines a house for a particular purpose.

It is unworthy of a reasonable being to spend any of the little time allotted us without some tendency, direct or oblique, to the end of onr exIstence.

Johnson.
Having notified to my good friend, Sir Roger, that I should set out for London the next day, his horses were ready at the appointed hour.

Steele,
Look round and survey the varions beanties :the globe, which Heaven has destined for man, and consider whether a world thus exquisitely framed could be meant for the abooe of misery ind pain.

Johnson.

## to allow, grant, bestow.

ALLOW, v. To admit, allow. GRANT is prohably changed from guarantee, in French garantir, signifying to assure anything to a person by one's word or deed. BESTOV ${ }^{T}$ is compounded of be and stow, which in English, as well as in the northern languages, signifies to place; hence
to bestow signifies to dispose according to one's wishes and convenience.

That is allowed which may be expect. ed, if not directly required; that is grant. $e d$ which is desired, if not directly asked for; that is bestowed which is wanted as a matter of necessity. What is allowed is a gift sometimes stipulated as to time and quantity, hut frequently depends upon the will of the giver; what is granted is sometimes perfectly gratuitous on the part of the giver, but, when granted, is not al ways to be taken back; what is bestowed is occasional, altogether depending on circumstances and disposition of both giver and receiver. Many of the poor are al. lowed a small sum weekly from the parish. It is as improper to grant a person more than he asks, as it is to ask a person for more than he can grant. Alms are very ill bestozsed which only serve to encourage beggary and idleness. A grant comprehends in it something more im portant than an allowance, and passes between persons in a higher station; what is bestowed is of less value than either. A father allows his son a yearly sum for his casual expenses, or a master allows his servant a maintenance; kings grand pensions to their officers; governmenta grant subsidies to one another; relief is bestowed on the indigent.

Martial's description of a spectes of lawyers is full of humor: "Men that hire out their words and anger, that are more or less passionate as they are paid for it, and allowo their client a quantity of wrath proportionable to the fee which they receive from him."

Addison.
All the land is the queen's, unless there be some grant of any part thereof to be showed from her majesty.

Spenser.
Our Saviour doth plainly witness that there should not be so much as a cup of cold water bestowed. without reward.

Hooker.
In a figurative application, things are allowed either out of courtesy or complaisance; they are granted by way of favur or indulgence; they are bestowed either from necessity or urgent reasons: merit is allowed; a request is granted; atten. tion or applause is bestowed.

The first invention of them (engines) the Grecians clain to themselves, being not easily induced to allow the contrivance of any aft to otiner nations.

Puttea.
If you in pity grant this one request,
My death shall glut the hatred of hia breast.
Deydek

## ALLUDE

So much the more thy diligence bestons, In depth of winter to defend the snow. Daypen.

ALLOWANCE, STIPEND, SALARY, WAGES, HIRE, PAY.

Als these terms denote a stated sum psid sccording to certain stipulations. ALLOWANCE, from allow (v. To admit, allow), signifies the thing allowed. STIPEND, in Latin stipendium, from stips, a piece of money, signifies money paid. SALARY, in French salaire, Latin salari. um, comes from sal, salt, which was originally the principal pay for soldiers. WAGES, in French gages, Lstin vadium, from the Hebrew igang, labor, signifies that which is paid for labor. HIRE expresses the sum for which one is hired, and PAY the sum that is to be paid.

An allowance is gratuitous; it ceases at the pleasure of the donor; all the rest are the requital for some supposed service; they ccase with the engagement made between the parties. A stipend is more fixed and permanent than a salary; and that than wages, hire, or pay: a stipend depends upon the fulfilling of an engagement, rather than on the will of on individual, a salary is a mstter of contract between the giver and receiver, and may be incressed or diminished at will. An allowance may be given in any form, or at any stated times; a stipend and salary are paid yearly, or at even portions of a year; wages, hire, and pay, are estimated by days, weeks, or months, as well as years. An allowance may be made by, with, and to persons of all ranks; a stipend and salary are assignable only to persons of respectability; wages are given to laborers, hire to servants, pay to soldiers or such as are employed under goverament.

> Sir Richard Steele was officiously informed that Mr. Savaga had ridiculed him; by which he was so much exasperated that he withdrew the allovoance which he had paid him.

> Johnson.

Is not the care of sonls a load sufflicient? Are not your holy stipends paid for this?

Dryden.
Several persons, out of a salary of five hundred pounds, lave always lived at the rate of two thonsand.

Swift.
The peasant and the meehanic, when they hare
received the anages of the day, and procured their
strong beer and supper, have scarce a wish unsatisfled.

Hawhesworth.

The thrifty have flve hnndred crowns, The thrifty hire I sav'd under your father. Sbakapiare
Come on, brave soldiers, doubt not of the day; And that once gotten, doubt not of large pay.

Snakgpeare
to allude, refer, hint, suggest.
ALLUDE, in Latin olludo, is compound. ed of al or ad and ludo, to sport, that is, to say anything in a cursory manner. REFER, in Latin refero, signifies to bring back, that is, to bring back a person's recollection to any subject by mention. ing it. HINT may possibly be changed from hind or behind, in German hiuten, signifying to convey from behind, or in an obscure manner. SUGGEST, in Lastin suggestus, participle of suggero, is compounded of $s u b$ and gero, to brigg under or near, and signifies to bring forward in an indirect or casual manner.

To allude is not so direct as to refer, but it is more clear and positive than either hint or suggest. We allude to a circumstance by introducing something collaterally allied to it; we refer to an event by expressly introducing it into one's discourse; we hint st a person's intentions by darkly insinuating what may possibly happen; we suggest an idea by some poetical expressions relative to it. There are frequent allusions in the Bible to the customs and manners of the East. It is necessary to refer to certain passages of a work when we do not expressly copy them. It is somctimes better to be entirely silent upon a subject, than to hint at what cannot be fully explained. Many improvements have owed their origin to some ideas casually suggested in the course of conversation.

Allude and refer are always said with regard to things that have positively happened, and mostly such as are indifferent; hint and suggest have mostly a personal relation to things that are precarious. The whole drift of a discourse is sometimes unintelligible for want of knowing what is alluded to; although many persons and incidents are referred to with their proper names and dates. It is the part of the slanderer to hint at things discreditable to another, when he does not dare to speak openly; and to suggest doubts of his veracity when he cannot positively charge him with falsehood.

I need not inform my reader that the anthor of Hudibras alludes to this strange quality in that cold climate, when, speaking of abstracted notions clothed in a visihle shape, he adds that apt simile,
"Like words congeal'd in northern air." Addison.
Every remarkable event, every distinguished personage under the law, is interpreted in the New Testament as bearing some reference to Christ's death.

Blair.
It is hinted that Augustus had in mind to restore the commonwealth.

Comberland.
This image of misery, in the punishment of Tantalus, was perhaps originally siuggested to some poet by the conduct of his patron. Johnson.

## TO ALLURE, TEMPT, SEDUCE, ENTICE, DECOY.

ALLURE is compounded of the iutensive syllable $a l$ or $a d$ and lure, in French leurre, in German luder, a lure or tempting bait, signifying to hold out a bait in order to catch animals, and figuratively to present something to please the senses. TEMPT, in French tenter, Latin tento, to try, comes from tentus, participle of tendo, to stretch, siguifying by efforts to impel to action. SEDUCE, in French séduire, Latin seduco, is compounded of se, apart, and duco, to lead, signitying to lead any one aside. ENTICE is probably, per metathesin, changed from incite. DECOY is compounded of the Latin de and coy, in Dutch koy, German, etc., koi, a cage or enclosed place for birds, signifying to draw into any place for the purpose of getting into one's power.

We are allured by the appearances of things; we are tempted by the words of persons as well as the appearances of things; we are enticed by persuasions; we are seduced or decoyed by the influence and false arts of others. To allure and tempt are used either in a good or bad sense : entice sometimes in an indifferent, but mostly in a barl sense; seduce and decog are always in a bad sense. The weather may alhure us out-of-doors: the love of pleasures may allure us into indulgences that afterward cause repentance. We are sometimes tempted upon very fair grounds to undertake what turus out unfortunately in the end: our passions are our bitterest enemies; the devil uses them as instruments to tempt us to sin. When the wicked entice us to do evil, we should turn a deaf ear to their flattering representations: those
who know what is right, and are deter mined to practise it, will not suffer them. selves to be enticed into any irregularities. Young men are frequently seduced by the company they keep. Children are decoyed away by the evil-minded, who wish to get them into their possession. The country has its allurements for the coptemplative mind: the metropolis is full of temptations. Those who have any evil project to execute will omit no enticement in order to seduce the young and inexperienced from their duty. The practice of decoying children or ignorant people into places of confinement was formerly more frequent than at present.

Allure does not imply such a powerful influence as tempt: what allures draws by gentle means; it lies in the nature of the thing that affects: what tempts acts by direct aud continued efforts; it presents motives to the inind in order to produce decision ; it tries the power of resistance. Entice supposes such a decisive influence on the mind as produces a determination to act; in which respect it differs from the two former terms. Allure and tempt produce actions on the mind, not necessarily followed by any result; for we may be allured or tempted to do a thing, without necessarily doing the thing; but we cannot be enticed unless we are led to take some step. Seduce and decoy have reference to the outward action, as well as the inward movements of the mind which give rise to them: they indicate a drawing aside of the person as well as the miad; it is a misleading by false representation. Prospects are alluring, offers arc tempting, words are enticing, charms are seductive.

June 26, 1284, the rats and mice by which Hamclen was infested were allured, it is said, by a plper to a contignoas river, in which they were all drowned.

Addison.
In our time the poor are strongly tempted to assume the appearance of wealth.

Jonnson.
There is no kind of idleness by which we arb so casily seduced, as that which dignifies itself by the appear mee of business.

Jonnson.
There was a particular grove which was called "the labyrinth of coquettes," where many were enticed to the chase, but few returned with purchase.

AdDison.
I have heard of barbarians, who, when tempests drive slips upon their coast, decoy them to the rocks that they may plunder their lading.

Johneon.

## ALWAYS

## ALLY, CONFEDERATE,

Although derived from the preceding terms ( $v$. Alliance, confederacy), are used only in part of their acceptations. An ALLY is one who forms an alliance in the political sense; a CONFEDERATE is one who forms confederacies in general, but more particularly when such confed. eracies are unauthorized. The Portuguese and English are allies. William Tell had some few particular friends who were his confederates; but we should use the word with more propriety in its worst sense, for an associate in a rebellious faction, as in speaking of any bandit and his confederates.

We could hinder the accession of Holland to France, either as subjects with great immunities for the encouragement of trade, or as an inferior and dependent ally under their protection.

Temple.
But there is yet a liberty, unsung By poets, and by senators unpraised,
Which monarchs cannot grant, nor all the powers Of earth and hell confederate take away.

Cowpen.

## ALONE, SOLITARY, LONELY.

ALONE, compounded of all and one, signifies altogether one, or single ; that is, by one's self. SOLITARY, in French solitaire, Latin solitarius, from solus, alone, signifies the quality of being alone. LONELY signifies in the manner of alone. Alone marks the state of a person; solitavy the quality of a person or thing; lonely the quality of a thing only. A person walks alone, or takes a solitary walk in a lonely place. Whoever likes to be much alone is of a solitary turn: wherever we can be most and oftenest alone, that is a solitary or lonely place.

## Here we stand alone,

As iu our form distinct, pre-eminent. Yoong.
I would wish no man to deceive himself with opinions which he has not thoroughly reflected upon in his bolitary hours. Combealand.
Within an ancient forest's ample verge
There stands a lonely, but a healthful dwelling, Built for convenience, and the use of life. Rowe.

## ALSO, LIKEWISE, TOO.

ALSO, compounded of all and so, sig. nifies literally all in the same manner. LIKEWISE, compounded of like and wise, or manner, signifies inlike manner. TOO, a variation of the numeral two, signifies
what may be added or joined to another thing from its similarity.

These adverbial expressions obviously convey the same idea of including or classing certain objects together upon a supposed ground of affinity. Also is a more general term, and has a more comprehensive meaning, as it implies a sameness in the whole; likewise is more spocific and limited in its acceptation; too is still more limited than either, and refers only to a single object. "He also was among the number," may convey the idea of totality both as respects the person and the event: "he writes likewise a very tine hand," conveys the idea of similar perfection in his writing as in other qualifications: "he said so too," signifies he said so in addition to the others; "he said it likewise," would imply that he said the same thing, or in the same manner.

Let us only think for a little of that reproach of moderri times, that gulf of time and fortune, the passion for galning, which is so often the refuge of the idle sons of pleasure, and often also the last resource of the ruined

Brain.
Long life is of all others the most general, and seemingly the most innocent object of desire. With respect to this, too, we so frequently err, that it would have been a blessing to many to have had their wish denied.

Blatr.
All the duties of a daughter, a sister, a wite, and a mother may he well performed, though a lady should not be the finest woman at an opera. They are likeweise consistent with a moderate share of wit, a plain dress, and a modest air.

Steele.

## ALWAYS, AT ALL TLMES, EVER.

ALWAYS, compounded of all and ways, is the same as, under all circumstances, through all the ways of life, that is, uninterruptedly. AT ALL TIMES means without distinction of time. EVER implies for a perpetuity, without end. A man must be always virtuous, that is, whether in adversity or prosperity; and at all times virtuous, that is, in his going in and coming out, his rising up and his lying down, by day and by night; he will then be ever bappy, that is, in this life and the life to come.

Human life never stands still for any long time. It is by no means a fixed and steady object, like the mountain or the rock, which you alcays find in the same situation. Blatr.
Among all the expressions of good-nature, I shall single ont that which goes under the general name of charity as it cousists in religying

## AMBIGUOUS

the indigent; that being a trial of this kind which offers itself to us almost at all times, and in every place.

Adoison.
Have you forgotten all the blessings you have continued to enjoy, ever since the day that you came forth a helpless infant into the world?

Blair.

## AMBASSADOR, ENVOY, PLENLPOTENTIARY, DEPUTY.

AMBASSADOR is supposed to come from the low Latin ambasciator, a waiter, although this does not accord with the high station which ambassadors have always held. ENVOY, from the French envoyer, to send, signifies one sent. PLENIPOTENTIARY, from the Latiu plenus and potens, signifies one invested with full powers. DEPUTY signifies one deputed.
Ambassadors, envoys, and plenipotentiaries speak and act in the name of their sovereigns, with this difference, that the first is invested with the highest authorits, acting in all cases as the representative; the second appears only as a simple authorized minister acting for another, but not always representing him ; the third la a species of envoy used by courts only on the occasion of concluding peace or making treaties: deputies are not deputed by sovereigns, although they may be deputed to sovereigns; they have no power to act or speak but in the name of some subordinate community or particular body. The functions of the three first belong to the minister, those of the latter to the agent.

An ambassador is a resident in a conntry during a state of peace; he must maintain the dignity of his court by a suitable degree of splendor: an envoy may be a resident, hut he is more commonly employed on particular occasions; address in negotiating forms an essential in his character: a plenipotentiary is not so much connected with the court immediately, as with persons in the same capacity with himself; he requires to have integrity, coolness, penetration, lovalty, and patriotism. A deputy has little or no responsibility, and still less intercourse with those to whon he is deputed; he needs no more talent than is sufficient to maintain the respectability of his own character, and that of the body to which he belongs.

Prior continned to act witbout a title till tho Duke of Shrewsbury returned next year to Eagland, and then he assumed the style and digoity of an ambassador.

JOHNSON.
We hear from Rome, by letters dated the 20th of April, that the Count de Melhos, envoy from the King of Portugal, had made his public entry into that city with much state and magaificence.

Tather.
The conferences began at Utrecht on the 1st of January, 1711-12, and the English plenipotern. tiaries arrived on the 15th.

Johnson.
They add that the deputies of the Swiss cantons were returned from soleure, where they were assembled at the instance of the French ambassador.

Steele.

## ambiguous, Equivocal.

AMBIGUOUS, in Latin ambiguus, from ambigo, compounded of ambo and ago, signifies acting both ways, or having two meanings. EQUIVOCAL, in French équivoque, Latin equivocus, composed of equus and vox, signifies a word to be applied equally to two or more different objects.
An ambiguity arises from a too general form of expression, which leaves the sense of the author indeterminate; an equivocation lies in the power of particular terms used, which admit of a double interpretation, or an application to two different things: the ambiguity leaves us in entire incertitude as to what is meant; the equivocation misleads us in the use of a term in the sense which we do not suspect.

The parliament of England is without comparison the most volnminous anthor in the world, and there is such a happy ambiguity in 1ts works, that its students have as much to say on the wrong side of every question as upon the right.

Cumberland.
Give a man all that is in the power of the world to bestow, but leave him at the same time under some secret oppression or heaviness of heart; yon bestow indeed the materials of enjoyment, but you deprive him of the ability to extract it. Hence prosperity is so often an equivocal word, denoting merely afluence of possession, but unjustly applied to the possessor.

Blair.
The ambiguity may be unintentional, arising from the nature both of the words and the things; or it may be employed to withhold information respecting our views; the equivocation is always intentional, and may be employed for purposes of fraud. The histories of heathen nations are full of confusion and ambiguity: the heathen oracles are mostly veiled by some equivocation; of this we have a re
markable instance in the oracle of the Persian mule, by which Croesus was misled.

An honest man will never employ an equivocal expression; a confused man may often utter ambiguous ones without any design.

Blair.
We tnake use of an equivocation to deceive; of an ambiguity to keep in the dark. Trualer.

Shakspeare is not long soft and pathetic, without some idle conceit or contemptible equivocafion.

Johnaon.
TO AMEND, CORRECT, EMEND, IMPROVE, MEND, BETTER.
AMEND and EMEND, in Latin emen$d o$, from menda, the fault of a transcriber, signifies to remove faults generally. MEND, which is a contraction of amend, is similar in sense, but different in application. CORRECT, from cor or cum and rego, to regulate, signifies to set right in a particnlar manner. IMPROVE, from probus, signifies, like the word BETTER, literally to make better.

To amend, emend, correct, and mend, imply the removing of an evil; improve aod better, the increase of good. Amend, emend, and correct, are all applied to works of the understanding, with this distinction, that amend signifies to remove faults or defects generally, either by adding, taking away, or altering, as to amend a law, to amend a passage in a book; this is the work of the anthor, or some one acting for him: to emend is to remove particular faults in any literary work by the alteration of letters or single words; this is the work of the critic : to correct is to remove gross fanlts, as to corroct the press.
They (the Presbyterians) excepted many parts of the offlce of baptism that import the in ward regeneration of all that were baptized. But as they proposed these amendments, so they did offer a liturgy new drawn up by Mr. Baxter.

Burnet.
That useful part of learning which consists in emendations, knowledge of different readings, and the like, is what, in all ages, persona extremely wise and learned have had in great veneration.

ADDIson.
I have undertaken to correct every sheet as it cames from the press.

Amend and correct may be applied to moral objects with a similar distinction.

The interest which the corrupt part of mankind bave in hardening themselves against every mo-
tive to amendment has disposed them to give to contradictions, when they can be produced against the cause of virtae, that weight which they will not allow them in any other case. Johnson.

Presumption will be easily corrected; but timidity is a disease of the mind more obstinate and fatal.

Jounson.
Mend is employed in respect to any works in the sense of putting that right which either is or bas become fanlty. It is a term in ordinary use, but may be employed in the bigher style.

## The wise for cure on exercise depend, God never made his work for man to mend.

Dayden.
To improve is said either of persons or things which are made better; as to improve the mind, morals, etc. : to better is mostly applied to the outward condition on familiar occasions.

While a man, infatuated with the promises of greatness, wastes his hours and days in attendance and solicitation, the honest opportunities of improving his condition pass by without his notice.

ADDIson.
I then bettered my condition a little, and lived a whole summer in the ahape of a bee.

AdDison.

## AMLABLE, LOVELY, BELOVED.

AMIABLE, in Latin amabilis, from amo and habilis, signifies fit to be loved. LOVELY, compounded of love and $l y$, or like, signifies like that which we love, fit to produce love. BELOVED signifies having or receiving love.

The two first express the fitness of an object to awaken the sentiment of love: the former by spiritual qualities, the latter by personal attractions. One is amiable from the qualities of the heart.
If these charms (of person and voice) had been mited to the qualities of a modest and amiahle mind, she most have made dreadful havoc in the world.

Brydone.
So also it is said of things personibed.
Tully has a very beautiful gradation of thnughts to show how amiable virtue is. "We love a virtuous man,"'says he, "who lives injthe remotest parts of the earth, although we are altogether out of the reach of his virtue, and can receive from it no manner of benefit."

Addiaon.
One has a lovely person, or is lovely in one's person.
Alive, the crooked hand of age had marr'd Those lonely features which cold death had spar'd.

Wallez

It may be applied to the attractions of other objects besides those of the person.

Sweet Auburn, loveliest village of the plain.
Goldsmitu.
Beloved denotes the state of being loved, or being the object of love, which may arise from being amiable or lovely, or from other causes. Both persons and things may be beloved.

Sorrow would be a rarity most belov'd If all could so become it.

Shakspeatie.

## AMICABLE, FRIENDLY.

AMICABLE, from amicus, a friend, signifies able or fit for a friend. FRIEND. LY signifies like a friend. The word amicus likewise comes from amo, to love, and friend, in the Northern languages, from fregan, to love. Amicable and friendly, therefore, both denote the tender sentiment of good-will which all men ought to bear one to another; but amicable rather implies a negative sentiment, a freedom from discordance; and friendly a positive feeling of regard, the absence of indifference. We make an amicable accommodation, and a friendly visit. It is a happy thing when people who have been at variance can amicably adjust all their disputes. Nothing adds more to the charms of society than a friendly correspondence. Amicable is always said of persons who have been in connection with each other; friendly may be applied to those who are perfect strangers. Neighbors must always endeavor to live amicably with each other. Travellers should always endeavor to keep up a friendly intercourse with the inhabitants wherever they come.

What first presents itself to be recommended is a disposition averse to offence, and desirous of cultivating harmony and amicable intercourse in society.

Blatr.
Who slake his thirst-who spread the friendly board,
To give the famish'd Belisarius food?
Phillifs.
The abstract terms of the preceding qualities admit of no variation but in the signification of friendship, which marks an individual feeling only. To live amicably, or in amity with all men, is a point of Christian dnty, but we cannot live in friendship with all men; since friendship
must be confined to a few: so vations may be in amity, though not on terms of friendship with each other.
Beasts of eacb kind their fellow spare; Bear lives in amity with bear. Jonnson.
Every man might, in the nultitodes that swarm about him, find some kindred mind with which he could unite in confidence and friendship.

JOHnson.

## AMOROUS, LOVING, FOND.

AMOROUS, from amor, and the ending, ous, which designates abundance, signifies full of love. LOVING signifies the act of loving, that is, continually loving. FOND, from the Saxon fundan, and the German finden, which signify either to seek or find. Hence fond signifies long. ing for or eagerly attached to.

These epithets are all used to mark the excess or distortion of a tender sentiment. Amorous is taken in a criminal sense, loving and fond in a contemptuous sense: an indiscriminate and dishonorable attachment to the fair sex characterizes the amorous man ; an overweening and childish attachment to any object marks the loving and fond person. Loving is less dishonorable than fond: men may be lov. ing; children and brutes may be fond. Those who have not a well-regulated affection for each other will be loving by fits and starts; children and animals who have no control over their appetites will be apt to be fond to those who indulge them. An amorous temper should be suppressed; a loving temper should be regulated; a fond temper should be checked.

I shall range all old amorous dotards under the denomination of grinners.

SteEle.
So loving to my mother
That he would not let even the winds of heav'n
Visit her too rouglily.
Sharspeare.
I'm a foolish fond wife.
Admison.
When taken generally, loving and foru may be used in a good or indifferent sense.

This place may seem for shepherds' leisure made, So lovingly these elms nnite their shade.

Pililifps.
My impatience for your return, my anxiety for your welfare, and my fomfness for my dear Uyss ses, were the only distempers that preyed upon my life.

Addison.

## AMUSE

## AMPLE, BPACIOUS, CAPACIOUS.

AMPLE, in French amplc, Latin amplus, probably comes from the Greek $\alpha v a \pi \lambda \varepsilon \omega \mathrm{~s}$, full. SPACIOUS, in French spacieux, Latin spaciosus, comes from spatium, a space, implying the quality of having space. CAPACIOUS, in Latin eapax, from capio, to hold, signifies the quality of being able to hold.

These epithets convey the analogous ideas of extent in quantity, and extent in space. Ample is figuratively employed for whatever is extended in quantity; spacious is literally used for whatever is extended in space; capacious is literally and figuratively employed to express extension in both quantity and space. Stores are ample, room is ample, an allowance is ample: a room, a house, or a garden is spacious: a vessel or hollow of any kind is capacious; the soul, the mind, and the heart are capacious. Ample is opposed to scanty, spacious to narrow, capacious to small. What is ample suffices and satiafies; it imposes no constraint: what is spacious is free and open; it does not confine: what is capacious readily receives and contains ; it is liberal and generous. Although sciences, aיts, philosophy, and languages afford to the inass of mankind ample scope for the excreise of their mental powers without recurring to mysterious or fanciful researches, yet this world is hardly spacious enough for the range of the intellectual faculties: the capacious minds of some are no less capable of containing than they are disposed for receiving whatever spiritual good is offered them.
The pure consciousness of worthy actions, $a b-$ stracted from the views of popular applanse, is to - generous mind an ample reward. Hughes.

These mighty monarchies, that had o'erspread
The spacious earth, and stretch'd their conqu'ring arms
From pole to pole, by ensnaring charms Were quite consumed.

May.
Down sunk, a hollow bottom broad and deep,
Capacious bed of waters.
Militon.

## to amuse, divert, entertain.

To AMUSE is to occupy the mind lightly, from the Latin musa, a song, signifying to allure the attention by anything as light and airy as a song. DIVERT, in French divertir, Latin diverto, is compounded of
$d i$ and verto, to turn aside, signifying to turn the mind aside from an ohject. ENTERTAIN, in French entretenir, com. pounded of entre, inter, and tenir, teneo, to keep, signifies to keep the mind fixed on a thing.

We amuse or entertain by engaging the attention on some present occupation; we divert by drawing the attention from a present object; all this proceeds by meane of that pleasure which the object produces, which in the first case is less vivid than in the second, and in the second case is less durable than in the thid. Whatever amuses serves to kill time, to lull the faculties and banish reflection; it may be solitary, sedentary, and lifeless: whatever diverts causcs mirth and provokes langhter; it will be active, lively, and tumultuous: whatever entertains acts on the senses, and awakens the understanding; it must be rational, and is mostly social. The bare act of walking and changing place may amuse; the tricks of animals divert; conversation entertains. We sit down to a card-table to be amused; we go to a comedy or pantomime to be diverted; we go to a tragedy to be entertained. Children are amused with looking at pictures: ignorant people are $d i$. verted with ahows; intelligent people are entertained with reading. The dullest and most vacant minds may be amused; the most volatile are diverted; the most reflective are entertained: the emperor Do mitian amused himself with killing Gies; the emperor Nero diverted himself with appearing before his subjects in the characters of gladiator and charioteer; Soc. rates entertained himself by discoursing on the day of his execution with his friends on the immortality of the soul.

I yesterday passed a whole afternoon in the church-yard, the cloisters, and the church, anuusing myself with the tombstones and inscriptions that I met with in those several regions of the dead.

Addison
His diversion on this occasion was to see the cross-hows, mistaken signs, and wrong conni vances that passed amidst so many broken and refracted rays of light.

Addison
The one entertained me with her vivacity when I was gay, the other with her sense when I was serious.

Goldsmita.

## TO AMUSE, BEGUILE.

As AMDSE ( $v$. Amuse, divert) denotes the occupation of the mind, so BEGUILE

## ANECDOTE

compounded of be and guile, signifying to overreach with guile, expresses an effect or consequence of amusement. When amuse and beguile express any specics of deceptinn, the furmer indicates what is effected by persons, and the latter that which is effected by things. The first is a fraud upon the understanding; the second is a fraud upon the memory and consciousness. We are amused by a false story; our misfortunes are beguiled by the charms of fiue music or fine scenery. To suffer one's self to he amused is an act of weakness; to be beguiled ls a relief and a privilege. Credulous people are easily amused by any idle tale, and thus prevented from penetrating the designs of the artful; weary travellers beguile the tedium of the journey by lively conversation.
In latter ages plous frands were made use of to amuse manktnd.

Admson.
With seeming innocence the crowd befuild,
But made the desperate passes when he smild.
Ditiden.

## hMUSEMENT, ENTERTAINMENT, DIVERSION, SPORT, RECREATION, PASTIME.

AMUSEMENT signifles here that Thich serves to amuase ( $v$. To amuse, divert). ENTERTAINMENT, that which serves to entertain (v. To amuse). DIVERSION, that which serves to dinert (v. To anmuse, diver.). SPORT, that which serves to give sport. RECREATION, that which serves to recreate, from recreatus, particlple of rectreo, or re and creo, to create or make alive again. PASTIME, that whleh serves to pass fime.

The four first of these terms are either applicd to objects which specifically serve the purposes of pleasure, or to such objects as may aceldentally serve these purposes; the two last terms are employed only in the latter sense. The distinction between the three first terms is very similar in this as in the preceding case. Amusement is a general term, which comprehends little more than the common idea of pleasurc, whether small or $p$ reat; entertainment is a species of amuwment which is always more or less of an 17 tel lectual nature; diversions and sports are a species of amusements more adapte to the young and the active, particularly the latter: the thatre or the concert is an
entertainment: fairs and public exhibi tions are diversions: games of racing on cricket, hunting, shooting, and the like, are sports.

As Atlas groan'd
The world beneath, we groan beneatl an bour:
We cry for mercy to the next amusement.
The next amusement mortgages our fields.
Youno
The stage might be made a perpetual source of the most noble and useful ontertainmente, were it under proper regulations. ADDIsoit,

When I was some years younger than I am at present, I used to employ myself in a more lahb riuns diversion, which I learned from a Latin treatise of exercises that is written with great erudition; it is there called the oxtopuxta, or the lighting with a man's own shadow.

Abdison,
With great respect to country sports, I may say this gentleman could pass his time agreeably if there were not a fox or a hare in his county.

Steele.
Recreation and pastime are terms of relative import: the former is of use for those who labor; the latter for those who are idle. A recreation must partake more or less of the nature of an amuse. ment, but it is an occupation which owes its pleasure to the relaxation of the mind from severe exertion: in this manner gardening may be a recreation to one who studies; company is recreation to a man of business; the pastime is the amuse ment of the leisure hour; it may be alternately a diversion, a sport, or a simple amusement, as circumstances require.

> Pleasure and recreation of one kind or othen are absolutely necessary to relleve our minds and bodies from too constant attention and labor: where therefore putlic diversions are tolerated. it behnoves persons of distinction, with their power and example, to preside over them. Stesle.

> Your micrabcope brings to sight shoals of living creatures in a spoonful of vinegar; but we, who can distinguish them in their different magnitudes, see among them several huge leviathans that terrify the little fry of animals about them, and take their pastime as in an ocean.

ADDIGOM.

## ANECDOTE, STORY.

An ANECDOTE ( $v$. Anecdotes) has but little incident, and no plot; a STORY (which, like history, comes from the Greek coropew, to relate) may have many incidents, and an important catastrophe annexed to it: anecdotes are related of individuals, some of which are of a trifling nature, and others characteristic; stories are generally told to young people of
ghoats and viaions, which are calculated to act on their fears. An anecdote is pleasiog and pretty; a story is frightful or melancholy; an anecdote always consiats of some matter of fact; a atory is sometimes founded on that which is real. Anecdotes are related of some diatinguished persons, displaying their charactera or the circumstances of their lives: stories from life, however atriking and wonderful, will seldom impress so powerfully as these which are drawn from the world of spirits: anecdotes serve to amuse men, stories to amuse children.
How admirably Rapin, the most popular among the French critics, was qualifed to ait in Judgment upon Homer and Thucydides, Demosthenes and Plato, may be gathered from on anscatate preserved by Menage, who affirms upoa his own knowledge that Le Fevre and Soumur furnished this assuming critic with the Greek passages which he had to cite, Rapin himself being totally 'gnorant of that lenguage.

Warton.
This story I once intended to omit, as it appeare with no great evidence: nor have I met with any confirmation but in a letter of Farquhar, and he only relatea that the funeral of Dryden ras tumultuary and confused.

Johnson.

## aNECDOTES, MEMOIRS, CHRONICLERG, ANNALS.

ANECDOTE, from the Greek avenjorog, signlfies what is communicated in a prlvate way. MEMOIRS, in French memoires, from the word memory, signilies what serves to help the memory. OHRONICLE, in French chronique, from the Greek $x$ povos, time, signifies an acsount of the times. ANNALS, from the French annales, from the Latin annus, aignifies a detail of what passes in the rear.

All these terms mark a species of narrative, more or less connected, that may serve as materials for a regular history. Anecdotes consist of personal or detached circumatances of a public or private nature, involving one subject or more. Anecdotes may be either moral or political, literary or biographical; they may serve as characteristias of any individual, or of any partionlar nation or age. Memoirs may include anecdotes, as far as they are connected with the leading subject on which they treat: memoirs are rather connected than complete; they are a partial narrative respecting an individual, comprehending matter of a public or pri-
vate nature; they serve as memoriale of what ought not to be forgotten, and lay the foundation either for a history or a life.
I allude to those papers in whlch I treat of the 1 literature of the Greeks, carrying down my history in a chain of anecdotes from the earliest poets to the death of Menender. Cumberland.
Cæsar givea us nothing but memoirg of his own life.

Cnllen.
Chronicles and annals are altogetber of a public nature; and approach the nearest to regular and genuine biatory. Chronicles regiater the events as they pass; annals digeat them into order, aa they occur in the course of aucceasive yeara. Chronicles' are minute as to the exact point of time; annals only preserve a general order within the period of a year. Chronicles detail the events of small as well as large commnaities, as of particular districts and eltiea; annals detail only the events of nations. Chronicles include domestic incidents, or auch things aa concern individuala; the word annald, ln its proper sense, relates only to suoh things as affect the great bedy of the publio, but lt is frequently emploged in an improper senae. Chronicles may be confined to simple matter of faet; annals may anter into the causes and consequences of events.
His eye was so plercing that, as ancient ohrontoles report, he could hlunt the weapons of hls enemies only by looking at them. JoHNaON.
Could you with patience hear, or I relate,
o nymphi the tedious annals of our fate, Through such a train of woes if I ahould run, The day would sooner then the tale be done.

Dryden.

## ANGER, RESENTMENT, WRATH, IRE, INDIGNATION.

ANGER comes from the Latin angor, vexation, ango, to vex, compounded of an or $a d$, against, and ago, to act. RESENTMENT, in French ressentiment, from ressentir, is compounded of re and sentir, signifying to feel again, over and over, or for a continuance. WRATH and IRE are derived from the same source, namely, wrath, in Saxon wrath, and ire, in Latin ira, anger, Greek epes, contention, all which spring from the Hebrew herah, or cherah, heat or anger. INDIGNATION. in French indignation, in Latin indignatio, from indignor, to think or feel unworthy
marks the strong feeling which base conduct or unworthy treatment awakens in the mind.

An impatient agitation against any one who acts contrary to our inclinations or opinions is the characteristic of all these terms. Resentment is less vivid than anger, and anger than wrath, ire, or indig. nation. Anger is a sudden sentiment of displeasure; resentment is a continued nger; wrath is a heightened sentiment of angor, which is poetically expressed by the word ire. Anger may be either a selfish or a disinterested passion, it may oe provoked by injuries done to ourselves, or injustice done to others: in this latter sense of strong displeàsure God is angry with sinners, and good men may to a certain degree be angry with those under their control who act improperly. Resentment is a brooding sentiment altogether arising from a sense of personal injury; it is associated with a dislike of the offender, as much as the offence, and is diminished only by the infliction of pain in retorn; in its rise, progress, and effects, it is alike opposed to the Christian spirit. Wrath and ire are the sentiment of a superio toward an inferior, and when provoked by personal injuries discovers itself by haughtiness and a vindictive temper: as a sentiment of displeasure, wrath is unjustifiable between man and men; but the wrath of God may be provoked by the persevering impenitence of sinners: the ire of a heathen god, according to the gross views of Pagans, was but the wrath of man associated with greater power ; it was altogether unconnected with moral displeasure. Indignation is a sentiment awakened by the unworthy and atrocions conduct of others; as it is exempt from personality, it is not irreconcilable with the temper of a Christian : a warmth of constitution sometimes gives rise to sallies of anger; but depravity of heart breeds resentment; unbending pride is a great source of wrath: but indignation may flow from a high sense of honor and virtue.

Moralists have defined anger to be a desire of revenge for some injury offered. STEEI.E.

The temperately revengeful have leisure to woigh the merits of the canse; and thereby either to smother their secret resentments, or to seek adequate reparations for the damages they have sustained.

Steele.

Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring
Of woes unnumber'd, Heavenly Goddess sing.

## Pope

The prophet spoke: when with a gloomy frown The monarch started from his shining throne; Black choler fill'd his breast that hoil'd with ire And from his eyehalls flash'd the living fire.

## Popg.

It is surely not to he ohserved without indig. nation that men may be fonnd of minds mean enongh to he satisfied with this treatment; wretches who are prond to ohtain the privileges of madmen.

Johnsom

## anger, Choler, Rage, fury.

ANGER, s. Anger, resentment. CHOL ER, in French colere, Latin cholera, Greek $\chi^{0} \lambda \varepsilon \rho \circ \mathrm{~s}$, comes from $\chi^{0} \lambda \eta$, bile, because the overflowing of the bile is both the cause and consequence of choler. RAGE, in French rage, Latin rabies, madness; and rabio, to rave like a madman, comes from the Hebrew ragaz, to tremble or shake with a violent madness. FURY, in French furze, Latin furor, comes prob. ably from fero, to carry away, because one is carried or hurried away by the emotions of fury.

These words have a progressive force in their signification. Choler expresses something more sudden and virulent than anger; rage is a vehement ebullition of anger; and fury is an excess of rage. Anger may be so stifled as not to discover itself by any outward symptoms; choler is discoverable by the paleness of the visage; rage breaks forth into extravagant expressions and violent distortions; fury takes away the use of the understanding. Anger is an infirm. ity incident to human nature; it ought, however, to be suppressed on all occasions: choler is a malady too physical to be always corrected by reflection: rage and fury are distempers of the soul, which nothing but religion and the grace of God can cure.
The maxim which Periander of Corinth, one of the seven sages of Greece, left as a menorial of his knowledge and benevolence, was xo八ov кратєt be master of thy anger.

Johnson
Must I give way to your rash choler?
Shall I be frighted when a madman stares?
Shakspeare
Oppose not rage while rage is in its force, But give it way awhile, aod let it waste.

Shakspeare.
Of this kind is the fury to which many men give way among their servants and dependents.

Johnson.

## ANGRY, PASSIONATE, HASTY.

ANGRY signifies either having anger, or prove to anger. PASSIONATE siguifies prone to passion. HASTY signifies prone to excess of haste from intemperate feeling.

Angry denotes either a particular state or a habit of the mind; passionate expresses a habit of the mind; hastiness is mostly a temporary feeling. An angry man is in a state of anger; a passionate man is habitually prove to be passionate. The angry has less that is veliement and impetuous in it than the passionate; the hasty has something less vehement, but more sudden and ahrupt in it than either. The angry man is not always easily provoked, nor ready to retaliate: but he often retains his anger until the cause is removed: the passionate man is quickly roused, eager to repay the offence, and speedily appeased by the infliction of pain of which he afterward probably repents: the hasty man is very soon offended, but not ready to offend in return; his angry sentiment spends itself in angry words.
It is told hy Prior, in a panegyric on the Duke of Dorset, that his servauts used to put themselves in his way when he was angry, because he was sure to recompense thein for any indignities which lie made them suffer. Jounson.

There is in the world a certain class of mortals known, and contentedly known by the name of passionate men, who imarine themselves entitled by that distinction to be provid.en on every slight occasion.

Johnson.
The king, who saw their squadrons yet unmov'd, With hasty ardor thus the chiefs reprov'd.

Pope.
ANIMADVERSION, CRITICISM, STRICTURE.
ANIMADVERSION, in Latin animadversio, from animadvertere, that is, vertere animum ad, signifies to turn the mind to a thing. CRITICISM, in French eritique, Latin eviticus, Greek крıтькos, from $\kappa \rho \iota \nu \omega$, to judge, signifies by distinction a judg. ment in literary matters. STRICTURE, in Latin strictura, a glance at auything, comes from stringo, to touch upon lightly or in few words.

Animadversion includes censure and reproof; eriticism implics scrutiny and judgment, whether for or against; and atricture comprehends a partial investi-
gation mingled with censure. We anı madvert on a persou's opinions by contradicting or correcting them; we criti cise a person's works by minutely and rationally exposing their imperfections and beauties; we pass strictures on pub lic measures by descanting on them cur sorily, and censuring them partially. An imadversions are too personal to be im partial, consequently they are seldom just; they are mostly resorted to by those who want to build up one systew on the ruins of another : criticism is one of the most important and honorable departments of literature; a critic ought justly to weigh the merits and demerits of anthors, but of the two his office is rather to blame than to praise; much less injury will accrue to the cause of literature from the severity than from the laxity of criticism: strictures are mostly the vehicles of party spleen; like most ephemeral productions, they are too superficial to be entitled to serious notice.
These things fall under a province you have partly pursued already, and therefore demand your animadversion for the regulating so 10 ble an eutertainment as that of the stage.

Steele.
Just criticism demands not only that every beauty or blemish be minntely pointed out in its different degree and kind, but also that the reason and foundation of excellences and fanlta be accurately ascertained.

Warton
To the end of most of the plays I have added short strictures, containing a general censure of faults or praise of excellenee.

Johngon.

## ANIMAL, BRUTE, BEAST.

ANIMAL, in French animal, Latin animal, from anima, life, signifies the thing having life. BRUTE is in French brute, Latin brutus, dull, Greek $\beta$ apvins, Chaldee barout, foolishness. BEAST, in French bête, Latin bestia, changed from bostirma, Greek $\beta_{0 \sigma \kappa \eta \mu a}$, a beast of burden, and $\beta 0 \sigma \kappa \omega$, to feed, signifies properly the thing that feeds.

Animal is the generic, brute and beast are the specific terms. The animal is ths thirg that lives and moves. If animal be considered as thinkiog, willing, reflecting, add acting, it is confined in its signification to the human species ; if it be regarded as limited in all the func. tions which mark intelligence and will, if it be divested of speech and reason

It belongs to the brute; if animal be considered, moreover, as to its appetites, independent of reason, of its destlnation, and consequent dependence on its mental powers, it descends to the beast. Man and brute are opposed. To man an immortal soul is assigned; but we are not authorized by Scripture to extead this dignity to the brutes. "The brutes that perish" is the ordinary mode of distin. guishing that part of the animal creation from the superior order of terrestrial beings who are destined to exist in a future world. Animal, when applied to man individually, is a term of reproach; the epithets brute and beast are still stronger terms of reproach, the perversion of the rational faculty being at all times more shocking and disgraceful than the absence of it by nature.
Some would be apt to say, he is a conjurer; for he has found that a republic is not made up of every body of animals, but is composed of men only, and not of horses.

Steele.
As nature has framed the several species of beings, as it were, in a chain, so man seems to be placed as the middle link between angels and brutes.

Addison.
Whom e'en the savage beasts had spar'd, they kill'd,
And strew'd his mangled limbs about the field.
Driden.

## TO ANIMATE, INSPIRE, ENLIVEN, CHEER, EXHILARATE.

ANIMATE, in Latin animatus, from ansmus, the mind, and anima the soul or vital principle, sigaifies in the proper sense to give life, and in the moral sense to give spirit. INSPIRE, in French inspirer, Latin $i$ spiro, compounded of in and spiro, signifies to breathe life or spirit into any one. ENLIVEN, from en or in and liven, has the same sense. OHEER, in French chère, Flemish cière, the countenance, Greek xapa, joy, signifies the giving joy or spirit. EXRILAARATE, io Latin exhilaratus, participle of exhilaro, from hilaris, Greek inapog, joyful, Hebrew oilen', to exult or leap for joy, signifies to make glad.

Animate and inspive imply the communication of the vital or mental spark; enliven, cheer, and exhilarate, signify actions on the mind or body. To be animated in its physical sense is simply to receive the first spark of animal life in
however small a degree; for there are animated beings in the world possessing the vital power in an infinite variety of degrees and forms: to be animated in the moral sense is to receive the smallest portion of the sentient or thinking faculty, which is equally varied in thinking beings; the term animation, therefore, taken absolutely, never conveys the idea of receiving any strong degree of either physical or moral feeling. To inspire, on the contrary, expresses the communication of a stroag moral seotiment or passion: heoce, to animate with courage is a less forcible expression than to in spire with courage: we likewise speak of inspiring with emulation or a thirst for knowledge; not of animating with emu. lation or a thirst for knowledge. To enliven respects the miad; cheer relates to the heart ; exhilarate regards the spirits, both animal and mental; they all denote an action on the frame by the communication of pleasurable emotions: the mind is enlivened by contemplating the scenes of oature; the imagioation is enlivened by reading poetry; the benevolent heart is cheered by witnessing the happiness of others; the spirits are exhilarated by the convivialities of social life: conversation enlivens society; the conversation of a kind and considerate friend cheers the drooping spirits in the moments of trouble; unexpected good nows is apt to exhilarate the spirits.

## Through subterranean cells,

Where searching sunbeams scarce can find $\alpha$ way,
Earth animated heaves.
Thomson.
Each gentle breast with kindly warmth she moves,
Intpires new flames, revives extinguished loves.
Dryden.
To grace each subject with onlivening wit.
Addison.
Every eye bestows the cheering look of ap. probation upor the humble man. Combsaland. Nor ctural sights alote, but rural sounds Exhilurate the spirit. 1 Cowpek

## ANIMATION, LIFE, VIVACITY, SPIRIT.

ANIMATION and LIFE do not differ cither in sense or application, but the latter is more in familiar use. They express either the particular or general state of the mind. VIVACITY and SPIRIT express only the habitual nature and state of the feelings.

A person of no animation is divested of the distinguishing characteristic of his nature, which is mind: a person of no vivacity is a dull companion ; a person of no spirit is unfit to associate with others. A person with animation takes an interest in everything; a vivacious man catches at, everything that is pleasant and interesting: a spirited man onters into plans, makes great exertions, and disregards difficulties. A speaker may address his audience with more or less animation, according to the disposition in which ho finds it: a man of a vivacious temper diffuses his vivacity into all his words and actions ; a man of spirit suits his measures to the exigency of his circumstances.

The British Lave a lively, animated aspect. Steele.
The very dead creation from thy toneh Assumes a mimic life.

Thomson on the Power of the Sun.
His vivacity is seen in doing all the offices of life with readiness of spirit, and propriety in the manner of doing them.

Steele.
As full of spirit as the month of May.
Sharbpeare.

## TO ANNOUNCE, PROCLAIM, PUBLISH.

ANNOUNCE, in Latin annuncio, is compounded of an or ad and nuncio, to tell to any one in a particular manner. PROCLAIM, in Latin proclamo, is compounded of pro and clamo, to ory before, or ory alond. PUBLISH, in Latin publico, from publicus and populus, signifies to make public or known to the people at large.
The characteristic sense of these words is the making of a thlng known to numbers of individuals: a thlog is announced in a formal manner to many or few; it is proclaimed to a neighborhood; and published to the world. We announce an event that is expected and just at hand; we proclaim an event that requires to be known hy all the parties interested; we publish what is supposed likely to interest all who know it. Announcements are made verbally, or by some well-known signal; proclamations are made verbally, and accompanied by some appointed signal; publications are ordinarily made through the press, or by oral communication from one individual to another. The arrival of a distinguished person is announced by the ringing of the bells;
the proclamation of peace by a herald to accompanisd wlth certain ceremonies cat culated to excite notice; the publication of news is the office of the journalist.

We might with as much reason doubt whether the sun was intended to enlighten the earth, as whether He who has framed the human mind intended to anozounoe righteousness to mankind as a law.

Blaik.
But witness, heralds ! and proclaim my vow, Witness to gods above, and men below. Pope.
It very often happens that none are more industrious in publishing the blemishes of an extraordinary reputation, than auch as lie open to the same censures in their own character.

ADDIBON.

## ANSWER, REPLY, REJOINDER, RESPONSE.

ANSWER, in Saxon andswaren and varan, Goth. award andword, German antwort, compounded of an, ant, or anti, against, or for, and wort, a word, signifies a word used against or in return for another. REPLY comes from the French repliquer, Latin replico, to unfold, signifying to unfold or enlarge upon by way of explanation. REJOIN is compounded of $x e$ and join, signifying to join or add in return. RESPONSE, in Latin respon. sus, participle of respondeo, compounded of $r e$ and spondeo, signifies to declare or give a sanction to in return.

Under all these terms is included the idea of using words in return for other words, or returning a sound for a sound. An answer is givon to a question; a reply is mads to an assertion; a rejonder is made to a reply; a response is made in accordance with the words of another. We answer either for the purpose of af firmation, information, or contradictlon; we always reply, or rejoin, in order to ex. plain or confute: responses are made by way of assent or confirmation. It is unpolite not to answer when we are adn dressed: arguments are maintained by the altornate replies and rejoinders of two parties; but such argumeots seldom tend to the pleasure and improvement of society; the responses in the Liturgy are peculiarly calculated to keep alive the attention of those who take a part in the devation.

This, as it was directed to none of the company in partioular, none thought himself obliged tu anower.


He again took some time to consider, and civilly replied "I do."-"If you do agree with me," rejoined 1 , "in acknowledging the complaint, tell me if you will concur in promoting the cure."

Cumberland.
All the people anciently were allowed to join In psalmody and prayers, and make their proper - esponses.

Bingham: Ecolesiastical Antiquities.
An answer may be eitber spoken or written, or delivered in any manner; reply and rejoinder are used in personal discourse only: a response may be said or sung, or delivered in a formal manner.

He seems
A melancholy messenger-for when lask'd
What news? his answer was a far-fetch'd sigh. Shakspeare.
Lacedæmon, always disposed to control the growing consequence of her neighbors, and sensible of the bad policy of her late measures, had opened her eyes to the folly of expelling flippias on the forged responses of the Pythia.

Cumberland.
Animals as well as men may give answers or make responses, though not replies or rejoinders.

The blackbird whistles from the thorny brake, The mellow bullfinch anszoers from the grove.

Thomson.
Loose fly his forelock and his ample mane,
Responsive to the distant neigh he neighs.
Cowper.

## ANSWERABLE, RESPONSIBLE, ACCOUNTABLE, AMENABLE.

ANSWERABLE, from answer, signifies ready or able to answer for. RESPONSIBLE, from respondeo, to answer, has a similar meaning in its original sense. ACCOUNTABLE, from account, signifies able or ready to give an account. AMENABLE, from the French amener, to lead, signifies liable to be led or bound.

Between answerable and responsible there is a close alliance in the sense, but aome difference in the application. A person is answerable generally in respect to what he undertakes to pay or take charge of; he is answerable for his own lebts, or for the debts of others, to which he has made himself liable; he may also be answerable for things left in his charge: responsible is applied to higher matters of trust or duty $;$ as an officer is responsible for the conduct of the men who are under him; so to lold a responsible situation ander government; and in an extended
sense, to be morally responsible, that is, responsible to society as a moral agent.

He replied that he would give orders for guards to attend us who should be an\&werable for everything.

Brydone
It was Lord Sackville's fate to act for several years in a responsible offlce during an unpopn. lar and umprosperous war.

Cumberland.
Answerable and responsible convey the idea of a pledge given for the performance of some act, or the fulfilment of some engagement, a breach of which sub. jects the defaulter to loss, punishment, or disgrace: accountable implies simply giving an account or explanation of one's proceedings. The $6 w z$ former bave respect to the obligations of others as well as our own, but the latter respects prop. evly one's own obligations only: the accountability results from the relation of the parties; a person is accountable to his employer for the manner in which he has conducted any business intrusted to him; a child is accountable to his parents for all his actions while he is under their control; and we are all accountable to the Great Judge of ail. To be amenable is to be accountable as far as laws and regulations bind a person; one is amenable to the laws of society, or he is amenable to the rules of the house in which he is only an inmate.

By our ancient laws, whoever harbored any stranger for more than two nigbts was answerable to the public for any offence that such his inmate might commit.

Blackstone.
As a person's responsibility bears respect to his reason, so do human pnnishments bear respect to his responsibility: infants and boys are chastised by the hand of the parent or the master; rational adnlts are amenable to the laws.

Comberlann
We know that we are the subjects of a Sn. preme Righteous Governor, to whom we are accountable for our conduct.

Blait.
ANTECEDENT, PRECEDING, FOREGOING, PREVIOUS, $\triangle N T E R I O R, ~ P R I O R$, FORMER,

ANTECEDENT; in Latin antecedens that is, ante and cedens, going before. PRECEDING, in Latin precedens, going before. FOREGOING, literally going bcfore. PREVIOUS, in Latin proevius, that is, prex and via, making a way before. ANTERIOR, the comparative of the Lat in ante, before. DRIOR, in Latin prior,
comparative of primus, first. FORMER, in English the comparative of first.

Antecedent, preceding, foregoing, previous, are employed for what goes or happens before: anterior, prior, former, for what is, or exists before. Antecedent marks priority of order, place, and position, with this peculiar circumstance, that it denotes the relation of influence, dependence, and connection established beiween two objects: thus, in logic the premises are called the antecedent, and the conclusion the consequent; in theology or politics, the antecedent is any decree or resolution which influences another decree or action; in mathematics, it is that term from which any induction can be drawn to another; in grammar, the anteccdent is that which requires a particular regimen from its subsequent. Antecedent and preceding both denote priority of time, or the order of events; but the former in a more vague and indeterminate manner than the latter. A preceding event is that which happens immediately before the one of which we are speaking; whereas antecedent may have ovents or circumstances intervening. An antccedent proposition may he separated from its consequent by other propositions; but a preceding proposition is closely followed by another. In this sense antecedent is opposed to posterior; preceding to succeeding.
The seventeen centuries since the birth of Clrist ars antecadent ta the eighteenth, or the one we live in ; but it is the seventeenth only which we call the preceding ene. Tnusler.

Precoding respects simply the succession of times and things; but prevtous denotes the succession of actions and events, with the collateral idea of their connection with and influence upon each other: we speak of the preceding day, or the preceding chapter, merely as the day or chapter that goes before; but when we speak of a previous engagement or a previous inquiry, it supposes an engagement preparatory to something that is to follow: previous is opposed to subsequent: foregoing is employed to mark the order of things narrated or state ${ }^{-1}$; as when we speak of the foregoing starement, the foregoing objections, or the foregoing calculation, etc.: foregoing is opposed to following.

Little attention was paid to literuture by the Romans in the early and more martial ages. I read of no collection of hooks antecedent to those made by Emilius Paulus and Lucnllus.
ctmberland.
Letters from Rome, dated the 13th instant, say that on the preceding Sunday his Heliness was carried in an open chair from St. Peter's to St. Mary's.

Stefle.
A boding silence reigns
Dead through the dun expanse, save the dull sound
That from the mountain, previous to the storm: Rolls o'er the muttering earth. Tuomson.
Consistently with the foregoing principles, we may deflne original and native peetry to be the language of the vielent passiens, expressed in exact measures.

Sir W. Jones.
Anterior, prior, and former, have all a relative sense, and are used for things that are more before than others: anterior is a technical term to denote forwardness in place or time, but more commonly the former, as in anatomy; the anterior or fore part of the skall, in contradistinction to the posterior part; so likewise the anterior or fore front of a building, in opposition to the back front: prior is used in the sense of previous when speaking comparatively of two or more things, when it implies anticipation; a prior claim invalidates the one that is set up; a prior engagement prevents the forming of any other that is proposed: former is employed either with regard to times, as former times, in contradistinction to later periods, or with regard to propositions, when the former or first thing mentioned is opposed to the latter or last mentioned.
If that be the anterior or upper part wherein the senses are placed, and that the posterior or lewer part is that which is oppasite thereunto, there is ng inferior or lower part in this animal; for the senses being placed at both extremes makes both ends anterior, which is impessible.

Bnowne: Vulgar Errors.
Seme accounts make Thamyris the eighth epic poet $p r i o r$ to Homer, an authority to which no credit seems due.

Ccmberland.
Former fellies pass away and are forgatten. These which are present strike observation and sharpen censure.

Blair.

## TO APOLOGIZE, DEFEND, JUSTIFY, EXculpate, fexcuse, plead.

APOLOGIZE, from the Greek ano$\lambda o \gamma \iota a$, and $a \pi$ одоүЕо $\mu a l$, compounded of $a \pi 0$, from or away, and $\lambda \varepsilon \gamma \omega$, to speak, signifies to do away by speaking. DE.

FEND, in Freach defendre, Latin defensur, participle of defendo, is compounded of $d e$ and fendo, signifying to keep or ward off. JUSTIFY, in French justifier, Latin jusbifico, is compounded of justus and facio, signifying to do justice, or to put right. EXCULPATE, in Latin exculpatus, participle of exculpo, oompounded of ex and culpa, signifies to get out of a fault. EXCUSE, in French excuser, Latin excuso, componnded of ex and causa, signifies to get out of any cause or affair. PLEAD, in French plaider, may either come from placitum or placendum, or be contracted from appellatum.

There is always some imperfection supposed or real which gives rise to an apology; with regard to persons it presupposes a consciousness of impropriety, if not of guilt; we apologize for an error by acknowledging ourselves guilty of it: a defence presupposes a consciousness of innocence more or less; we defend ourselves against a charge by proviog its fallacy: a justification is founded on the conviction not only of entire innocence, but of strict propriety; we justify our conduct against any imputation by proving that it was blameless: exculpation rests on the conviction of innocence with regard to the fact; we exculpate ourselves from all blame by proving that we took no part in the transaction: excese and plea are not grounded on any idea of innocence; they are rather appeals for favor resting on some collateral circumstance which serves to extennate; a plea is freque.tlly an idle or unfounded excuse, a frivolons attempt to lessen displeasure ; we excuse ourselves for a neglect by alleging indisposition; we plead for forgiveness by solicitation and entreaty.

An apology mostly respects the conduct of individuals with regard to each other as equals; it is a voluntary act, springing out of a regard to decorim, or the good opinion of others. To avoid misunderstandings it is necessary to apoldgize for any omission that wears the appearance of neglect. A defence respects matters of higher importance; the violation of laws or public morals; judicial questions decided in a court, or matters of opinion which are offered to the decision of the public: no one defends himself but he whose conduct or opinions are
called in question. A justification is aph plicable to all moral cases in common life, whether of a serious nature or otherwise: it is the act of individuals toward eaoh other aocording to their different stations: no one can demand a justifica tion from another without a sufficient authority, and no one will attempt to justi. $f y$ bimself to another whose authority he does not acknowledge: men justify themselves either on principles of honor, on from the less creditable motive of concealing their imperfections from the observation and censure of others. An exculpation is the act of an inferior; it respects the violations of duty toward the superior; it is dictated by necessity, and seldom the offspring of any higher motive than the desire to screen one's self from punishment: exculpation regards offences only of commission; excuse is employed for those of omission as well as commission: we excuse ourselves oftener for what we have not done, than for what we have done: it is the act of persons in all stations, and arises from various motives, dishonorable or otherwise: a person may often have substantial reasons to excuse himself from doing a thing, or for not baving done it; an excuse may likewise sometlines be the refuge of idleness and selfishness. To plead is properly a judicial act, and extended in its sense to the ordinary concerns of life; it is mostly employed for the benefit of others, rather than ourselves.

Exeuse and plea, which are mostly em. ployed in an unfavorable sense, are to apology, defence, and exculpation as the means to an end: an apology is lame when, instead of an honest confession of an unintentional error, an idle attempt is made at justification: a defence is poor when it does not contain sufficient to invalidate the charge: a jusification is nugatory when it applies to conduct altogether wrong: an excuse or a plea is frivolous or idle, which turns upon some falsehood, misrepresentation, or irrele vant point.

But for this practice (detraction), however vile, some have dared to apologize by contending that the report by which they injured an absent character was true.

Hawkesworth.
Attacked by great injuries, the man of mild and gentle spirit will feel what human nature feela
and will defend and resent as hie duty allows him.

Blal:
Whatever private yiews and passions plead, No cause call juatify so black a deed.

Thomson.
A good child will not seek to ececulpate herself at the expense of the most revered characterg.

Riohardson,
The strength of the passions will never be acenpted as an eacuse for complying with them.

SPECTATOR.
Poverty on this accasion pleads her cause very antably, and represents to her old landlord that should she be driven out of the country, all their trades, arts, and aciences would be driyen out with her.

Addison.

## APPAREL, ATPIRD, ARRAY.

APPAREL, in French appareil, like the word apparatus, comes from the Latin apparatus or adparatus, signifying the thing fitted or adapted for another. ATTIRE, oompqunded of at or ad and tire, in French tirer, Latin traho, to draw, signiGes the thing drawn or put on. ARRAY is compounded of ar or ad and ray or row, signifying the state of being in a row, or being in order.

These terms are all applicable to dress or exterior decoration. Apparel is the dress of every one; attire ls the dvess of the great; array is the dress of particular permons on papticular ocossions: it is the first object of every man to provide himself with apparel suitable to his station; hut the desire of shining forth in gaudy attire is the property of little minds; on festivals and solemn ocoasions it may be proper for those who are to be conspiouous to set themselves out with a comely wroy, Apparel and attire respect the quality and fashion of the thing; but array has regard to the disposition of the things with their neatness and decorum; apparel may be costly or mean; attive may be gay or shabby; but array will pever be otherwise than meat or comaly.

It is mnch, that thls depraved custom of painting the face should so long escape the penal laws, both of the church and state, which have been very severe againat luxury in apparel.

B400n.
A robe of tissue, stiff with golden wire, An upper vest, once Helen's rich attire.

Driden.
She seem'd a virgin of the Spartan blood, With such array Harpalyce bestrode Her Thracian courser,

Datpen.

APPARENT, VISIBLE, CLEAR, PLAIN, OBYIOUS, EVIDENT, MANIFEST.
APPARENT, in Latin apparens, parti, ciple of appareo, to appear, signifies the quality of appearing. VISIBLE, in Latin visibilis, from visus, participle of viden, to see, signifies capable of being seen. CLEAR, in French olair, German, Swed. ish, etc., klar, Latin clarus, Greek $\gamma \lambda a y$ pos, comes from $\gamma \lambda a \nu \sigma \sigma \omega$, to shine ${ }^{2}$ PLAIN, in Latin plamus, even, signifies what is so smooth and unencumbered that it can be seen. OBVIOUS, in Latin obvius, compounded of ob and via, signifies the quality of lying in one's way, or before one's eyes. EYIDENT, in French evident, Latin evidens, from video, Greek $\varepsilon \& \delta \omega$, Hebrew ido, to know, signifies as good as certain or known. MANIFEST, in French manifeste, Latin manifestus, compounded of manus, the hand, and festus, participle of fendo, to fall in, signifies the quality of heing so near that it can be laid hold of by the hapd,

These words agree in expressing various degrees in the capability of seeing; hut visible is the only one used purely in a physical sense; apparent, clear, plain, and obvious, are used physioally and morally; evident and manifest solely in a moral acceptation. That which is simply an objoct of sight is visible; that which presents itself to our view in any form, real or otherwise, is apparent : the stars themselves are visible to 48 ; but their size is apparent.
The perception intellective often corrects the report of phantasy, as in the apparent bigness of the sun, and the opparent crookedness of the staff in air and water.
hale.
The visible and present are for brutes:
A slender portion and a harrow bound. Youna.
Visible is applied to that which merely admits of being seen; apparent and the other terms denote not only wbat is to be seen, but what is easily to be seen : they are all applied as epithets to objects of mental discernment ; what is apparent strikes the view; what is clear is to be seen in all its parts and in its proper colors: it is opposed to that which is obscure: what is plain is seen by a plain understanding; it requires no deep reflection nor severe study; it is opposed to what is intricate: what is obvious pre

## APPEASE

sears itself readily to the mind of every one; it is seen at the first glance, and is opposed to that which is abstruse: what is evident is seen forcibly, and leaves no hesitation on the mind; it is opposed to that which is dubious: nanifest is a greater degree of the evident; it strikes on the understanding and forces conviction; it is opposed to that which is dark. A thing is apparent upon the face of it: a case is clear; it is decided on immediately: a truth is plain; it is involved in no perplexity; it is not multifarious in its bearings: a falsehood is plain; it admits of no question: a reason is obvious; it flows ont of the nature of the case: a proof is evident; it requires no discussion, there is nothing in it that clashes or contradicts; the guilt or innocence of a person is evident when everything scrves to strengthen the conclusion: a contradiction or absurdity is manifest which is felt by all as soon as it is perceived.

> The business men are chiefly conversant in does not only give a certain cast or turn to their minds, but is very apparbnt in their outward behavior. BudGELL. It is plain that our skill in literature is owing to the knowledge of Greek and latin, which that they are still preserved among ns can be ascribed only to a religions regard. We pretend to give a clear account how thunder and lightning are produced. It is obvious to remark that we follow nothing heartily unless carried to it by inclination. It is evid.ent that fame, considered merely as the immortality of a name, is not less likely to be tbe reward of bad actions than of good.

Johnson.
Among the many inconsistencies which folly produces in the human mind, there has often been observed a manifest and striking contrariety between the life of an anthor and his writings.

Johnson.

## APPEARANCE, AIR, ASPECT

APPEARANCE signifies the thing that appeare or the manner of appearing. AIR, v. Air, manner. ASPECT, in Latin aspectus, from aspicio, to look upon, signifies the thing that is looked upon or seen.

Appearance is the generic, the rest are specific terms. The whole external form, figure, or colors, whatever is visible to the eye, is its appearance: air is a particular appearance of any object as far as it is indicative of its quality or condition; an
air of wretchedness or poverty: aspect is the partial appearance of a body as it presents one of its sides to view; a gloomy or cheerful aspect. It is not safe to judge of either persons or things altogether by appearances: the appearance and reality are often at valiance: the appearance of the sun is that of a moving body, but astronomers assert that it has no motion round the earth: there are particular towns, habitations, or rooms which have always an air of comfort, or the contrary: this is a sort of appearancs the most to be relied on: politicians of a certain stamp are always busy in judging for the future from the aspect of affairs; but their predictions, like those of astrologers who judge from the aspect of the heavens, frequently turn out to the discredit of the prophet.

The hero answers with the respect due to the beautiful appearance she made. Steene.
Some who had the most assuming air went directly of themselves to error withont expecting a conductor.

Pabnell.
Her motions were steady and composed, and her aspect serious but cheerfinl ; her name was Patience. Abnigon.

## APPEASE, CALM, PACIFY, QUIET, STILL.

APPEASE, v. To allay. CALM, in French calmer, from almus, bright, signifies to make bright. PACIFY, in Latin pacifico, componuded of pax and facio, signifies to make peace or peaceable. QUIET, in French quiet, Latin quietus, from quies, rest, signifies to put to rest. STILL signifies to make still.

To appease is to remove great agitation; to calm is to bring into a tranquil state. The wind is appeased; the sea is calmed. With regard to persons, it is necessary to appease those who are in transports of passion, and to calm those who are in trouble, anxiety, or apprehension. Appease respects matters of force or violence, calm those of inquietude and distress: one is appeased by a submissive behavior, and calmed by the removal of danger. Pacify corresponds to appease, and quiet to calm: in sense they are the same, bnt in application they differ ; appease and calm are nsed only in reference to objects of importance; pacify and quiet to those of a more familiar nature: the

## APPOINT

anew y humors of a child are pacified, or Its groundless fears are quieted. Still is a loftier expression than any of the former terms; serving mostly for the grave or poetic style: it is an onomatopceia for restraining or putting to silence that which is noisy and boisterous.
A lofty city by my hand is rais'd,
Pygmalion punish'd, and my lord appeased.
Dnyden.
All powerful harmony, that can assuage
And calm the sorrows of the frenzled wretch.
Marsh.
My breath can still the winds,
Uncloud the sun, charm down the swelling sea,
And atop the floods of heaven.
Beadmont.

## APPLAUSE, ACCLAMATION.

APPLAUSE, from the Latin applaudo, signifies literally to elap or stamp the feet to a thing. ACCLAMATION, from acclamo, signifies a crying out to a thing.

These terms express a public demonstration ; the former by means of a noise with the hands or feet; the latter by means of shouts and cries: the former being employed as a testimony of approbation; the latter as a sanction, or an indication of respect. An actor looks for applause; a speaker looks for acclamation. What a man does calls forth applause, but the person himself is mostly received with acclamations. At the hustings popular speeches meet with applause, and favorite members are greeted with loud acelamations.
Amidst the loud applauses of the shore, Gyas outstripp'd the rest and sprung before.

Diyden.
When this illustrious person (the Duke of Marlbro') touched on the shore, he was received by the acclamatione of the people. Steele.

## TO APPOINT, ORDER, PRESCRIBE, ORDAIN.

APPOINT, $v$. To allot. ORDER, in French ordre, Latin ordino, to arrange, dispose, ordo, order, Greek opxos, a row of trees, which is the symbol of order. PRESCRIBE, in Latin preseribo, compounded of pree, before, and scribo, to write, signifies to draw a line for a persoo. ORDALN is a variation of order.
To appoint is either the act of an equal or superior: we appoint a meeting with any one at a given time and place; a kiag appoints his ministers. To order is the act of one iavested with a partial au-
thority: a customer orders a commodity from his tradesman; a master gives his orders to his servant. To prescribe is the act of one who is superior by virtue of his knowledge: a physician prescribes to his patient. To ordain is an aet emana. ting from the highest authority: kings and councils ordain; but their ordinances must be conformable to what is ordained by the Divine Being. Appointments are made for the convenience of individuals or communities; but they may be altered or annulled at the pleasure of the contracting parties. Orders are dictated by the superior only, but they presuppose a discretionary obligation on the part of the individual to whom they are given. Prescriptions are binding on none but such as voluntarily admit their authority; but ordinances leave no choice to those on whom they are imposed to accept or reject them: the ordinances of man are not less binding than those of God, so long as they do not expressly contradict the divine law.

Appointments are kept, orders executed or obeyed, prescriptions followed, ordinances submitted to. It is a point of politeness or honor, if not of direct $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{c}}$. al obligation, to keep the appointmusts which we have made. Interest will leas men to execute the orders which they receive in the course of business: duty obliges them to obey the orders of their superiors. It is a nice matter to prescribe to another without hurting his pride; this principle leads men often to regard the counsels of their best friends as preseriptions: with children it is an unquestion. able duty to follow the prescriptions of those whose age, station, or experience authorize them to prescribe. God has ordained all thiags for our good; it rests with ourselves to submit to his ordinances and be happy.

> Majestic months Set out with him to their appointed race.

## Dryden.

The whole course of things is so ordered that we neither by an irregular and precipitate education become men too soon, nor by a fond and trifling indulgence be suffered to continue children forever.

Blair.
Sir Francis Bacon, in his Essay upon Health, has not thought it improper to preseribe to his reader a poem or a prospect, where he particularly dissuades him from knotty and snbtle dia* quisitiona.

Admisos

It was perhaps ordained by Providence to hinder we from tyrannizing over one another, that no individual should be of such importance us to cause by his retirement or death any chasm in the world.

JOHNSON.

## TO APPRAISE, OR APPRECIATE, ESTIMATE, EBTEEM.

APPRAISE, APPRECIATE, from apprecio and apprectiatus, participle of apprccio, compounded of $a p$ or $a d$ and $p r e-$ sium, a price, signifies to set a price or value on a thing. ESTIMATE comes from estimatus, participle of estimo, to value. To ESTEEM is a variation of estimate.

Appraise and appreciate are used in precisely the same sensc, for setting a value on anything according to relative circumstances; but the one is used in the proper, and the other in the figurative sense: a sworn appraiser appraises goods according to the condition of the articles, and their salable property; the characters of men are appreciated by others when their good and bad qualities are justly put in a balance.
The things are not soid, they are only appraised. Bhackstone.
To the tinishing of his course, let every one direct his eye: and let him now appreciate life according to the value it will be found to have when summed up at the elose.

Blain.
To estimate a thing is to get the sum of its value by calculation; to esteem anything is to judge its actual and intrinsic value. Estimate is used either ln a proper or a figurative acceptation; esteem only in a moral sense: the expense of an undertaking, losses hy fire, gains by trade, are estimated at a certain sum; the estimate may be too high or too low the moral worth of men is often estimated above or belew the reality, according to the particular bias of the estamator; but there are individuals of such an unquestionable worth that they need only to be known in order to be esteemed.

[^12]TO APPREHEND, CONCEIVF, BUPPOSE, IMAGINE.
To APPREHEND, from the Latin ad and prehendo, signifies to take into tha mind. CONCEIVE, from the Latin con and capio, to take together, that is, to put together in the mind. SUPPOSE, from the Latin suppono, to put one thing in the place of another. IMAGINE, from imago, to have an image or figure of anything in the mind.

To apprehend is simply to take an idea into the mind; thus we may apprehend any object that we hear or see: to conceive is to form an idea in the mind, as to conccive the idea of doing anything, to conceive a design.

Brutes and men have their sensoriola, or little sensoriums, by which they apprehend the presence, and perceive the actions, of a few objects that lie contignous to them.

Addison.
He first conceives, then perfects his design,
As a mere instrument in hunds divine. Cowper.,
Apprehending is the first effort of the thinking faculty: conceiveny is the act of a more matured understanding; the former belongs to children as well as grown persons, the latter moro properly to grown persons. Apprehending is performed by the help of the senses; we may be quick or dull of apprehension. Conceiving $\mathbf{i}$. performed by reflection and comblnation; we may conceive properly or improperly.
Dark night, that from the eye his function takeg, The ear more quick of apprehension makes.

Shakepeare.
A state of innocence and happiness is so remote from all we have ever seen, that although we can easily conceive it as possible, yet our speculations upon it must be general and confused.

Johnson.
That of which we can have no sensible impression is not to be apprehended, that which is above the reach of our thought is not to be conceived.

We most be content to know that the Spirit of God is present with us, by the effects which he produceth in us. Our ontward senses are ton gross to "ppiehend him.

Addison.
It is not in the power of imagination to conceive the fearful effects of Ormipotence incensed. Addi80K
To apprehend and to conceive are applied only to reality, to suppose and im. agine are applied to things which mav exist only in the imagination; but the
former being drawn from that which is real may be probable or improbable acoording to circumatances; the latter being the peculiar act of the imagination, more commooly exists in the imagination only.
It can scarce be suppoaed that the mind is more vigorous when we aleep than when we wake.

HawEsiwoaph.
It is a mistake to imagina that creeds were at frst intended to teach in full and explicit terina all that should he believed by Christians.

Watealand.
These terms are all employed to denote one's opinion or belief in regard to ordinary mattera with a like distinotlon. Apprehend expresses the weakest kind of belief, the having the least idea of the presence of a thing.

## $\begin{gathered}\text { Nothing is a misery } \\ \text { Uoless our weak ness } a p p r e h e n d ~ i t ~ s o . ~\end{gathered}$

Shakspeare.
A man is said to conceive that on which he forms a direct opinion.

Thle great fundamental truth, unestablished or anawakened in the minda of men, is, I conceive, the real source and support of all our infldelity.

Yound.
What one supposes may admit of a doubt, it is frequently only conjectural.
It is there supposed that all our infidets, whatever acheme, for argument's sake and to keep themselves in countenance, they patronize, are betrayed into their deplorable error by some doubt of their immortality at the bottom.

Young.
What one imagines may be altogether improbable or impossible, and that which cannot be imagined may be too improbable to admit of being believed.
The Earl of Rivers did nat tmagine there could exist, in a human form, a mother that would ruin her own son without enriching herself.

Johnaon.
TO APPREHEND, FEAR, DREAD.
To APPREHEND (v. To apprehend, coneeive) aignifies to have an idea of danger in one's mind, without necesaarily implying any sentiment of fear. FEAR, in Saxon fihrt, Latin pavor, and Greek $\phi p \iota \sigma \sigma$, to shudder, expresses the sentiment in a greater or less degree. DREAD, in Latin territo, and Greek rapa $\sigma \sigma \omega$, to trouble, expresses the highest degree of fear.

What ia poasible may be apprehended;
we may apprehend a change in the weath er, or that an accident will take place by the way. What is probable may be feared: we may fear the consequences of a person's resentment. Not only the evil which is nigh, but that which is exceeding great, produces dread.

Our natural aense of right and wrong produces an apprehension of merited punishment when we lave committed a crime.

Blaill
That which is fectred may sometimes be avoid. ed; but that which ia regretted to-day may be regretted again to-inorrow. Johnsom.
All men think all men mortal but themselves, Themselves, when some alarming shock of fate Strikea through their wounded hearts the sudden araad.

Youno.
Apprehend is said only of things. Fear and dread are also applied to persons with the like distinction: fear is a salutary sentiment; it is the sentiment of a child toward a parent or instructor: dread, as toward a fellow-creature, is produced by harshness and oppression, but in regard to our Maker is produced by the consciousness of guilt.
They are universally feared and respected. Brydone.
Intomb'd my fear of death 1 and evcry fear, The dread of every evil, but thy frown.

Young.

## APPROACH, ACCESS, ADMITTANCE.

APPROACH, compounded of $a p$ or $a d$ and proaeh, in Firench proche, near, Latin proximus, nearest, siguifies near to, that is, coming near to. ACCESS, in Latin acoessus, from ac or ad and cedo, to go, is, properly, going to. ADMITTANCE, $v$. Admittance.

Approach signifies the coming near or toward an object, and consequently is an unfinished act, but access and admittanco are finished acts; acoess is the coming to, that is, as close to an object as is needful; and admittance is the coming into any place, or into the presence or society of any person. Approach expresses simply the act of drawing near, but access aud admittance comprehend, in their signification, the liberty and power of coming to or into; an approach may be quick or slow, an access easy or difficult, an ad. mittance free or exclusive.
His aervice in the eighty-eighth is notorlouaiy known whell at the first news of the Spaniards
epproach, he tuwed at a cable with hia own hands to draw out the harbor-bound shipa into the sea.

Fuller.
When we are wrong'd, and would nufold onr griefs,
We are denied access unto his person.
Shamspeare.
As my pleasnres are almast wholly confined to those of the sight, 1 take it for a pecnliar happiness that 1 have always had an easy and familiar admittance to the fair sex.

Tatlea.
Approach may sometimes be taken for a road or way of approach, which brings it nearer in sense to the other terms, as the approaches to a bridge or a town.

The approach to Messina is the finest that can he imagined.

Access is used only in its proper sense for the act of persons; approach and admittance are employed figuratively, as the approach of winter, age, etc., or the approach to immorality, in the sense of coming near to it in similitude, the admittance of thoughts into the mind.

There is no approach to an invasinn of the divine attributes in the invocation of saints, but I think it is will-wurship and presnmption. Johnson.
In the difficnlties of business and great affaira, such an unintermitted and unshaken perseverance, as if he never tasted what it was to indulge in his own ease, or the pleasures of conversation ; and yet in the cutertainments of conversation such an open-taking agreeableness, as if no thoughts of business could ever find admittance. Pheamble to Lord Cadogan"s Patent of Peenade.

## TO APPROACH, APPROXIMATE.

APPROACH, v. Approach. APPROXIMATE, compounded of $a p$ and proximus, to come nearest or next, signifies eitber to draw near or bring near. To approach is intransitive only; a person approaches an object. To approximate is both transitive and intransitive ; a person approximates two objects to each other.

Lambs pnsh at those that approach them with their horns before the first budding of a horn appears.

ADDISON.
Shakspeare approwimates the remote and far. Johnson.
To approach denotes simply the moving of an object toward another, but to approximate denotes the gradual moving of two objects toward each other: that which approaches may come into immediate conjunction; but bodies may ap-
proximate for some time before they form a junction, or may never form a junction. An equivocation approaches to a lie. Minds approximate by long inter course.
Comets, in their approaches toward the earth are imagined to canse diseases, famines, and oth. er auch like judgments of God.

Deahax
The approximutions and recesses of aome of the little stars I speak of, suit nat with the observations of some very ancient astronomers.

Derhay
TO APPROPRIATE, USURP, ARROGATE, ASSUME, ASCRIBE.
APPROPRIATE, in French approprier; compounded of $a p$ or $a d$ and propriatus, participle of proprio, an old verb, and pro prius, proper or own, signifies to make one's own. USURP, in French usurper, Latin usurpo, from usus, use, is a frequentative of utor, signifying to make use of as if it were one's own. ARRO, GATE, in Latin arrogatus, participle of arrogo, signities to ask or claim for one's self. ASSUME, in French assumer, Latin assumo, compounded of as or ad and sumo, to take, signifies to take to one's self. ASCRIBE, in Latin ascribo, compounded of ac or ad and scribo, to write, signifies here to write down to one's own account.

The idea of taking something to one's self by an act of one's own is common to all these terms. To appropriate is to tahe to one's self with or without right; to usurp is to take to one's self by violence or in violation of right. Appropriating is applied in its proper sense to goods in possession; usurping is properly applied to power, titles, rights. Individuals appropriate whatever comes to their hands which they use as their own; they usurp power when they exercise the functions of government without a legitimate sanction.
Natural reason suggested that he who could first declare his intention of oppropriating anything to his own nse, and actnally took it into possession, shonld thereby gain the absolute property of it.

Blackstone.
The usurpation which, in order to subvert ancient institutions, has destroyed ancient principles, will hold power by arts similar to those by which it has acquired it.

Burke.
These words may be applied in the same sense to moral or spiritual objects.

To themselves appropriating The spirit of God, promis'd alike and giv'n To all believers.

Milton.
If any passion has so minch usurped our understanding as not to suffer us to enjoy advantages with the moderation prescribed by reason, it is not too late to apply this remedy: when we find ourselves sinking nnder sorrow, we may then osefully revolve the uncertainty of our condition, and the folly of lamenting that from which, if it had stayed a little longer, we should ourselves bave been taken away.

Joinson.
Arrogate, assume, and ascribe, denote ;he taking to one's self, but do not, like appropriate and usurp, imply taking from another. Arrogate is a more violent action than assume, and assume than ascribe. Arrogate and assume are employed either in the proper or figurative sense, ascribe only in the figurative sense. We arrogate distinctions, honors, and titles; we assume names, rights, and privileges. In the moral sense we arrogate pre-eminence, assume importance, ascribe merit. To arrogate is a species of moral usurpation; it is always accompanied with haughtiness and contempt for others: that is arrogated to one's self to which one has not the smallest title: an arrogant temper is one of the most odious features in the human character; it is a compound of folly and insolence. To assume is a species of moral appropriation; its objects are of a less serious nature than those of arrogating, and it does less violence to moral propriety: we may assume in trifles, we arrogate only in important matters. To ascribe is oftener an act of vanity than of injustice: many men may be entitled to the merit which they ascribe to themselves; but by this very act they lessen the merit of their best actions.

It very seldom happens that a man is slow enough in assuming the character of a husband, or a woman quick enough in condescending to that of a wife.

Steele.
After having thus ascribed due honor to birth snd parentage, I must, however, take notice of those who arrogate to theinselves more honors than are due to them on this account. AODison.

Sometimes we ascribe to onrselves the merit f good qualities, which, if justly considered, hould cover us with shame.

Craig.
Arrogating as an action, or arrogance as a disposition, is always taken in a bad sense: the former is always dictated by the most preposterons pride; the latter ts associated with every unworthy quality. desumption as an action varies in its
character according to circumstances; it may be either good, bad, or indifferent: it is justifiable in certain exigencies to assume a command where there is no one else able to direct; it is often a matter of indifference what name a person as sumes who does so ouly in conformity to the will of another; but it is always bad to assume a name as a mask to impose upon others. As a disposition assumption is always bad, but still not to the same degree as arrogance. An arrogant man renders himself intolerable to society: an assuming man makes himself offensive: arrogance is the characteristic of men; assumption is peculiar to yonths: an arrogant man can be humbled only by silent contempt; an assuming youth must be checked by the voice of authority.
Humility is expressed by the stooping and bending of the head, arrogance when it is lifted ur, or as we say tossed up.

Dhyden.
This makes him over-forward in business, assuming in conversation, and peremptory in answers.

Collier.

## ARCHITECT, BUILDER.

ARCHITECT, from architecture, in Latin architectus, from architectura, Grcel
 chief, and $\tau \varepsilon \chi^{\nu} \eta$, art or contrivance, signifies the chief of contrivers. BUILDER, from the verb to build, denotes the person concerned in buildings, who causes the structure of houses, either by his money or his personal service.

An architeet is an artist, employed only to form the plans for large buildings; a builder is a simple tradesman, or even workman, who builds common dwellinghouses.

Rome will bear witness that the English artists are as superior in talents as they are in numbers to those of all nutions besides. I reserve the mention of her architsets as a separate class.

Cumberland.
With his ready money, the builder, mason, and carpenter are enabled to make their market of gentlemen in his neighborhood who inconsiderately employ them.

Steels

## TO ARGUE, DISPUTE, DEBATE:

ARGUE, in Latin arguo, from the Greek apyos, clear, manifest, signifies to make clear, that is, by adducing reasons or proofs. DISPUTE, in French dispun
ver, Latin disputo, compounded of dis and puto, signifies to think differently; in an extended sense, to assert a different opidlon. DEBATE, in French débattre, compounded of the intensive ayllable de and battre, to beat or fight, signifies to contend for and against.

To argue ia to defend one's self; to dispute, to oppose another; to debate, to lispute in a formal manner. To argue in a subject is to explain the reasons or proofs in support of an assertion; to ar$g u \theta$ with a peraon is to defend a position against him: to dispute a thing ja to adVince objections against a position; to dispute with a person is to start objections against his positions, to attempt to refute them: a debate is a disputation held by many. To argue does not necessarily auppose a conviction on the part of the arguer that what he defenda is true, nor a real difference of opinion in his opponent; for some men have such an itching propensity for an argument, that they will attempt to prove what nobedy denies: to dispute always supposes an opposition to some person, bat not a sincere opposition to the thing; for we may dispute that which we do not deny, for the aake of holding a dispute with one who is of different sentimenta: to debate presupposes a multitude of clashing or opposing opinions. Men of many words argue for the sake of talking: men of ready tongues dispute for the eake of victory: In parliament men often debate for the sake of opposing the ruling party, or frem any other motive than the love of truth.
Of good and evil much they argued then.
Milton.
Thus Rodmond, train'd by this uौhailow'd crew, The sacrad social passions never knew: Unskilld to aryne, in dispute yet loud, Bold without caution, without honors prond.

Fixconea.
The murmur ceased: then from bis lofty throne The king invok'd the gods, and thus begun : I wish, ye Latins, what ye now debate Had been resolv'd before it was too late.

Dryden.

## TO ARGUE, EVINCE, PROVE.

ARGUE, v.To argue, dispute. EVINCE, in Latin evinco, compounded of vinoo, to prove, or make out, and $e$, forth, signlfies to bring to light, to make to appear clear.

PROVE, in French prowver, In Latin pro bo, from probus, good, signifies to make good, or make to appear good.

These terms in general convey the idea of emidence, but with gradations: argue denotes the smallest, and $p$ rove the highest degree. To argue is to gerve as ma indication amounting to probability; to evince denotes an indication so clear as to remove doubt; to prove marks an evi. dence so positive as to produce conviction. It argues a want of candor in any man to conceal circumstancea io his statement which are anywise calculated to affect the subject in question: the tenor of a person's convergation may evince the refinement of his mind and the purity of hia taste: when we see men sacrificing their peace of mind and even their integ. rity of character to ambition, it proves to us how important it is even is early life to check this natural and in some measure landable, but atill insinuating and dangerous passion.
It is not the being singular, but being singular for something, that argues elther extraordinary endowinents of nature or benevolent intentions to mankind, which draws the admiration and esteem of the world.

Beak8ley.
The nature of the soul itself, and particularly its immateriality, has, I think, been evinced almost to a demonstration.

Addison.
What object, what event the moon beneath, But argues or endears an after-scena? To reason proves, or weds it to desire? Young.

## ARGUMENT, REASON, PROOF.

ARGUMENT, from argue ( $v .1 b a r$. gue), signifies either the thing that argues, or that which is brought forward in arguing. REASON, in French raisan, Latin ratio, frem ratus, participle of reor, to think, signifies the thing thought or believed in suppert of some other thing. PROOF, from to prove (v. To argue), sig. nifies the thing that proves.

An argument serves for defence; a reason for justification; a proof for conviction. Arguments are adduced in sup. port of an hypothesis or proposition; reasons are assigned in matters of belief and practice; proofs are collected to as. certain a fact.
When the arguments press equally on both sides in matters that are indifferent to us, the safest method is to give up ourselves to neither.

Adilion

The reasons with his friead's experience join'd, Eucourag'd much, but more disturb'd his mind. Diyden.
Ooe soul tin both, whereof good proof Thls day affords.

Milton.
Arguments are either strong or weak; reasons solid or futile; proofs clear and positive, or vague and indefinite. We confute an argument, overpower a reason, and invalidate a proof. Whoover wishes to defend Christianity will be in no want of arguments: the believer need never be at a loss to give a reason for the hope that is in him; but throughout the whole of Divine Revelation there is no circumstance that is substantiated with such irrefragable proofs as the resurrection of our Saviour.

This, before revelation had enlightened the world, was the very best argument for a future state.

Atteribuay.
Virtue and vice are not arbitrary things, but there is a natural and eterual recian for that goodness and virtue, and against vice and wiekedness.

Tillotson.
Are thers (stlll more amazing!) who resist The rising thought, who smother in its birth The glorious trith, who struggle to be brutes? Who figlit the proofs of immortality? Youna.

## TO ARISE, OR RISE, MOUNT, ASCEND, CLIMB, SCALE.

ARISE, or RISE, in Saxon arisan, Gothic reisen, etc., to travel, signifying to move in any direction, is here taken for an upward motion. ASCEND, in Latin ascendo, compounded of ad and scando, signifies to climb up toward a point. CLIMB, in German klimmon, which is probably connected with klammar, a hook, signifies to rise by a hook. SCALE, in French escalader, Italian scalare, Latin scala, a ladder, signifies to rise by a ladder.
The idea of going upward is common to all these terms; arise is used only in the sense of simply getting up, but rise is employed to express a continued motion upward: a person arises from his seat or his bed; a bird rises in the air; the silver of the barometer rises: the three first of these terms convey a gradation in their sense; to arise or rise denotes a motion to a less elevated height than to mount, and to mount that which is less elevated than ascend: a person riess from his seat, mounts a hill, and as-
cends a mountain. Arise and rise are intransitive only; the rest are likewise transitive: we rise from a point, we mount and ascend to a point, or we mount and ascend something: an air-balloon rises when it first leaves the ground; it mounts higher and higher until it is out of sight ; but if it astends too high, it endangers the life of the aërial adventurer. Climb and scale express a species of rising: to climb is to rise step by step, by clinging to a certain body; to scale is to rise by an escalade, or species of ladder, employed in mounting the walls of fortified towns: trees and mountains are climbed; walls are sealed.

Th' inspected entrails could no fates foretell, Nor, laid on altars, did pure fiames arise.

Dryden
To contradict them, see all nature rise!
What object, what event the inoon beneath, But argues or endears an after-scene? Young At length the fatal fahric mounts the walls, Big with destruction.

DRTDEN.
We view a rising land like distant clouds; The mountain-tops confirm the pleasing sight, And curling smoke ascending from their height. Dayden.
While you (alas! that 1 should find it so), To shun my sight, your native soil forego, And climb the frozen Alps, and tread the eternal snow.

Ditiden.
But brave Messapus, Neptnne's warlike son, Broke down the palisades, the trenches won, and loud for ladders calls, to scale the town.

Dryden.
TO ARISE, OR RISE, PROCEED, ISSUE, spring, flow, emanate.
To ARISE, v. To arise. PROCEED, in Latin procedo, that is, pro and cedo, to go, signifies to go forth. ISSUE, in French issue, comes from the Latin isse or ivisse, infinitive of $e$, to go, and the Hebrew itza, to go out. SPRING, in German springen, comes from rinnen, to run like water, and is connected with the Greek Bovecy, to pour out. FLOW, in Saxon fleowan, low German fogan, high German fiessen, Latin fuo, etc., all connected with the Greek $\beta \lambda \nu \omega$ or $\beta \lambda \nu \zeta \omega$, which is an onomatopœia expressing the murmur of waters. EMANATE, in Latin ema natus, participle of emano, compounded of mano, to flow, from the Hebrew mim and Chaldee min, waters, expressing the motion of waters.

The idea of one object coming out of
another is expressed by all these terms, hut they differ in the ciroumstances of the action. What comes up ont of a body and rises into existence is said to arise, as the mist which arises out of the sea: what comes forth as an effect, or comes forth in an particular manner, is said to proceed; thus the light proceeds from a certain quarter of the heavens, or from a certain part of a house: what comes out from a small aperture is said to issue; thus perspiration issues through the pores of the skin; water issues sometimes from the sides of rocks: what comes out in a sudden or quick manner, or comes from some remote source, is said to spring; thus blood springs from an artery which is pricked; water springs up out of the earth : what comes out in quantities or in a stream is said to flow; thus blood flows from a wound: to emanate is a specics of flowing by a natural operation, when bodies send forth, or seem to send forth, particles of their own composition from themselves; thus light emanates from the sun.

From roots hard hazels, and from scions rise Tall ash, and taller oak that mates the skies.

Dryden.
Teach me the various labors of the moon, And whence procesd the eclipses of the sun.

Dhyden.
As when some huntsman with a flying spear From the blind thicket wounds a stately deer. Down his cleft side while fresh the blood distils, He bounds aloft and scuds from hills to hills, Till, life's warm vapor issuing through the wound,
Wild monntain wolves the fainting beast surround.

Pope.
Great floods have flown
From simple sources.
Sharspeare.
So from the root
Springf lighter the green stalk, from thence the leaves.
militon.
The sun is the eye of the world, and he is indifferent to the Negro or the cold Russian; but the flexures of the heaven and the earth, the convenience of abode, and the approaches to the north or snuth, respectively change the emanations of his beams.

Jeremy Taylor.
This distinction in the signification of these terms is kept up in their moral acceptation, where the idea of one thing originating from another is common to them all; but in this case arise is a general term, which simply implies the coming into existence; proceed conveys also the idea of a progressive movement into
existence. Every object, therefore, may be said to arise out of whatever produces it; but it proceeds from it only when it is gradually produced : evils are continnally arising in human socicty for which there is no specific remedy: in complicated disorders it is not always possible to say precisely from what the complaint of the patient proceeds. Issue is seldom used but in application to sensible objects: yet we may say, in conformity to the original meaning, that words issue from the month : the idea of the distant source or origin is kept up in the moral application of the term spring, when we say that actions spring from a generous or corrupt principle: the idea of a quantity and a stream is preserved in the moral use of the terms flow and emanate; but the former may be said of that which is not inherent in the body; the latter respects that only which forms a component part of the body: God is the spring whence all our blessings flow; all anthority em . anates from God, who is the supreme source of all things: theologians, when speaking of God, say that the Son emanates from the Father, and the Holy Ghost from the Father and the Son, and that grace flows upon us incessantly from the inexhaustible treasures of Divine mercy.

The greatest misfortunes men fall into arise from themselves. Steele.
Bnt whence proceed these hopes, or whence this dread,
If nothing really can affect the dead? Jenyns.
As light and heat flow from the snn as their centre, so bliss and joy flow from the Deity.

Blaik
Providence is the great sanctuary to the afflict. ed who maintain their integrity; and often there has issued. from this sanctuary the most season. able relief.

Blals
All from utility this law approve,
As every private bliss must spring from socia love.

Jenyng
As in the next world so in this, the only solid blessings are owing to the goodness of the mind, not the extent of the capacity; friendship here i an emanation from the same source as beatitudthere.

Pope.

## ARMS, WEAPONS.

ARMS, from the Latin arma, is now properly used for instruments of offence, and never otherwise except by a poetir license of arms for armor; hut weapon
from the German waffen, may be used sither for an instrument of offence or defence. We say fire-arms, but not fireweapons; and weapons offensive or defensive, not arms offensive or defensive. Arms likewise, agreeably to its origin, is employed for that only which is purposely made to be an instrument of offence; weapon, aecording to its extended and indefinite application, is employed for whatever may be accidentally used for this purpose: guns and swords are always arms; stones, brick-bats, and pitchforks, and also the tongue or words, may be occasionally weapons.

Louder, and yet more loud, I hear th' alarms, Of human cries, distinct and clashing arms.

Dhyden.
The cry of Talbot serves me for a sword, For I have loaded me with many spoils, Using no other weapon than his name.

Shagspeare.

## ARMY, HOST.

An ARMY is an organized body of armed men ; a HOST, from hostis, an enemy, is properly a body of hostile men. An army is a limited body; a host may be unlimited, and is therefore generally considered a very large body.
No more applause would on ambition wait, And, laying waste the world, be counted great; But one good-natured act more praises gain Than armies overthrown and thoussuds slain. JENYNS.
He it was whose guile, Stirr'd up with envy and revenge, deceiv'd The mother of mankind, what time his pride Had cast him out of heav'n, with all his $h$ nst Of rebel angels.

Milton.
The word army applies only to that which has been formed by the rules of art for purposes of war: host has been extended in its application not only to bodies, whether of men or angels, that were assembled for purposes of offence, but also in the figurative sense to whatever rises up to assail.
Tet true it is, survey we life around, Whole host of ills on every side are found.

Jenyns.

## ARROGANCE, PRESUMPTION.

ARROGANCE, in Freneh arrogance, Latin arrogantia, signifies the disposition to arrogate (v. To appropriate). PRESOMPTION, from presume, Latin prassu-
mo, compounded of prae, before, and stme, to take or put, signifies the disposition to put one's self forward.

Arrogance is the aet of the great; presumption that of the little: the arrogant min takes upon himself to be above others; the presumptuous man strives to be on a level with those who are above him. Arrogance is commonly coupled with haughtiness; presumption with meanness: men arrogantly demand as a right the homage which has perhaps before been voluntarily granted; the creature presumptuously arraigns the condnct of the Creator, and murmurs against the dispensations of His providence.
I must confess I was very much surprised to see so great a body of editors, critics, commentators, and grammarians meet with so very ill a reception.
They had formed themselves into a body, and, with a great deal of arroganee, demanded the first station in the column of knowledge; but the goddess, instead of complying with their request, clapped them into liveries. Adoison.

In the vanity and presumption of youth, it is common to allege the consciousness of innocence as a rcasou for the contempt of censure.

Hawkesworth.

## Ait, CUNNING, DECEIT.

ART, in Latin ars, probably comes from the Greek $a \rho \omega$, to fit or dispose, Hebrew haresh, to contrive, in which action the mental exercise of art principally consists. CUNNING is in Saxon cuning, German kennezd, knowing, in which sense the English word was formerly used. DECEIT, in Latin deceptum, partieiple of decipio, or $d e$ and capio, signifies to take by surprise or unawares.

Art implies a disposition of the mind to use circumvention or artificial means to attain an end: cunning marks the disposition to practise disguise in the prosecution of a plan: deceit leads to the practice of dissimulation and gross falsehood, for the sake of gratifying a desire. Art is the property of a lively mind; cunning of a thoughtful and knowing mind; deceit of an ignorant, low, and weak mind. Art is praetised often in self-defence; as a praetice, therefore, it is even sometimes justifiable, although not as a disposition: cunning has always self in view; the cunning man seeks his gratification without regard to others; deceit is often prac-
tiaed to the expreas injury of another: the deceitful man adopts base meana for base ends. Animals practise art when opposed to their superiors in strength; but they are not artful, as they have not that versatility of power which they can habitually exercise to their own advantage like human beinga; animals may be ounning, inasmuch as they can by contrivance and concealment seek to obtain the object of their desire, but no animal is deceitful except man: the wickedeat and stupidest of men have the power and the will of deceiving and practising falsehood upon athers, which is unknown to the brutes.

It has been a sort of maxim that tha greatest art is to conceal art; but I know not how, among aome people wa meat with, their greatest ounning is to appear ounning.

Stehise.
Ounning can in no circumstance imaginable ba a quality worthy a man except in his own dafence, and merely to conceal himaslf from such as are so, and in anch casas it is wisdom. Steere.

Though the living man can wear a mask and carry on deoeit, the dying Christian cannot counterfeit.

Cumberland.

## ARTFUL, ARTIFICLAL, FICTITIOUS.

ARTFUL, compounded of art and full, marks the quality of being full of art (v. Art). ARTIFIOIAL, in Latin artificialis, from ars and facio, to do, signifies done with art. FICTITIOUS, in Latin fictitius, from fingo, to feign, signifies the quality of being feigned.

Artful respects what is done with art or design; artificial what is done by the exercise of workmanship; fictitious what is made out of the mind. Artful and artifucial are used either for natural or moral objects; fictitious always for those that are moral: artful is opposed to what Is artless, artifleial to what is natural, fictitious to what is real: the ringlets of a lady's hair are disposed in an artful manner; the hair itself may be artificial: a tale is artful which is told $\ln$ a way to gain credit ; manners are artificial which do not seem to suit the person adopting them: a story is fuctitious which has no foundation whatever in truth, and is the Invention of the narrator. Children sometimes tell their stories so artfully as to impose on the most penctrating and experienced. Those who have no character of their own are induced to take an
artificial character in order to put them selves on a level with their associates. Beggars deal in fictitious tales of distress in order to excite compassion.

1 was much surprised to see tbe ants' nest which I had destroyed, very artfully repaired. AddiaOn.
If we compare two nations in an equal state of civilization, we may remark that where the greater freedom obtains, there the greater variety of artificial wants will obtain alao.

Cumberland
Among the numerous atratagems by which pride endagrora to recommend folly to regard, there is scarcely one that meets with less success than affectation, or a perpetnal disguise of the real character by fictitious appearances.

Johngon.

## ARTICLE, CONDITION, TERM.

ARTICLE, in French article, Latin articulus, a joint or a part of a member. CONDITION, in French condition, Latin conditio, from condo, to build or form, signifies properly the thing framed. TERM, in Frenoh terme, Latin terminus, a boundary, signifies the point to which one is fixed.

These words agree in their application to matters of compact. or understanding between man and man. Article nad candition are used in both numbers; terms only in the plural in this sense: the former may be used for any point individu. ally; the latter for all the points collectively : article is employed for all matters which are drawn out in specific articles or points; as the articles of an indenture, of a capitulation, or an agreement, Candition respects any point that is admitted as a ground of obligation or engagement: it is used for the general transactions of men, is which they reciprocally bind themselves to return certain equivalents. The word terms is employed in regard to mercantile transactions; as the terms of any bargain, the terms of any agreement, the terms on which anything is bought or sold. Articles are mostly voluntary; they are admitted by mutual agreement: con. ditions are frequently compulsory, sometimes hard; they are submitted to from policy or necessity; terms are dictated by interest or equity; they are fair, or unfair, according to the temper of the par. tiea; they are submitted or agreed to.

In tha mean time they have ordered the proliminary treaty to be poblished, with obserwe

Hons on each article, in order to quiet the minds of the people.

Steele.
The Trojan by his word Is bound to take
The same conditions which himself did make.
Dayden.
Those mountaing fll'd with flrs, that lower land, If you consent, the Trujans shall command; Call'd into part of what is ours, and there, On terms agreed, the common conutry share.

Dhyden.

## ARTIFICE, TRICK, FINESSE, STRATAGEM.

ARTIFICE, in French artifice, Latin artifex, an artificer, and artem facio, to execute an art, signities the performance of an art. TRIOK, in French tricher, German triegen, to deceive. FINESSE, a word directly imported from France with all the meaning attached to lt, which is characteristic of the nation itself, means properly fineness; the word fin, fine, signifying in French, as well as in the Northern languages from which it is taken, subtlety or mental acumen. STRATAGEM, in French stratageme, from the Greek $\sigma \tau \rho a r \eta \gamma \eta \mu a$ and $\sigma \tau \rho a \tau \eta \gamma \varepsilon \omega$, to lead an army, signifies by distinction to head them in carrying on any scheme.

All these terms denote the exercise of an art calculated to mislead others. Artifice is the generic term, the rest are specific: the former has likewise a partlcular use and acceptation distinct from the others; it expresses a ready dlsplay of art for the purpose of extricating one's self from a difficulty, or securing to one's self an advantage. Trick includes in it more of design to gain something for one's self, or to act secretly to the inconvenience of others: it is rather a cheat on the senses than tho understanding. Finesse is a species of artifice in which art and cunning are combiued in the management of a cause: It is a mixture of invention, falsehood, and concealment. Stratagem is a display of art in plotting and contriving, a disguised mode of obtaining an end. Females who are not guarded by fixed prineiples of virtue and uprightness are apt to practise artifices upon their husbands. Men without honor, or an honorable means of living, are apt to practise various tricks to impose upon others to their own advantage: every trade, therefore, is said to have its tricks; and professions are not entirely
clear from this stigma, which has been brought upon them by unworthy membet's. Diplomatic persons have most frequent recourse to finesse. Milltary operations are sometimes considerably forwarded by well-concerted and well-timed stratagems to surprlse the enemy.

Mortals, whose pleasures are their only care, First wish to be impos'd on, and then are; And, lest the fulsome artifice should fail, Themselves will lide its coarsenesa with a vell.

Cowper
Where men practise falsehood and show tricke with one another, there will be perpetual suspicions, evil surmisings, doubts, and jealousies.

Soute.
Another can't forgive the paltry arts
By which he makes his way to shallow heartsMere pieces of finesse, traps for applanse.

Cattichill
One of the most successful stratagems whereby Mohammed became formidable was the assurance that impostor gave his votaries, that whoever was slain in battle should be imfnediately conveyed to that luxuriona paradise his waiton fancy had invented.

Steele.
An artifice may be perfectly innocent when it serves to afford a friend an unexpeeted pleasure. A trick is childish which only serves to deceive or amuse children. Stratagems are allowable not in war only; the writer of a novel or a play may sometimes adopt a successful stratagem to cause the reader a surprise. Finesse is never justifiable; it carries with it too much of concealment and disingenuousness to be practised but for selfish and unworthy purposes.

Among the several artifices which are put in practice by the poets to fill the minds of arl audience with terror, the first place is due to thunder and lightring.

ADDIBON.
On others practise thy Ligurian atts;
The stratafems and tricks of little hearts
Are linst on me.
Dryden.
The king easily perceived a person of that plainness could not be guilty of those finesses and intriguen which were objected against him.

Cone
ARTIST, ARTISAN, ARTIFICER, MESCHANIC.
ARTIST is the practiser of the fine arts. ARTISAN the practiser of the vulgar arts. ARTIFICER, from ars and facio, one who does or makes according to art. MECHANIC, an artisan in a mechanic art.

The artist ranks higher than the arti
san; the former requires inteliectual refinement, the latter nothing but to kuow the common practice of art. The musician, painter, and seulptor are artists; the carpenter, the sigu-painter, and the blaeksmith are artisans. The artificer is an intermediate term between the artist and the artisan: manufacturers are $a r$ tificers; and, in an extended sense, any one who makes a thing by his contrivanee is an artificer. The mechanic is that species of artisan who works at arts purely mechanical, in distinction from those whieh contribute to the eompletion and embellishment of any objeets; on this ground a shoemaker is a mechanic, but a common painter is a simple artisan.
If ever this country saw an age of artists, it is the present; her painters, sculptors, and engravers are now the only schools properly so called.

CuFbehland.
The merchant, tradesman, and artisan, will have their profit upon all the multiplied wants, comforts, and indulgences of eivilized life.

Cumbenland.
Man must be in a certain degree the artificer of his own happiness; the tools and materials may he put into his hands by the bounty of Providence, but the workmanship must be his own.

Cumberland.
The concurring assent or the world in preferring gentlemen to mechir ices seems founded in that preference which the rational part of our nature is eutitled to above the animal.

Bantelett.

## TO ASCRIBE, impute, ATtribute.

To ASCRIBE signifies here generally to write or set down in one's own mind to a person (v. To appropriate), that is, to assign anythiug in one's estimate as the possession or the property of another, as to ascribe honor or power. To IMPUTE, from $i m$ or in aud puto, to think, is to form an estimate of a person; as to impute motives to a person, to impute a thing to a person's folly. To ATTRIBUTE, from at or ad and tribuo, to bestow, is to assign a thing as a cause; as to attribute the loss of a vessel to the violence of the storm.

Holiness is ascribed to the pope ; majesty to kings; serenity or milduess to prinees: excellenee or perfection to ambassadors; grace to arclibishops; honor to peers.

Addison.
Men, in their imovations, should follow the example of time, which imovateth, but quietly and by degrees scarce to be perceived, for otherwise what is new, and unlooked for, ever mends
some, and impairs others, and he that is hurt for a wrong imputeth it to the author. Bacon.

What is ascribed and imputed is mostly of a personal nature, either to honor or dishonor; ascribe more frequently for the former, impute for the latter. In the doxology of the church ritual, all honor, might, majesty, dominion, and power are ascribed to the three persons in the Holy Trinity; men of right minds cannot bear the slightest imputation on their honor, nor virtuous women the slightest imputation on their chastity.

It is a great presumption to ascribe our successes to onr own management, and not to esteem ourselves upon any blessing, rather as it is the bounty of heaven, than the acquisition of our own prodence.

ADIIson.
He must also do them the justice to declare that most of the descriptions are his own, and their faults must be imputed to him only.

Sir W. Jones.
Ascribe may, however, sometimes be employed in an unfavorable sense, and impute in a favorable sense. We may ascribe imperfection as well as perfection, and impute good as well as bad motives.
When we reflect on the divine nature, we are so used and aecustomed to imperfection in ourselves that we cannot forbear in some measure aseribing it to Him in whom there is no sladlow of imperfection.

Addison.
He performed always as good offices toward his old friends and all other persons, as the iniquity of the time and the nature of the employment he was in would permit him to do, which kind of hmanity could be imputed to very few.

Clarendon.
To ascribe may also denote to assign a cause, which brings it nearex in sense to attribute; but the former always refers to some charaeteristic of the person, and the latter, although applied to personal qualities, conveys no personal reflection.
Wherever this expedient has failed, it is always ascribed to the want of taith in the person, not to any want of efficacy in the veit. Bnydone.
This was, in some measure, owing to the ehanges in the times in which he lived; but is more to be attributed to the instability uf his character, which ever varied with the interesta of his ambition.

Granger.
To ascribe is always to assign to some individual person; but to attribute may either refer to no persons, or to none individually. Milton ascribes the first use of artillers to the devil: the Letters of Junius have been ascribed successively to
many as the author; the death of many persons may be attributed to intemperance.
The characters in the poem are no less imaginary than those in the episode, in which the invention is poetically aycribed to Mars, though it is certain the game was originally brought from India.

Sin W. Jones.
Perhaps it may appear upon examination that the most polite ages are the least virtuous. This may be attributod to the folly of admitting wit and learning as merit in themselves, without considering the application of them. Steele.

## TO ASK, BEG, REQUEST.

ASK is in Saxon ascian, low German asken, eschen, German heischen, Danish adske, Swedish asska; these in general signify to wish for, and are connected with the Greek aktow, to think worthy. BEG is contracted from the word beggar, and the German begehren, to dosire vehemently. REQUEST, in Latin requisitus, participle of requiro, is compounded of $r e$ and quaro, to seek or looi after with indications of desire to possess.

The expression of a wish to some one to have something is the common idea comprehended in these terms. As this is the simple signification of ask, it is the generic term; the other two are specific: we ask in begging and requesting, but not vice versa. Asking is peculiar to no rank or station; in consequence of our mutual dependence on each other, it is requisite for every man to ask something of another: the master asks of the servant, the servant asks of the master; the parent asks of the child; the child asks of the parent. Beoging marks a degree of dependence which is peculiar to inferiors in station: we ask for matters of indifference; we beg that which we think is of importance: a child asks a favor of his parent; a poor man begs the assistance of one who is able to afford it: that is asked for which is easily granted; that is begged which is with difficulty obtained. To ask, therefore, requires no effort; but to beg is to ask with importunity: 'hose who by merely asking find themselves unable to obtain what they wish, will have recourse to begging. As ask sometimes implies a demand, and beg a vehemence of desire, or strong degree of necessity, politeness has adopted another phrase, which conveys neither the impe-
riousness of the one, nor the urgency of the other; this is the word request. Ash. ing carries with it an air of superiority; begging that of submission; requesting has the air of independence and equality. Asking borders too nearly on an infringement of personal liberty; begging imposes a constraint by making sn appeal to the feelings; requests leave the liberty of granting or refusing unencumbered. It is the character of impertinent people to ask without considering the circumstances and situation of the person asked; they seem ready to take without permission that which is asked, if it be not granted: selfish and greedy people beg with im. portunity, aud in a tone that admits of no refusal; men of good-breeding tender their requests with moderation and discretion; they request nothing but what they are certain can be conveniently complied with.
Let him pursue the promis'd Latian shore, A short delay is all 1 ask him now,
A pause of grief, an interval from woe. Dayden,
But we must $b e g$ our bread in climes unknown, Beneath the scorching or the frozen zone.

Dixden.
But do not you my last request deny,
With yon perfidious man your int'rest try.
Dryden.
Ask is altogether exploded from polite life, although beg is not. We may beg a person's acceptance of anything; we may beg him to favor or honor us with his company; but we can never talk of asking a person's acceptance, or asking him to do us an honor. Beg in such cases indicstes a condescension which is sometimes not unbecoming, but on ordinary occasions request is with more propriety substituted in its place.

## TO ASK, OR ASK FOR, CLAIM, DENAND.

ASK, v. To ask; bcg. CLAIM, in French claimer, Latin clamo, to cry after, signifies to express an imperious wish for. DEMAND, in French demander, Latin de: mando, compounded of de and mando, ta order, signifies to call for imperatively.
$A s k$, in the sense of $b e g$, is confined to the expression of wishes on the part of the asker, without involving any obligation on the part of the person asked; all granted in this case is voluntary, or complied with as a favor; but ask for, in
the sense hers taken, is involuntary, and springs from the forms and distinctions of society. Ask is here, as before, generic or specific; claim and demand are specific: in its specific sonse it conveys a less penemptory scnss than eitber claim or demand. To ask for denotes simply the expressed wish to have what is considered as due; to claim is to assert a right, or to make it known; to demand is to insist on baving, without the liberty of a refnsal. Asking respects obligation in general, great or small; claim respects obllgations of importance. Asking for snpposes a right not questionable; claim supposes a right hitherto nnacknowlsdged; demand supposes either a disputed right, or the absence of all right, and the simple determination to have: a tradesman asks for what is owed to him as circumstanoes may require; a person claims the property he has lost; people are sometimes pleased to make demands, the legality of whioh cannot be proved. What is lent must bs asked for when it is wanted; whatever has been lost and is found must be recovered by a claim; whatever a selfish person wants, he strives to obtain by a demand, whether just or unjust.
Virtue with them is only to abstain
From all that nature caks, and covat pain.
Jenyns.
My country claims me all, claims ev'ry passion.
Martyn
Even monntains, vales,
And forests seem impatient to demand
The promis'd sweetress.
Thomson.

## TO ASK, INQUIRE, QUESTION, INTERROgath.

ASK, v. To ask, beg. INQUIRE, Latin inquiro, compounded of in and qucero, signifies to search after. QUESTION, in French questionner, signifies to put a question, from the Latin quastio and quemo, to seek or search, to look into. INTERROGATE, Latin interrogatus, partioiple of interrogo, compounded of inter and rogo, signifies to ask.

We perform all these actions in order to get information: but we ask for general purposes of convenience: we inguire from motives of curiosity; we question and interrogate from motives of diseretion. To ask respscts simply, ons thing ;
to inquire respects one or many subjects ; to question and interrogate is to ask repeatedly, and in the latter case more an. thoritatively than in the former. Indif. ferent people azk of each other what. ever they wish to know : learners inquird the reasons of things which are new to them: masters question their servants, or parents their children, when they wish to ascertain the real state of any case: magistrates interrogate criminals when they are brought before them. It is very nncivil not to answer whatever is asked even by the meanest person: it is proper to satisfy every iuquiry, so as to remove donbt: questions are sometimes so impertinent that they cannot with propriety be answered; interrogations from nnauthorized persons are little better than msults.

Upon my asking her who it was, she told me it was a very grave elderly gentleman, but that she did not know hia name. Addison.
Not only what is great, strange, or beautiful, but anything that is disagreeable when looked upon, pleases us in an apt description. Here we must inquire after a new principle of pleasure, which is nothing else but tha actions of tha mind, which compares the ideas that arise from words with the ideas that arise from objects themselves. Addison.
In order to pass away the evening, which now began to prow tedions, we fell into that landabla and primitive diversion of questions and commands.

Addison.
Thornson was introduced to the Prince of Wales, and being gayly interrogated about the state of his affairs, said that they were "in a more poetical postura than formerly." Johnson.

TO ASPERSE, DETRRACT, DEFAME, SLANDER, CALUMNIATE.
ASPERSE, in Latin aspersus, participls of aspergo, to sprinkle, signifies in a moral sense to stain with spots. DETRACT, In Latin detractus, participle of detraho, compounded of de and traha, to draw from, signifies to take from another that which is his due, or which he desires to retain; partionlarly to take from the merit of an action. DEFAME, in Latin defamo, compounded of the privative do and famo or fama, fame, signifies to deprive of reputation. SLANDER is donbtless connected with the words slur, sully, and soil, signifying to stain with some spot. CALUMNIATE, from the Latin calumnia, and the Hebrew calameh, infamy, signifies to load with infamy.

All these terms denote an effort made to injure the character or estimation by some representation. Asperse and detract mark an indirect reprcsentation; defame, slander, and calumniate, a positlve assertion. To asperse is to fix a moral stain on a character; to detract is to lessen its morits and excellences. Aspersions always imply something bad, real or supposed; detractions are always founded on some supposed good in the object that is detracted: to defame is openly to advance some serions charge against the character; to slander is to expose the faults of enother in his absence ; to calumniate is to communicate secretly, or otherwise, false circumstances to the injury of another. If I speak slightingly of my neighbor, and insinuate anything against the purity of his principles or the rectitude of his conduct, I asperse him: if he be a charitable man, and I ascribe his charities to a selfish motive, or otherwise take away from the merit of his conduct, I am guilty of detraction ; if I publish anything openly that injures his reputation, I am a defamer; if I com. municate to others the reports that are in circulation to his disadvantage, I am a slanderer: if I fabricate anything myself and spread it abroad, I am a calumniator.
It is certain, and observed by the wisest writers, that there are women who are not nicaly chaste, and men not severely honest, in all families; tharefore let those who may be apt to raise aspersions upon ours pleasa to give us an impartial account of their own, and we shall be satisfled.
What made their enmity the more entertaining to all the rest of their sex was, that in their detraotion from each other, neither could fall upon terms which did not hit herself as much as her advarsary.
What shall we say of the pleasure a man takes In a defamatory libel? Is it not a heinous sin in the slght of God?

Admison.
Slander, that worst of polsons, evar finds An easy entrance to ignoble minds. Herver.
The way to silence calumny, says Blas, is to be always exercised in ench things as are praiseworthy.

ADDIson.

## TO Asshmble, MUSTER, COLLECT.

ASSEMBLE, in French assembler, Latin adsimulare, or assimulare, from similis, like, and simul, together, signifies to make alike or bring together. MUSTER, in German mustern, to set out for inspec-
tion, in Latin monstror, to show or dis. play. COLLECT, in Latin collcetus, participle of colligo, compounded of col or con and ligo, to bind, signifies to bring to. gether, or into one point.

Assemble is said of persons only; mus. ter and collect of persons or thinge. To assemble is to bring together by a call or Invitation; to muster is to bring together by an act of authority, or a particular ef. fort, into one point of view at one time, and from one quarter; to collect is to bring together at different times, and from dif ferent quarters: the Parliament is assembled; soldiers are mustered every day in order to ascertain their numbers; an army is collected in preparation for war; a king assembles his council in order to consult with them on public measures; a general musters his forces before he undertakes an expedition, and collects more troops if he finds himself too weak.

## Ansemble all in choirs, and with their notes

 Salnte and welcome up the rising sun. OtwasHad we no quarrel to Rome but that
Thon art thance banished, wa would muster all
From tivalve to seventy.
Shakspeare.
Each leader now his scatter'd forca conjoins
In close array, and forms the deep'ning lines, Not with more ease the skilful shepherd swain Collects his flock, from thousands on the plain.

Pope.
Collect is used for everything which can be brought together in numbers; muster is used figuratively for bringing together, for an immediate purpose, whatever is in one's possession : books, coins, curiosities, and the like, are collected; a person's resources, his strength, courage, resolution, etc., are mustered; some persons have a pleasure in collecting all the pieces of antiquity which fall in their way; on a trying occasion it is necessary to muster all the fortitude of which we are master.

The form of this organ (the ear) is various In different animals, and in each of them the structure is very curious and observable, being in all admirably contrived to collect the wandering, circumambient impressions and undulations of sound.

DeRHAK
Oh I thou hast set my busy brann at work :
And now she musters np a train of images.
Rowe
TO ASSEMBLE, CONVFNE, CONVOKE.
ASSEMBLE, v. To assemble, muster. CONVENE, in Latin convenio, signifies
to come or bring together. CONVOKE, in Latin convoco, signifies to call together.

The idea of collceting many persons into one place, for a specific purpose, is common to all these terms. Assemble conveys this sense without any addition; convene and convoke include likewise some collateral idea: people are assembled, tbercfore, whenever they are convened or convoked, but not vice versa. Assembling ls mostly by the wish of one; convening by that of several: a crowd is assembled by an individual in the streets; a meeting is convened at the desire of a certain number of persons: people are assembled either on public or private business; they are always convened on a public occasion. A king assembles his parliament; a particular individual assembles his friends; the inhabitants of a district are convened. There is nothing imperative on the part of those that assemble or convene, and nothing binding on those assembled or convencd: one assembles or convenes by invitation or request; one attends to the notice or not, at pleasure. Convoke, on the other hand, is an act of authority; it is the call of one who has the authority to give the call; it is heeded by those who feel themselves bound to attend.

He ceas'd; the assembled warriors all assent, All but Atrides.

Cumberland.
They form onc social shade, as if convened By magie summons of the Orphean lyre.

Cowper.
Where on the mingling boughs they sit embower'd
All the hot noon, till cooler hours arrive.
Faint underneath, the household fowls convene.
Thomson.
Here cease thy fury, and the chiefs and kinge Convoke to council, weigh the sum of things.

ASSEMBLY, ASSEMBLAGE, GROUP, COLLECTION.

ASSEMBLY, ASSEMBLAGE, are collective terms derived from the verb assemble. GROUP comes from the Italian groppo, which among painters signifies an assemblage of figures in one place. COLLECTION expresses the act of collecting, or the body collected ( $v$. To assemble, muster).

Assenbly respects persons only ; assemblage, things only; group and collection, persons or things: an assembly is any
number either brought together, or come together of themselves; an assemblage is any number of things standing togetber; a group is come together by accident, or put together by design; a collection is mostly put or brought together by de sign. A general alarm will cause an as sembly to disperse: an agrecable assem blage of rural objects, whether in nature or in representation, constitutes a land scape: a painting will sometimes consis only of a group of figures; but if they be well chosen, it will sometimes produce a wonderful effect: a collection of evil minded persons ought to be immediately dispersed by the authority of the mag. istrate. In a large assembly you may sometimes observe a singular assemblagg of characters, countenances, and figures: when people come together in great num. bers on auy occasion, they will often form themselves into distinct groups: the col. lection of scarce books and curious ed. tions has become a passion, which is just. ly ridiculed under the title of Bibliomania_

Love and marriage are the natural effects $0^{*}$ these anniversary assemblies.

Budgell
Oh Hertford! fitted or to shine in courts With unaffected grace, or walk the plain With innocence and meditation join'd In soft assemblage, listen to my song.

Thomsor.
A lifeless group the blasted cattle lie.
Thomson
There is a manuscript at Oxford containing the lives of $q$ hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets, most of whom left very ample collections of their poems behind them.

Sir Wm. Joneg
ASSEMBLY, COMPANY, MEETING, CONGREGATION, PARIIAMENT, DIET, CONGRESS, CONVENTION, SYNOD, CONVOCATION, COUNCIL.
An ASSEMBLY (v. To assemble, muster) is simply the assembling together of any number of persons: this idea is common to all the rest of these terms, which differ in the ohject, mode, and other collateral circumstances of the action. COMPANY, a body linked together ( $v$ To ac. compuny), is an assembly for purposes of amusement. MEETING, a body met together, is an assembly for general pur. poses of business. CONGREGATION, a body flocked or gathered together, from the Latin grex, a flock, is an assembly
brought together from congeniality of sentiment and community of purpose. PaRLIAMENT, in French parlement, from parler, to speak, signifies an assembly for speaking or debating on important matters. DIET, from the Greek doarce, to govern, is an assembly for governing or regulating affairs of state. CONGRESS, from the Latin congredior, to march in a body, is an assembly coming together in a formal manner from distant parts for special purposes. CONVENTION, from the Latin convenio, to come together, is an assembly coming together in an informal and promiscuous manner from a neighboring quarter. SYNOD, in Greek $\sigma u v o \delta o g$, compounded of $\sigma v \nu$ and oסog, signifies literally going the same road, and has been employed to signify an assembly for consultation on matters of religion. CONVOCATION is an assembly convoked for an especial purpose. COUNCIL is an assembly for consultation either on civil or ecclesiastical affairs.

An assembly is, in its restricted sense, public, and under certain regulations: a company is provate, and confined to friends and aequaintances: a meeting is either public or private: a congregation is always public. Meetings are beld by all who have any common concern to arrange : congregations consist of those who pursue the same objects, particularly in matters of religion, althongh extended in its application to othor matters: all these different kinds of assemblies are formed by individuals in their private capacity; the other terms designate assemblies that come together for national purposes, with the exception of the word convention, which may be either domestic or political. A parliament and diet are popular assemblies under a monarchical form of government; congress and convention are assemblies under a republican government: of the first description are the parliaments of England and France, the diets of Germany and Poland, which consisted of subjects assembled by the monarch to deliberate on the affairs of the nation. Of the latter description are the congress of the United Provinces of Holland, and that of the United States of America, and the national convention of France: hat there is this difference observable between a con.
gress and a convention, that the former consists of deputies or delegates from higher authorities, that is, from independent governments already established; but a convention is a self-constituted assembly, which has no power but what it assumes to itself. A synod and convocation are in religious matters what a diet and convention are in civil matters: the former exists only under an episcopal form of government; the latter may exist under any form of church discipline, even where the authority lies in the whole body of the ministry. A council is more important than all other species of assembly; it consists of persons invested with the highest authorty, who, in their consultations, do not so much transact ordinary concerns as arrange the forms and fashions of things. Religious councils used to determine matters of faith and discipline; political councils frame laws and determine the fate of empires.
Lucan was so exasperated with the repulse that be muttered something to bimself, and was heard to say, "that, since he could not have a seat among them himself, he would bring in one who alone had more merit than their whole agBem. bly ;" upon which he went to the door and brought in Cato of Utica.

Aodison
As I am insigniflcant to the company in pub lic places, and as it is visible I do not come thith er as most do to show myaelf, I gratify the vanit) of all who pretend to make an appearance.

Steele
It is very natural for a man who ia not turne for mirthful meetinge of men, or as8emblies of the fair sex, to delight in that sort of conversa tion which we meet with in coffee-honses.

Steele.
Their tribea adjusted, clean'd their vig'rous wings,
And many a clrele, many a short esaay, Wheel'd round and round : in congregation fult The figur'd flight ascends.

Tromson.
As all innocent means are to be used for the propagation of truth, I would not deter those who are employed in preaching to common congregations from any practice which they may flud persuasive.

Johnson.
The word prerliament was flrst applied to general assemblies of the states under Louia VII. in France, abont the middle of the twelfth century.

Blackstone.
What further provoked thelr Indignation was that, instead of twenty-flve piatolea formerly allowed to each member for their charge in coming to the diet, he had presented them with aix only.

Steele.
Prior had not, however, much reason to complain ; for he came to London, and obtained anc:
notice that (in 1691) he was sent to the congress at the Hague, as secretary to the embassy.

Johnaon.
The office of conservators of the peace was nowly erected in Scotlsnd; and these, instigated by the clergy, were resolved, siace they could not obtain the lsingls consent, to summon in his name, but by their own authority, a convention of states.

Hume.
A oynod of the celestiels was convened, in Fhich it was resolved that Putronage should decend to the essistance of the scieaces.

Johmbon.
The convocation is the miniature of a paithament, wherein the archbishop presides with regel state.

Beackstone.
Inspir'd hy Juno, Thetis' godlike son, Conven'd to council all the Grecien train.

Pope.

## ASSENT, CONSENT, APPROBATION, CONCURHENCE.

ASSENT, in Latio assentio, is oompounded of as or ad and sentio, to think, aignifying to bring one's mind or judgment to a thing. CONSENT, v. To acoede. APPROBATION, io Latin approbatio, is oompounded of ad and probo, to prove, signifylag to make s thing out good. OONCURRENCE, v. To agree.
Aasent respeats matters of judgment; consent respeots matters of conduot. We assent to what we admit to be true; we consent to what we allow to be done. Assent masy be given to anything, whether positively proposed by another or not, but consent supposes that what is conrented to is proposed by some other person. Some men give their basty assent to propositions which they do not fully understand, and their hasty consent to measures which are very injudicious. It is the part of the true believer not merely to assent to the Cliristian doetrines, but to make them the rule of his life : those who consent to a bad action are partakers in the guilt of it.
Precept galns only the cold approbation of resson, and compels an askent which judgment frequently yields with reluctance, even when delay is impossible.

HAWEESWOBTH.
What in aleep thou didst abhor to drean,
Waking thou never wilt consent to do. Mrlton.
Assent and consent may sometimes be both applied to matters of judgment or abstract propositions, but in that case assent is the act of an individual, consent is the act of many individuals: oae assenta to that which is offered to his notice;
some things sre admitted by the common consent of mankind.

Feith is the assent to any proposition not thus made out by the deduction of resson, but upou the credit of the proposer.

Locke.
Whatever be the reason, it appears by the common consent of mankind that the want of virtue does not incur equal coutempt with the want of parta.

HawEesworth.
Approbation is a species of assent, concurrence of consent. To approve ls not merely to assent to a thing as right, but to determine upon it positively to be so; the word assent is applied therefore most properly to speculative matters, or matters of inference or deduction; approbation to practical matters or matters of conduct, as to give one's assent to a proposition in Euclid, to express one's approbation of a partioular measure.

The evidence of God's own testimony, added unto the netural aasent of reason, concerning the certainty of thinga, doth not a little comfort and confirm the same.

Hooksir.
There is as much difference between the approbation of the judgment and the actual volitions of the will with relation to the same object, as there is between a men's viewing a desireblo thing with his eye end hls reaohling efter it with his hand,

Souta.
Concurrence is properly the consent of many: consent may pass between two in. dividusle, namely, the party proposing and the party to whom the thing is proposed; but concurrence is always given by numbers: consent may be given by a party who has no personal loterest in the thlng consented to ; concurrence is given by those who have a common interest in the thing proposed: consent therefore passes between persons individually, concurrence between communities or between men collectively.

When thou censt truly call these vlrtues thine, Be wise and free, by lleeven's consent and mine. Dryden,
Tarquin the Proud was expelled by a universal concurrence of nobles and people. Swift,

Assent is given by equals or inferiors; it is opposed to contradiction or denial; consent is given by superiors, or these who have the power of preventing; it is opposed to refusal : approbation is given by equals or superiors, or those who have the power to withhold it; it is opposed to diapprobation: conewrrence is given
oy equals; it is opposed to opposition or rejection.

It is but a very little while before we thall all certainly be of this inlud-lhat the best thing we conid have done in this world was to prepare for another. Could I represent to yeu that invisible wnrld which I an speaking of, you would all readliy assent to this counsel.

Tillorson.
I am far frem exeusing or denying that compliance: for plenary consent it was not.

Kino Chazhes I.
That not past me, but
By learncd approbatton of my judges.
SHAKSPEARD.
Sir Matthew Hale mentions one case wherein the Lords may alter a money-bill (that is, from $\Delta$ greater to a less time)-here he says the bill need not be sent back to the Conmons for their concturrence.

Blackstone.
to assert, Maintain, vindicate.
To ASSERT, v. Tb affirm, assert. MAINTAIN, in French maintenir, from. the Latin manus and tenen, signifies to hold by the hand, that is, closely and firmly. VINDICATE, in Latin vindica. tus, participle of vindico, compounded of vim and dico, signifies to pronounce a violent or positive sentence.

To assert is to declare a thing as our own ; to maintain is to abide by what wo have so declared; to vindicate is to stand up for that which concerns ourselves or others. We assert anything to be true: we maintain it by adducing proofs, facts, or arguments; we vindicate our own con. duct or that of another when it is called in question. We assert boldly or impudently; we maintain steadily or obstinately; we vindicate resolutely or inso lently. A right or claim is asserted which is avowed to belong to any one; it is maintained when attempts are made to prove its justice, or regain its possession, the cause of the asserter or maintainer is vindicated by another. Innocence is asserted by a positive declaration; it is maintained by repeated assertions and the support of testimony; it is vindicated Shrough the interference of anothet. The most guilty persons do not hesitate to assert their linocence with the hope of inspiring credit; and some will persist in mazntainand it even after their guilt bas been pronounced; but the really in nocent man wlll never want a friend to vendicote him when his honor or his reputation is at atake. Assertions which are
made hastily and inconsiderately are seb dom long maintained withont exposing a person to ridicule; those who attempt to vindicate a bad cause expose themselves to as much reproach as if the cause were their own.

When the great soul buoys up to this high point Leaving gross nature'a sediments below, Then, and then only Adam's effspring quits The sage and hero of the fields and woods, Asserts his rank, and rises into man. Youne.

Sophecles also, In a fraginent of one of his tragedies, asserts the unlity of the Supreme Being.

Cumberland.
I am willing to believe that Dryden wanted rather skill to discover the right than virtue to maintain tt .

Jounson.
Tis just that $I$ sheuld vindicate alone
The broken truce, or for the breach atone.
DRyDEx.

## ASSOCIATE, COMPANION,

ASSOCIATE, in Latin associatus, par ticiple of associo, compounded of as or ad and socio, to ally, signifies one united with a person. COMPANION, from company, signifies one that bears company ( $v$. Tio $_{0}$ accompany).

Associates are habitually together : conpanions are only occasionally in compa ny. As our habits are formed frotn our associates, we ought to be particular in our choice of them: as our companione contribute much to our enjoyments, we ought to choose such as are suitable to ourselves. Many men may be admitted as compmonions, who would not altogether be fit as associates.

We sae many struggling single about the world, unhappy for want of an associate, and pinlug with the necessity of cenfining their sentiments to their own bosoms.

Johnson.
There is a degree of want by which the free dom of agency is almost destroyed, and leng as. soeiation with fertuitnus companions will at last relax the strietncss of truth, and abate the fervor of sincerity.

JOHNSON.
An assoczate may take part with us in some business, and share with us in the labor: a companion takes part with us in some conoern, and shares with us in the pleasure or the pain
Addison contribuied more than a fourth part (of the last volutite of thie Spectator), and the eth. er contributers are by no means unworthy of appearing as his associates.

Jehnson.
Thus while the cordage stretch'd ashore may gulde
Our brave companions through the owelitigg tide,

This floating lumber shall sustain them o'er The rocky shelves, in safety to the shore.

Falconea.

## ASSOCIATION, SOCIETY, COMPANY, PARTNERSHIP.

All these terms denote a union of several persons into one body. ASSOCLA. TION ( $v$. To associate) is general, the rest are specific. Whenever we habitually or firequently meet together for some common object, it is an association. Associations are therefore political, religious, commercial, and literary. A SOCIETY is an association for some specific purpose, moral or religious, civil or political. A COMPANY is an association of many for the purpose of trade. A PARTNERSHIP is an association of a few for the eame object.

Whenever association is used in distinction from the others, it denotes that which is partial in its object and temporary in its duration. It is founded on unity of sentiment as well as unity of object; but it is mostly unorganized, and kept together ouly by the spirit which gives rise to it. A society requires nothing but unity of object, which is permanent in its nature; it is well organized, and commonly set on foot to promote the cause of humanity, literature, or religion. No country can boast such numerous and excellent societies, whether of a charitable, a religious, or a literary description, as England. Companies are brought together for the purposes of interest, and are dissolved when that object ceases to exist: their duration depends on the contingencies of profit and loss. The South Sea Company, which was founded on an idle speculation, was formed for the ruin of many, and dispersed almost as soon as it was formed. Partnerships are altogether of an individual and private nature. As they are without organization and system, they are more precarious than any other associatron. Their duration depends not only on the chances of trade, but the compatibility of individuals to co-operate in a close point of union. They are often begun rashly, and end ruinously.

[^13]common enemies, whatever side they may be long to.

Annison.
What I humbly propose to the public is, that there may be a society erected in London, ta consist of the most skilful persons of both sexes, for the inspection of modes and fasbions.

Bubarle.
The nation is a company of players.
ADDISon,
Gay was the general favorite of the whole association of wits; but they regarded him as a playfellow rather than a partner, and treated hin with more fondness than respect. Jonnson.

Socisty is a partnership in all science; A partnership in every virtue and in all perfection.

Borke.
ASSOCIATION, COMBINATION.
ASSOCIATION, v. Associate. COMBINATION, from the Latin combino, or con and binus, sigoifies tying two into one.

An association is something less binding than a combination: associations are formed for purposes of convenience; combinations are formed to serve either the interests or passions of men. The word association is therefore always taken in a good or an 1adifferent sense; combination in an indifferent or bad sense. An association is public; it embraces all classes of mea: a combrnatzon is often private, and includes only a particular description of persons. Associations are formed for some general purpose; combinations are frequently formed for particular purposes, which respect the interest of the few, to the injury of many. Associations are formed by good citizens; combnations by discontented mechanics, or low persons in general.

In my yesterday's paper I proposed that the honest men of all parties should enter into a kind of association for the defence of one another.

ADDISON.
There is no donbt but all the safety, happiness, and convenience that men enjoy in this life is from the combination of particnlar persons into societies or corporations.

South.
The cry of the people in cities and towns, though unfortunately (from a fear of their multitude and combination) the most regarded, ought in fact to be the least regarded, on the subject of monopoly.

Buraen
When used for things, association is a natural action; combination an arbitrary action. Things associate of themselves, but combinations are formed either by design or accident. Nothing will associate but what harmonizes; things the most opposite in their nature may be combined
cogether. We associate persons with places, or events with names; discordant properties are combined in the same body. With the name of one's birthplace are aysociated pleasurable recollections; virtue and vice are so combined in the same character as to form a contrast. The association of ideas is a remarkable phenomenon of the human mind, but it can never be admitted as solving any difficulty respecting the structure and composition of the soul; the combination of letters forms syllables, and that of syllables forms words.
Meekness and courtesy will always rccommend the first address, but soon pall and nauseate unless they are associated with mora sprightly qualities.

Johnson.
Before the time of Dryden, those happy combinations of words which distinguish poetry from prose had been rarely attempted. Jounson.

## ASSURANCE, CONFIDENCE.

ASSURANCE implies either the act of making another sure (v. To affirm), or of being sure one's self. CONFIDENCE inplies simply the act of the mind in confiding, which is equivalent to a feeling.

Assurance, as an action, is to confidence as the means to the end. We give a person an assurance in order to inspire him with confidence. Assurance and confidence, as a sentiment in ourselves, may respect either that which is external of us, or that which belongs to ourselves; in the first case they are both taken in an indifferent sense: but the feeling of assurance is much stronger than that of confidence, and applies to objects that interest the feelings; whereas confidence applies only to such objects as exercise the understanding: thus we have an assurance of a life to come; an assurance of a blessed immortality: wa have a confidence in a person's integrity.

I appeal to posterity, says 庣schylus; to posterity I consecrated my works, in the assurance that they will meet that reward from time which she partiality of my contemporaries refuses to nestow.

Cumberland.
All the arguments upon which a man who is telling the private affairs of another may ground his confidence of security, he must, upon refiection, know to be uncertain, because he finds them without effect upon himself. Jounson.

As respects ourselves exclusively, assurance is employed to designate either an
occasional feeiing or a habit of the mind: confidence, an occasional fecling mostly. assurance, therefore, in this sense, may be used indifferently, but in general it has a bad acceptation: confidence has an indifferent or a good sense.

I never sit silent in company when secret history is talking, hut I am reproached for want of asburance. Jounson
The hope of fame is Decessarily connected with such considerations as must abate the ardor of confidence, and repress the vigor of pursult.

Joinson,
Assurance is a self-possession of the mind, arising from the conviction that all in ourselves is right; confidence is that self-possession only in particular cases, and grounded on the reliance we have in our abilities or our character. The man of assurance never loses himself under any circumstances, however trying; he is calm and easy when another is abashed and confounded: the man who has confidence will generally have it in cases that warrant bim to trust to himself. A liar utters falsehoods with an air of assurance, in order the more effectually to gain belief; conscious innocence enables a person to speak with confidence when interrogated. Assurance shows itself in the bchavior, confudence in the conduct. Young people are apt to assert everything with a tone of assurance; no man should undertake anything without a confidence in himself.
Modests, the daughter of Knowledge, and Aasurance, the offspring of Ignorance, met accidentally upon the road; and as bath had a long way to go, and had experienced from former hardships that they ware alike unqualified to pursue their journey alone, they agreed, for their mutual advantage, to travel together. Moore.

I must observe that there is a vicions modesty which justly deserves to be ridiculed, ard which those very persons often aiscover who value themselves most upon a well-bred confidence. This happens when a man is ashamed to act up to his reason, and would not, upon any consideration, be surprised in the practice of those dutles for the performance of which he was sent into the world.

Addison.

## ASSURANCE, IMPUDENCE.

ASSURANCE, v. Assurance, confidence IMPUDENCE literally implies shameless ness. They are so closely allied to each other that assurance is distinguished from impudence more in the manner than the spirit; for impudence has a grossness at
tached to it which does not helong to assurance. Vulgar people arc impudent, because they have assurance to break throngh all the forms of society; but those who are more cultivated will have their assurance controlled by its decencies and refinements.

A man of asaurance, though at first it only lenoted a person of a free and open carriage, is now very usually applied to a profligate wretch, who can break through all the rules of decency and morality without a blush. I shall endeavor, therefore, in this essay, to restore these words to their true meaning, to prevent the idea of modenty from being coufounded with that of shoepishness, and to hinder impudence from passing for assurance.

Budgele.

## ASTRONOMY, ASTROLOGY.

ASTRONOMY is compounded of the Greek a $\quad \pi \tau \eta$ and $\nu o \mu o s$, and signifies the laws of the stars, or a knowledge of their laws. ASTROLOGY, from aorno and doyogr signifies a reasoning on the stars.

The astronomer studies the course and movement of the stars; the astrologer reasons on their influence. The former observes the state of the heavens, marks the order of time, the eclipses and the revolutions which arise out of the established laws of motion in the immense universe: the latter predicts events, draws horoscopes, and announces all the vicissitudes of rain and snow, heat and cold, etc. The astronomer calculates and seldom errs, as his calculations are built on fixed rules and actual observations; the astrologer deals in conjectures, and his imagination often deceives him. The astronomer explains what he knows, and merits the esteem of the learned; the astrologer hazards what be thinks, and seeks to please.

## ASYLUM, REFUGE, SHELTER, RETREAT.

ASYLUM, in Latin asylum, in Greek $a \sigma v \lambda o v$, compounded of $a$, privative, and चu $\lambda \eta$, plunder, signifies a place exempt from plunder. REFUGE, in Latin refugium, from refugio, to fly away, signifies the place one may fiy away to. SHELTER comes from shell, in high German schalen, Saxon sceala, etc., from the Hebrew cala, to hide, signifying a cover or biding-place. RETREAT, in French retraite, Latin retractus, from retraho, or re and traho, to draw back, signifies the
place that is situated behind, or in the background.

Asylum, refuge, and shelter, all denote a place of safety; but the former is fixed, the two latter are occasional: the retreat is a place of tranquillity rather than of safety. An asylum is chosen by him who has no home, a refuge by him whe is apprehensive of danger: the French emigrants found a refuge in England, but very few will make it an asylum. The inclemencies of the weather make us seek a shelter. The fatigues and toils of life make us seek a retreat. It is the part of a Christian to afford an asylum to the helpless orphan and widow. The terri fied passenger takes refuge in the first house he comes to, when assailed by an evil-disposed mob. The vessel shattered in a storm takes shelter in the nearest baven. The man of business, wearied with the anxieties and cares of the world, disengages himself from the whole, and seeks a retreat suited to his circumstances.

The adventurer knows he has not far to go before he will meet with some fortress that has been raised by sophistry for the asylum of error.

Hawkestorth.
Superstition, now retiring from Rome, may yet find refuge in the mountains of Thibet.

Comberlafd.
In rueful gaze
The cattle stand, and on the scowling heavens
Cast a deploring eye, by man forsook ;
Who to the crowded cottage hies him fast,
Or seeks the shelter of the downward cave.
Thomson,
For this, this only favor let me sue,
If pity can to conquer'd foes be due :
Refuse it not, but let my body have
The last fetreat of human kind, a grave.
Dryonm
TO ATONE FOR, EXPIATE.
ATONE, or at one, signifies to be at peace or good friends. EXPIATE, in Latin expiatus, participle of expio, compounded of ex and pio, signifies to put out or make clear by an act of piety.

Both these terms express a satisfaction for an offence; but atone is general, expiate is particular. We may atone for a fault by any species of suffering; we expiate a crime only by suffering a legal punishment. A female often sufficiently atones for her violation of chastity by the misery she entails on herself; there are too many unfortumate wretches in Eng
land who expiate their crimes on a gallows.

Oh let the blood, already spilt, atone For the past crimes of curs'd Laumedon.

Dryden.
How sacred ought kings" lives be held, When but the death of one
Demands an emplre's blood for coopiation f
Lee.
Neither atonement nor expiation always necessarily require puniahment or even auffering from the offender. The nature of the atonement dependa on the nature of the offence or will of the individual who is offended; expiations are frequently made by means of performing certain religious rites or acts of piety. Offences between man and man are sometimes atoned for by an acknowledgment of error; but offences toward God require an expiatory sacrifice, which our Saviour has been pleased to make of himaelf, that we, through him, might become partakers of eternal life. Expiation, therefore, in the religious aense, is to atonement as the means to the end: atonement is often obtajned by an expiation, but there may be expiations where there is no atonement.

I would eurnestly desire the story-teller to consider, thet no whlt or mirth at the end of a story can atone for the half-hour theat has been lost before they come at it.

Steree.
Not all the pow'r of verse with magic join'd Can heal the torture of a love-sick mind; Altars may smoke with ecoptatory fire, Too weak to make a well-flxed love retire.

Potter.

## ATTACHMENT, AFFECTION, INCLINATION.

ATTACHMENT (v. To adhere) respects peraons and things : AFFECTION (v. Affection) regards persons only: INCLINA. TION, denoting the act of inclining, has respect to things mostly, but may be applied to objecta generally.

Attachment, aa it regarde persons, is not so powerful or aolid as affection. Children are attached to those who will miniater to their gratifications; they have an affection for their nearest and dearest relatives. Attachment is sometimes a tender aentiment between persons of different sexes: affection is an affair of the heart without distinction of aex. The passing attaohments of young people are seldom entitled to serious notice; al-
though sometimes they may ripen by a long intercourse into a laudable and ateady affection. Nothing is no delightful as to see affection among brothers and aisters.

Though devoted to the study of philosophy, snd a great master in the eurly science of the times, Solon mixed with cheerfulness in society, and did not hold back from those tender ties and attach ments which connect a man to the world.

Cumberlann
When I was sent to school the geyety of m; look, and the Hveliness of my loquacity, soon gulned me admission to hearts not yet fortifled against affection hy artifice or interest.

## Johnsom

Attachment is a something more powerful and positive than inclination: the latter is a rising sentiment, a mere leaning of the mind toward an object; the former is a feeling already fixed so as to create a tie; an attachment is formed, an inclination arises in the mind of itself.

My only dislike arose from an attaohment he discovered to my deughter.

Goidsmita.
I am gled that he whum I must have loved from duty, whatever he had been, is such a one as I can love from incination.

Stenile.
In respect to things, attachment and $i n$ clination admit of a similar distinction. We strive to obtain that to which we are attached, but a simple inclination rarely produces any effort for possession. Little minds are always betraying their attach. ment to trifles. It ia the character of indifference not to show an inclination to anything. Interest, aimilarity of character, or habit, gives tise to attachment; a natural warmth of temper gives birth to various inclinations. Suppress the first inclination to gaming, leat t.t grow into an attachment.

The Jews are remarksble for an attachment to their own country.

ADDLBON.
A mere inolination to a thing is not properly the willing of that thiug, and yet in matters of duty men frequently reckon it as such. South.

## TO ATTACK, ASSAII, ASSAULT, ENCOUNTER.

ATTACK, in French attaquer, changed from attacher, in Latin attactum, participle of attingo, aignifies to bring into close contact. ASSAIL, ASSAULT, in French assaillir, Latin assilio, assaltum, compounded of as or ad and salio, aig. nifies to leap upon. ENCOUNTER, in

French rencontre, compounded of en or in and contre, in Latin contra, agaiost, signifies to run or come against.
Attack is the generic, the rest are specific terms. To attack is to make an approach in order to do some violence to the person; to assail or assault is to make a sudden and vehement attack; to ensounter is to meet the attack of another. One attacks by simply offering violence without necessarily producing an effect; one assails by means of missile weapons; one assautts by direct personal violence; one encounters by opposiug violence to violence. Men and animals attack or encounter; men only, in the literal sense, assail or assault. Animals attack each other with the weapons nature has bestowed upon them: those who provoke a multitude may expect to have their houses or windows assailed with stones, and their persons assaulted: it is ridiculous to attempt to encounter those who are superior in strength and prowess.
When they (the Grecians) eudesvored to possess themselves of a town, it was usurl first to attempt it by storm, surrounding it with their whole army, pild attacking it in all quarters at once.

POTTEA.
So when he saw his flatt'ring arts to fail, With greedy force he 'gan the fort t' assail.

Spenser.
And double death did wretehed man invade, By steel assaulted, and by gold letrayed.

Dryden.
Putting themselves in order of battle, they encountered their enemies.

Knolles.
They are all used figuratively. Men attack with reproaches or censures; they assail with abuse; they are assaulted by temptations; they encounter opposition and difficulties. A fever attacks; horrid shrieks assail the ear; dangers are encountered. The reputations of men in public life are often wantonly attacked; they are assailed in every direction by the murmurs and complaints of the discontented; they often encounter the obstacles which party spirit throws in the way, without reaping any solid advautage to theraselves.
The women might possibly have carried this Gothic building higher, had not a famous monk, Thomas Connecte by name, attacked it with great zeal and resolution.

Addison.
Not truly penitent, but chief to try
Her husluand, how far nrg'd his patience bears, His virtue or weakness which way to assail.

Milton,

It is sumficient that you are able to encounted the templations which now assault yon: when God sends trials, he may send strength.

Bp. Taylor.

## ATTACK, ASSAULT, ENCOUNTER, ONSET, CHARGE.

ATTACK, ASSAULT, ENCOUNTER ( v . To attack), denote the act of attacking, assaulting, encountering. ONSET signifies a setting on or to, a commencing CHARGE (v. To accuse) signifies pressing upon.
An attack and assault may be made upon an unresisting object: encounter, onset, and charge require at least two opposing parties. An attack may be slight or indirect; an assault must always be direct, and mostly vigorous. An attack upon a town need not be attended with any injury to the walls or inhabitants; but an assault is commonly conducted so as to effect its capture. Attacks are made by robbers upon the person or property of another; assaults upon the person only. An encounter generally respects an informal casual meeting between single individuals; onset and charge a regular attach between contending armies: onset is employed fur the commencemeut of the bat. tle; charge for an attack from a particular quarter. When knight-errantry was in vogue, encounters were perpetually tak. ing place between the knights, which were sometimes fierce and bloody. Armies that make impetuous onsets are not always prepared to withstand a continued attack with perseverance and steadiness. A furious and well-directed charge from the cavalry will sometimes decide the fortune of the day.

There is one species of diversion which has not been generally condenined, thongb it is produced by an attack upon those who have not voluntarily entered the lists; who find themselves buffeted in the dark, and have neither means of defence nor possibility of advantage.

Haweesworts.
We do not find the meekness of a lamb in a cresture so armed for battle and assault as the lion.

ADDISON.
Aud snch a frown
Each cast at th' other, as when two black clonds, With heav'n's artillery fraught, come rattling on, Hovering a space, till winds the signal blow, To join their dark encounter in mid-air.

Milton
Onsets in love seem best, like thoge in war, Fierce, resolute, and done with all the force.
0) my Antonio I I'm all on fire; My soul is up in arms, ready to charge, And bear amidst the foe with eonq'ring troops. Conoreve.

## ATTEMPT, TRIAL, ENDEAVOR, EFFORT, ESSAY.

ATTEMPT, in French attenter, Latin attento, from at or $a d$ and tento, signifies to try at a thing. TRIAL, from try, in French tenter, Hebrew tur, to stretch, signifies to stretch the power. ENDEAV. OR, compounded of en and the French revisir, to owe, signifies to try according to one's duty. EFFORX, in French effort, from the Latin effert, present tense of effero, compounded of $e$ or $\rho x$ and fero, signifies a bringing out or calling forth the strength. ESSAY, in French essayer, comes probably from the German ersuchen, compounded of er and suchen, to seek, written in old German suahhen, and is doubtless connected with sehen, to see or look after, signifying to aspire after, to look up to.

To attempt is to set about a thing with a view of effecting it; to try is to set abont a thing with a view of seeing the result. An attempt respects the action with its object; a trial is the excrcise of power. We always act when we attempt ; we use the senses and the understanding when we try. We attempt by trying, but we may try without attempting: when a thief attempts to break into a house, he first tries the locks and fastenings, to see where he can most easily gain admittance. Men attempt to remove evils; they try experiments. Attempls are perpetually made by quacks to recommend some scheme of their own to the notice of the public, which are often nothing more than trials of skill to see who can most effectually impose on the credulity of mankind. Spirited people make attempts; persevering people make trials; players attempt to perform difforent parts, and try to gain applanse. An endeavor is a continued attempt. Attempts may be fruitless; trials may be vain; endeavors, though unavailing, may be well meant. Many attempts are made which exceed the abilities of the attempter; attempts at imitation expose the imitator to ridicule when they do not succeed; trials are made in matters of speculation, the results of which are uncertain; endeavors
are made in the moral concerns of life People attempt to write books; they trg various methods ; and endeavor to obtain a livelihood.

A natural and unconstrained behavior has something in it so arreeable that it is no wonder to see prople endeavoring after it. But at tha same time it is so very hard to hit, when it is not born with us, that people often make themselves ridiculors in attempting it.

ADDISOX
To bring it to the trial, will you dare
Our pipes, our skill, our voices to compare?
Dayden.
Whether or no (said Socrates on tbe day of his execution) God will approve of my actions I know not ; but this I am sure of, that I have at all times made it my endeavor to please him.

ADDison.
An effort is to an attempt as a means to an end; it is the act of calling forth those powers which are required in an attempt. Great attempts frequently require great effort, either of body or mind.
The man of sagacity bestirs himself to distress his enemy by methods probable and reducible to reason; so the same reason will fortify his encmy to elude these his regular efforts: but your fool projects with such notable inconsistency, that no course of thought can evade his machinations.

Steele.
An essay is an imperfect attempt, or attempt to do something which cannot be done without difficulty. It is applied either to corporeal or intellectual matters.

I afterward made several essoys toward speaking.

Addison.
Whence treatises which serve as attempts to illustrate any point in morals are termed essays.
This treatise prides itself in no hlgher a title than that of an essay, or imperfect attempt at a subject.

Glanvilee.

## ATTEMPT, UNDERTAKING, ENTERPRISE.

ATTEMPT ( $v$. To attempt) signifies the thing attempted. UNDERTAKING, from undertake, or take in hand, signifies the thing taken in hand. ENTERPRISE, from the French entrepris, participle of entreprendre, to undertake, has the same original sense.
The idea of something set about to ba completed is common to all these terms. An attempt is less complicated than an undertaking; and that less arduous than an enterprise. Attempts are the commov
exertlons of power for obtaining an object: an undertaking involves in it many parts and particulars which require thought and judgment : an enterprise has more that is hazardous and dangerous in it; it requires resolution. Attempts are frequeutly made on the lives and property of individuals; undertakings are formed for private purposes; enterprises are commenced for some great national object. Nothing can be effected without making the attempt; attempts are therefore often idle and unsuccessful, when they are made by persons of little discretion, who are eager to do somethiag without knowing how to direct their powers: undertakings are of a more serious nature, and involve a man's serious ioterests; if begun without adequate means of bringing them to a conclusion, they too frequently briag ruin by their failure on those who are concerned in them: enterprises require persoaal aacrifices rather than those of interest; be who does not combine great resolution and perseverance with considerable bodily powers, will be ill-fitted to take part in grand enterprises.
Why wilt thou rush to certain death and rage, In rash attampts beyond thy tender age? Dividen.
When I hear a man complain of his being unfortunate in all his undertakings, I shrewdly suspect bim for a very weak man in bis affairs. Ammison.
There would be few anterprises of great labor or hazard indertaken, if we had not tbe power of magnifying the advantages which we persuade ourselves to expect from them.
TO ATtEND TO, MIND, REGARD, HEED, NOTICE.
ATTEND, in French attendre, Latin attendo, compounded of at or ad aad tendo, to stretch, signifies to stretch or bend the mind to a thiog. MIND, from the nonn mind, signifies to have in the mind. REGARD, in French regarder, compounded of re and garder, comes from the German wahren, to see or look at, signifying to look upon agaia or with attention. HEED, in German hüten, is in all probability conaected with vito, and the Latin video, to gee or pay attention to. NOTICE, from the Latin notitia, knowledge, signifies to briog to the knowledge of, or bring to one's mind.
The idex of fixing the mind on an ob-
ject is common to all these terms. As this is the characteristic of attention, at. tend is the generic; the rest are specifio terms. We attend io minding, regarding, heeding, and noticing, and also in many cases in which these words are not employed. To mind is to attend to a thing, so that it may not be forgotten; to regard is to look on a thing as of importance; to heed is to attend to a thing from a principle of caution; to notice is to think on that which atrikes the senses. We attend to a apeaker when we hear and understand his words; we mind what is said when we bear it in mind; we regard what is aaid by dwelling and reflecting on it; heed is given to whatever awakens a sense of danger; notice is taken of what passes outwardly. Children should always attend when apo ken to, and mind what is said to them; they should regard the counsels of their parents, so as to make them the rule of their cooduct, and heed their warnings so as to avoid the evil; they should notice what passes before theio, so as to apply it to some useful purnose. It is a part of politeaess to attend to every minute circumstance which affects the comfort and convenience of those with whom we associate: men who are actuated by any passion seldom pay aay regard to tha dictates of conscience, nor heed the nnfavorable impressions which their conduct makes on others, for in fact they seldom think what is said of them to be worth their notice.
Conversation will naturally furnish us with hints which we did not attend to, and make ns enjoy other men's parts and reflections as well as our own.

ADDigon.
Cease to request me, let us mind our way, Another song requires another day. DRTDEN.
The voice of reason is more to be regarded than the bent of any present inclination.

ADDison.
Ah I why was ruin so attractive made,
Or why fond man so easily betray'd?
Why heed we not, while mad wo haste along, The gentle voice of peace or pleasure's song?

Collins.
I believe that the knowledge of Dryden was alcaned from accidental intelligence and various conversation, by vigilance that permitted nothing to pass withont notice.

Johmaon.

## TO ATTEND, WAIT ON.

ATTEND (v. To attend to) is here employed in the improper sense for the de
potion of the person to an object. Te WAIT ON is the same as to wait for or expect the wishes of another. They may be either partial and temporary acts, or permanent acts; in either case attend has a bigher siguification than wait on. Attendance is for the purpose of discharging some dnty, as a plysician attends his patient; a member attends in Parliament: waiting on is cither a matter of courtesy between equals, as one gentleman waits on another to whom he wishes to show a mark of respect; or a matter of business, as a tradcsman waits on his customers to take orders.

Having till lately attendad them (the committees) a good deal, I have observed that no description of members give so little attendance as the honorable members of the grave Board of Trade.

Buaxe.
Behold him, humbly cringing, wait Upon the minister of state.

SWipt.
In the sense of being permanently aheut the person of any one, to attend is to bear company or be in readiness to serve; to wait on is actually to perform some service. A nurse attends a patient in erder to afford him assistance as occasion requires; the servant waits on him to perform the menial duties. Attendants about the great are always ncar the person; but men and wemen in waiting are always at call. People of rank and fashien have a crowd of attendants; those of the middle elasses bave only those who wait on them.

At length her lord descends upon the plain In pomp, attended wlth a num'rons train. Dryben,
One of Pope's constant demands was of coffee In the night; and to the woman that ranited on him in his chamber he was very burdensome; but he was careful to recompense her want of sleep.

Johnson.
TO ATTEND, HEARKEN, LISTEN.
ATTEND, $v$, To attend to. HEARKEN, in German horchen, is an intensive of hären, to hear. LISTEN prebably comes from the German lüuten, to lust after, because listening springs from an eager desire to hear.
Attend is a mental action; hearken, both corpereal and mental ; listen simply cerpereal. Te attend is to have the mind ongaged on what we hear; to hearken and listen are to strive to hear. People attend
when they are addressed; they hoarken to what is said by others; they listen to what passes between others. It is always proper to attend, and mostly of importance to hearken, but frequently improper to listen. The mind that is occupied with another object cannot attend: we are not disposed to hearken when the thing deas not appear interesting; curiosity often impels to listening to what does not concern the listener.
Hush'd winds the topmost branches scarcelb bend,
As if thy tuneful song they did attond.
Detien.
What a deluge of lust and frand and violence would in a little time overflow the whole nation, if these wise adrocates for morality the freethinkers) were universally hearkened to!

BEGKELET.
While Chaos hush'd stands listening to the noise,
And wonders at confusion not his own.
Dennis.
Listen is sometimes used figuratively in the sense of hearkening with the desire te prefit by it: it is necessary at all times to listen to the dictates of reason.

Stay, stay your steps, and listen to my vows, Tis the last interview that fate allows.

Deyden.

## ATTENTION, APPLICATION, STUDY.

These terms indicate a direction of the thoughts to an object, but differing in the degree of steadiness and force. ATTTEN. TION ( $v$. To attend to) marks the simple bending of the mind. APPLICATION ( $v$. To address) marks an envelopment or engagement of the powers; a bringing them inte a state of close centact. STUDY, from the Latin studeo, to desire eagerly, marks a degree of application that arises from a strong desire of attaining the object.

Attention is the first requisite fer making a progress in the acquirement of knowledge; it may be given in various degrees, and it rewards according to the propertion in which it is given: a divided attention is, however, more hurtful than otherwise ; it retards the progress of the learner, while it injures his mind by improper exercise. Application is requisite for the attainment of perfection in any pursuit ; it cannot be partial or variable, like attention; it must be the constant
exercise of power or the regular and uniform use of means for the attainment of an end: youth is the period for opplication, when the powers of body and mind are in full vigor; no degree of it in afterlife will supply its deficiency in younger years. Study is that specics of application which is most purely intellectual in its nature; it is the exercise of the mind for itself and in itself, its native effort to arrive at maturity; it embraces both attention and application. The student attends to all be hears and sees; applies what he has learned to the acquirement of what he wishes to learn, and digests the whole by the exercise of reflection: as nothing is thoroughly understood or properly reduced to practise without study, the professional man must choose this road in order to reach the summit of excellence.

Those whom sorrow incapacitates to enjoy the pleasures of contemplation, may properly apply to such diversions, provided they are innocent, as lay strong hold on the attention. Jounson.

By too intense and continued application our feehle powers would soon he worn ont. Blair.

Other things may be seized with might, or purchased with money, but knowledge is to be gained only with study.

Jonnson.

## ATTENTIVE, CAREFUL.

ATTENTIVE marks a readiness to attend (v. To attend to). CAREFUL signifies full of care ( $v$. Care, solicitude).

These epithets denote a fixedness of mind: we are attentive in order to understand and improve: we are careful to avoid mistakes. An attentive scholar profits by what is told him in learning his task: a careful scholar performs his exercises correctly. Attention respects matters of judgment; care relates to mechanical action: we listen attentively; we read or write carefully. A servant must be attentive to the orders that are given him, and careful not to injure his master's property. A translator must be attentive; a transcriber careful. A tradesman ought to be attentive to the wishes of his customers, and areful in keeping his accounts.
The use of the passions is to stir up the soul, to awaken the understanding, and to make the whole man more vigorous and attentive in the prosecution of his designs.

Addison.
We shonld be as careful of our words as our actions, and as far from speaking as doing ill.

Steble.

## TO ATTRACT, ALLURE, INVITE, ENGAGE.

ATTRACT, in Latin attractum, partici ple of attraho, compounded of at or ad and traho, signifies to draw toward. AL LURE, v. To allure. INVITE, in French inviter, Latin invito, compounded of $i n$, privative, and vito, to avoid, signifies the contrary of a voiding, that is, to seek or ask. ENGAGE, compounded of en or in and the Freach gage, a pledge, signifies to bind as by a pledge.

That is attractive which draws the thoughts toward itself; that is alluring which awakens desire; that is inviting which offers persuasion; that is engaging which takes possession of the mind. The attention is attracted; the senses are allured; the understanding is invited; the whole mind is engaged. A particular sound attracts the ear; the prospect of gratification allures; we are invited by the advantages which offer; we are engaged by those which already accrue. The person of a female is attractive; female beauty involuntarily draws all eyes toward itself; it awakens admiration: the pleasures of society are alluring; they create in the receiver an eager desire for still further enjoyment; but when too eagerly pursued they vanish in the pursuit, and leave the mind a prey to listless uneasiness: fine,weather is in viting; it seems to persuade the reluctant to partake of its refreshments: the manners of a person are engaging; they not only occupy the attention, but they lay hold of the affections.
At this time of universal migration, when almost every one considerable enough to attract regard has retired into the conntry, I have often been tempted to inquire what happiness is to be gatued by this stated secession.

Johnson.
Seneca has attempted not only to pacify us in misfortune, but almost to allutre us to it by representing it as necessary to the pleasures of the mind. He invites his pupil to calamity as the Sirens allured the passengers to their coasts, by promising that he shall return with increase of knowledge.

Johnson.
The present, whatever it be, seldom engages our attention so much as what is to come.

Blasta
ATTRACTIONS, ALLUREMENTS, CHARMS.
ATTRACTION ( $v$. To attract) signifies the thing that attracts. ALLUREMEN"
(0 To allure) signifies the thing that allores. CHARM, from the Latin carmen, a verae, signifies whatever acts by an irresistible intluence, like poetry.

Besides the synonymous idea which distiuguiahes these words, they are remarkable for the common property of being used only in the plural when denoting the thing that attracts, allures, and churms, as applied to female endowments, or the influence of person on the heart: it seems that in uttractions there is something natural; in allurements something artificial ; in charms something moral and Intellectual. Attraetions and charms are always taken in a good sense, allurements mostly in a bad sense : attractions lead or draw; allurements win or entice; charms seduce or captivate. The human heart is always exposed to the power of female attractions; it is guarded with difficulty against the allurements of a coquette; it is incapable of resisting the united charms of body and mind.

This cestus was a fine, party-culored girdle, which, as Homer tells us, had all the attraetions of the sex wrought into it. ADDibon.
Our modern authors have represented Pleasure or Vice with an alluring face, but ending in suakes and monsters. Addison.
Juno made a visit to Venus, the deity who presides over love, and begged of her as a particular favor that she would lend for a while those charms with whleh she subdued the hearts of gods and men.

ADDISON.
When applied to other objects, an attraction springs from something remarkable and striking; it lies in the exterior aspect, and awakens an interest toward itself: a charm acts by a secret, all-powerful, and irresistible impulse on the soul; it springs from an accordance of the object with the affections of the heart; it takes hold of the imagination, and awakens an enthusiasm peculiar to itself: an allurement acts on the senses; it flatters the passions; it enslares the imagination. The metropolis has its attractions for the gay; music has its charms for every one; fashionable society has too many allurements for youth, which are not easily withstood.

A man whose great qualities want the ornament of superflelal attraetions is like a naked mountain with mines of gold, which will be frequented only till the treasure is exbausted.

Johnson.

Musle has charms to soothe the savage breast.
Conorbye
How justly do i fall a sacrifice to sloth and luxury in the place where I first yielded to those allurements which seduced me to deviate from temperance and innocence!

Jonnson.

## AUDACITY, EFFRONTERY, HARDIHOOD

 or hardiness, boldness.AUDACITY, from audacious, in French audacieux, Latin audax, and audeo, to dare, signities literally the quality of daring. EFFRONTERY, compounded of ef, en, or in, and frons, a face, signifies the standing face to face. HARDIHOOD ol HARDINESS, from hardy or hard, signifies a capacity to endure or stand the brunt of difficulties, opposition, or shame. BOLDNESS, from bold, in Saxon bald, is in all probability changed from bald, that is, uncovered, open-fronted, without disguise, which are the charaeteristics of boldness.

The idea of disregarding what others regard is common to all these terms. Audacity expresses more than effrontery: the first has something of vehemence or defiance in it; the latter that of cool unconcern: hardihood expresses less than boldness; the first has more of determination, and the second more of spirit and enterprise. Audacity and effrontery are always taken in a bad sense; hardihood in an indifferent, if not a bad sense; boldness in a good, bad, or indifferent sense. Audacity marks haughtiness and temerity; effrontery the want of all modesty, a total shamelessness; hardihood indicates a firm resolution to meet consequences; boldness a spirit and courage to commence action. An audacious man speaks with a lofty tone, without respect and without reflection; his haughty demeanor makes him forget what is due to his superiors. Effrontery discovers itself by an insolent air; a total unconcern for the opinions of those present, and a disregard of all the forms of civil society. A hardy man speaks with a resolute tone, which seems to brave the utmost evil that can result from what he says. A bold man speaks withont reserve, undaunted by the qual. ity, rank, or haughtiness of those whom he addresses. It requires audacity to assert false claims, or vindicate a lawless conduct in the presence of accusers and judges; it requires effrontery to ask a fa-
vor of the man whom one has basely injured, or to assume a placid unconcerned air in the presence of those by whom one has been convicted of flagrant atrocities; it requires hardihood to assert as a positive fact what is dubious or suspected to be false; it requires boldness to maintain the truth in spite of every danger with which one is threatened.

As knowledge without justlce ought to be called cunning rather than wisdom, so a mind prepared to meet danger, if excited by its own eagerness and not the public good, deserves the name of auducity rather than of fortitude.

Steele.
I could never forbear to wish that while Vice la every day multiplying seducements, and stalking forth with more hardened effrontery, Virtue would not withdraw the influence of her presence.

Jonnson.
I do not find any one so hardy at present as to deny that there are very great advantages in the enjoyment of a plentiful fortune. Bcogeld.

A bold tongue and a feeble arm are the qualifications of Drances in Virgil. Adoraon.

Bold in the council-board, But cautious in the field, he shumn'd the sword.

Dryden.
to augur, presage, forebode, beTOKEN, PORTEND.
AUGUR, in French augurer, Latin augurium, comes from avis, a bird, as an augury was originally, and at all times principally, drawn from the song, the flight, or other actions of birds. PRESAGE, in French présage, from the Latin proe and sagio, to be instinctively wise, signifies to be thus wise about what is to come. FOREBODE is compounded of fore and the Saxon bodian, to declare, signifying to pronounce on futurity. BETOKEN signifies to serve as a token. PORTEND, in Latin portendo, compounded of por, for, pro and tendo, signifies to set or show forth.

Augur signifies either to serve or make use of as an augury; to forebode, and presage, is to form a conclusion in one's own mind: to betoken or portend is to serve as a sign. Persons or things augur; persons only forebode or presuge; things only betoken or partend. Auguring is a calculation of some future event, in which the imagination seems to be as much concerned as the understanding: presaging is rather a conclusion or deduction of what may be from what is; it lies in the understanding more than in
the imagination: foreboding lies alto gether in the imagination. Things are said to betoken, which present natural signs; those are said to poriend, which present extraordinary or supernatural signs. It augurs ill for the prosperity of a country or a state when its wealth has increased so as to take away the ordinary stimulus to industry, and to introduce an inordinate love of pleasure. We presage the future greatness of a man from the indications which he gires of possessing an elevated character. A distempered mind is apt to forebode every ill from the most trivial circumstances. We see with pleasure those actions in a child which betoken an ingenuous temper: a mariner sees with pain the darkness of the sky which portends a storm; the moralist augurs no good to the morals of a nation from the lax discipline which prevails in the education of youth; he presages the loss of independence to the minds of men in whom proper principles of subordination have not been early engendered. Men sometimes forebode the misfortunes which happen to them, but they oftener forebode evils which never come.

There is always an augury to be taken of what a peace is likely to be, from the preliminary steps that are made to bring it about. Borke.

An opinion has been long conceived that quickness of invention, accuracy of judgment, or extent of knowledge, appearing before the usual time, mesage a short life.

Johnson.
What conscience forebodes, revelation verifies, assuring us that a day is appointed when God will render to every man according to his works.
Blatr.

Skill'd in the wing'd inltabitants of the air,
What auspices their notes and flights declare;
Oh say-for all religious rites pontend
A happy voyage and a prosp'rous end. Dryder.
All more than common menaces an end; A blaze betozens brevity of life, As if bright embers chould emit a flame.

Yodng.

## A USPICIOUS, PROPITIOUS.

AUSPICIOUS, from the Latin auspicium and auspex, compounded of avis and spicio, to behold, signifies favorable according to the inspection of birds. PROPITIOUS, in Latin propitius, probably from prope, near, because the heathens always solicitcd their deities to be near, or present, to give their aid in favor of their designs; hence propitious is fig.
nratively applied In the sense of favorable.

Auspicious is aaid only of things; propitious is said only of persons, or things personified. Those thinge are auspicious whieh are casual, or only indicative of good; persone are propitious to the wishes of others who liaten to their requesta and eontribute to their satisfaction. A journey is undertaken under auspicious circumstances, where everything incidental, as weather, society, and the like, bid fair to afford pleasure; it is undertaken under propitious circumetances when everything favors the attainment of the object for which it was begun. Whoever has any request to make ought to aeize the auspicious moment when the person of whom it is asked is in a pleasant frame of mind; a poct in his invocation requests the muse to be propitious to him, or the lover eonjures his mistress to be propitious to hie vows.
Still follow where auspicious fates lnvite, Caress the happy, and the wretched slight. sooner shall jarring elements unite, 'Thun truth with gain, than interest with right.

Lemis.
Who loves a garden loves a greanhousa too: Unconsclious of a less propttious clime, There blooms exotlo beauty.

Cowpar,

## AUSTERE, RIGID, SEVERE, RIGOROUG,

 STERN.AOSTERE, in Latin austerus, sour or rough, from the Greek $a v \omega$, to dry, signifies rough or harsh from drought. RIGID and RIGOROUS, from rigeo, Greek $\rho$ cye $\omega$, Hebrew reg, to be stiff, signifies stiffuess or unbendingness. SEVERE, in Latin severus, comee from secvus, eruel. STERN, in Saxon sterne, German streng, strong, has the sense of atrictness.

Austere applies to ourselves as well as to others; rigid applies to ourselves only; severe, rigovous, stern, apply to otheme only. We are austere in our manner of living; rigid in our mode of thinking; austere, severe, rigorous, and stern in our mode of dealing with others. Effeminacy is opposed to austerity, pliability to rigidity. The austere man mortifies himself; the rigid man binds himself to a rule: the manners of a man are austere when he refuses to take part in any social enjoyments; his probity is rigid, that

18, inaceessible to the allurementa of galn or the urgency of necessity: an austers life consists not only in the privation of every pleasure, but in the iufliction of every pain; rigid justiee is unbiassed, no less by the fear of loss than by the desire of gain: the present age affords no examples of austerity, but too many of its opposite extreme, effeminaey; and the rigidity of former times, in modes of thinking, has becn succeeded by a culpable laxity.

[^14]Joinaon.
Austere, when taken with relation to others, is asid of the behavior; severe of the conduct: a parent is austere in hia looks, hls manner, and his words to hia ohild; he is severe in the reatraints he imposes, and the punishments he inflicts: an austore master speaks but to command, and oommands 80 as to be obeyed; a severe master puniahes every fault, and punishes in an undue measure; an au. stere temper ls never softened; the coun. tenance of such a one never relaxes into a emile, nor is he pleased to wltness smiles: a severe temper is ready to catch at the imperfections of others, and to wound the offender: $\varepsilon$ judge should be a rigid administrator of justice between man and man, and severe in the punishment of offences as oeeasion requires; but never austere toward those who appear before him; austerity of manner would ill become him who site as a protector of either the innoeent or the injured. Rigor is a species of great severity, namely, in the inflietion of punishment: toward enormous offenders, or on particular oecasions where an example is requisite, rigor may be adopted, but oth. erwise it marks a eruel temper. A man is austere in his manners, severe in his remarks, and rigorous in his discipline. Austerity, rigidity, and severity may be habitual ; rigor and steruness are oceasional. Sternness is a species of severity more in manner than in direct action; a commander may issue his commands sternly, or a despot may issue his stern decrees.

If you are hard or contracted in your judgments, severs in your ceosures, and oppressive In your dealings, then conclude with certainty that what you had termed piety was hut an elepty name.

Blatr.
It is not by rigorous discipline and unrelaxing austerity that the aged can maintain an ascendant over youthitul minds.

Blair.
A man severe he was, and stern to view, I knew him well, and every truant knew; Yet he was kind; or if severe in aught, The love he bore to learning was in fault.

Goldsmith.
It is stern criticism to say that Mr. Pope's is aot it translation of Homer.

Cumberland.

## AVARICIOUS, MISERLY, PARSIMONIOUS, NIGGARDLY.

AV ARICIOUS, from the Latin $\alpha v e o$, to desire, or habeo, to have, hold, signifies desiring money, or holding money from a love of it. MISERLY signifies like a miser, or miserable man; for vone are so miserable as the lovers of money. PARSIMONIOUS, from the Latin parco, to spare or save, signifies literally saving. NIGGARDLY is a frequentative of nigh or close, and signifies very nigh.

The avaricious man and the miser are one and the same character, with this exception, that the miser carries his passion for money to a still greater excess. An ajaricious man shows his love of money in his ordinary dealings; but the miser lives upon it, and suffers every privation rather than part with it. An avaricious man may sometimes be indulgent to himself, and generous to others; the miser is dead to everything but the treasure which he has amassed. Parsimonions and niggardly are the subordinate characteristics of avarice. The avaricious man indulges his passion for money by parsimony, that is, by saving out of himself, or by niggardly ways in his dealings with others. He who spends a farthing on himself, where others with the same means spend a shilling, does it from parsimony; he who looks to every farthing in the bargains be makes gets the name of a niggard. Avarice sometimes cloaks itself under the name of prudence: it is, as Goldsmith says, often the only virtue which is left a man at the age of seventy-two. The miser is his own greatest enemy, and no man's friend; his ill-gotten wealth is generally a curse to him by whom it is inherited, $A$ man is
sometimes rendered parsimonious by circumstances; but he who first saves from necessity too often ends with saving from inclination. The niggard is an object of contempt, and sometimes hatred; every ove fears to lose by a man who strives to gain from all.

Though the apprehensions of the agad may justify a cautious frugality, they can by no means excuse a sordid avarice.

Blalr.
As some lone miser, visiting his store,
Bends at his treasure, counts, recounts it o'er; Hoards after hoards his rising raptures fll, Yet still he siglis, for hoards are wanting still; Thus to my breast alternate passions rise, Pleas'd with each hliss that Heav'n to mas supplies.
Yet oft a sigh prevails and sorrows fall,
To see the hoard of human bliss so small.
Goldsmite.
Armstrong died in September, 1779, and to the surprise of his friends left a considerable sum of money, saved by great parsimony ont of a very moderate income.

Johnson.
I have heard Dodsley, by whom Akenside's "Pleasures of the Imagination" was published, relate that when the copy was offered him, he carried the work to Pope, who, having looked into it, advised him not to make a niggardly offer, for this was no every-day writer. Johnson.

## TO AVENGE, REVENGE, VINDICATE.

AVENGE, REVENGE, and VINDICATE, all spring from the same source, namely, the Latin vindico, the Greek $\varepsilon \nu$ $\delta \iota \kappa \varepsilon \omega$, compounded of $\varepsilon \nu$, in, and $\delta \iota \kappa \eta$, justice, signifying to pronounce justice or put justice in force.

The idea common to these terms is that of taking up some one's cause. To avenge is to punish in behalf of another; to revenge is to punish for one's self; to vindicate is to defend another. The wrongs of a person are avenged or revenged; his rights are vindicated. The act of avenging, though attended with the infliction of pain, is oftentimes an act of humanity, and always an act of justice; none are the sufferers but such as merit it for their oppression; while those are benefited who are dependent for support: this is the act of God himself, who always avenges the oppressed who look up to him for support; and it ought to be the act of all his creatures who are invested with the power of punishing offenders and protecting the helpless. Revenge is the basest of all actions, and the spirit of revenge the most diametrically opposed to the Christian principles of forgiving

Injuriea, and returning good for evil; it in gratified only with inflicting pain without any prospect of advantage. Vindication is an act of generosity and humanity; it ia the production of good without the infliction of pain: the claims of the widow and orphan call for vindication from those who have the time, talent, or ability to take their cause into their own handa: England can boast of many noble vindicators of the rights of humanity, not excepting those which concern the brute creation.

The day shall come, that great avsnging day, When Troy's proud glories in the dust shall lay.

By a continued series of loose, though apparently trivial gratifications, the beart is often as thoronghly corrupted, as by the commission of any one of those enormous erimes which spring from great ambition or great revenge. BLAIR.
Injured or oppressed by the worid, the goad man looks up to a Judge who will vindicate his cause.

Blain.

## averse, unwilling, backward, LOATH, RELUCTANT.

AVERSE, in Latin avcrsus, participle of averto, compounded of verto, to turn, and $a$, from, signilies the state of having the mind tumed from a thing. UNWILLING literally aignifiea not willing. BACKWARD signifies having the will in a backward direction. LOATH, from to loathe, denotes the quality of loathing. RELUCTAN'T, from the Latin re and lucto, to struggle, signifies atruggling with the will against a thing.

Averse is positive, it marks an actual sentiment of dislike; unwilling is negative, it marks the absence of the will; backward is a sentiment between the two, it marks a leaning of the will against a thing; loath and reluctant mark strong feelings of aversion. Aversion is an habitual sentiment ; unwillingness and backwardness are mostly occasional ; loath and reluctant always occasional. Aversion must be conquered; unwillingness must be removed; backwardness must be counteracted, or urged forward; loathing and reluctance must be overpowered. One who is averse to study will never have recourse to books; but a child may be unwilling or baekward to attend to his lessons from partial motives, which the authority of the parent or master may cor-
rect; he who is loath to receive instruc tion will always remain ignorant; he who is reluctant in doing his duty will alwaya do it as a task. A miser is averse to nothing so much as to parting with hia money: he is even unwilling to provide himself with necessaries, but he ia not backward in disposing of his money when be has the prospect of getting more; friends are loath to part who have had many yeara' enjoyment in each other'a society; we are reluctant in giving unpleasant advice. Lazy people are averse to labor; those who are not paid are unwitting to work; and those who are paid less than others are backward in giving their services: every one is loath to give up a favorite pursuit, and when com. pelled to it by circumstances they do it with reluctance.
Of all the race of animals, alone,
The bees have common cities of their own : But (what's more strange) their modest appetites, Averse from Venns, fiy the nuptial rites.

Dryden.
1 part with thee,
As wretches that are doubtful of hereafter
l'art with their lives, unwilling, loath, and fearful,
And trembling at futurity.
Rowe.
All men, even the most depraved, are subject more or less to compunctions of conscience; but backward at the same time to resign the gains of dishonesty or the pleasures of vice. Blair.
E'en thus two friends cundemn'd
Embrace, and kiss, and take ten thousand leaves, Loather a hundred times to part than die.

Shakspeare.
From better habitations spurn'd, Reluctant dost thon rove, Or grieve for friendship unreturn'd, Or nnregarded love?

Goldsmith.
AVERSION, ANTIPATHY, DISLIKE, HATRED, REPUGNANCE.
AVERSION denotes the quality of heing averse ( $v$. Averse). ANTIPATHY, in French antipathie, Latin antipathia, Greek $a \nu \tau \iota \pi a \theta \varepsilon a$, , compounded of $a \nu \tau \iota$, against, and $\pi a \theta \varepsilon \varepsilon a$, feeling, signifies here a nat. ural feeling against an object. DISLIKE, compounded of the privative dis and like, signifies not to like or be attached to. HATRED, in German hass, is supposed by Adelung to be connected with heiss, hot, signifying heat of temper. REPUGNANCE, in French répugnance, Latin repugnantia and repugno, com. pounded of re and pugno, signifies the resistance of the feelings to an object.

Aversion is in its most general sense the generic term to these and many other similar expressions, in which case it is opposed to attachment: the former denoting an alienation of the mind from an object; the latter a knitting or binding of the mind to objects: it has, however, more commonly a partial acceptation, in which it is justly comparable with the above words. The fonr first are used indifferently for persons and things, the last for things. Aversion and antipathy seem to be less dependent on the will, and to have their origin in the temperament or natural taste, particularly the latter, which springs from canses that are not always visible; it lies in the physical organization. Antipathy is, in fact, a natural aversion opposed to sympathy : dislike and hatred are, on the contrary, voluntary, and seem to have their root in the angry passions of the heart; the former is less deep-rooted than the latter, and is commonly awakened by slighter causes: repugnance is not an habitual and lasting sentiment, like the rest; it is a transitory but strong dislike to anything. People of a quiet temper have an aversion to disputing or argumentation; those of a gloomy temper have an aversion to society; antipathies mostly discover themselves in early life, and as soon as the object comes within the view of the person affected: men of different sentiments in religion or politics, if not of amiable tempers, are apt to contract dislikes to each other by frequent irritation in discourse: when men of malignant tempers come in collision, nothing but a deadly hatred can ensuc from their repeated and complicated aggressions toward each other: any one who is under the influence of a misplaced pride is apt to feel a repugnanee to acknowledge himself in error.

I cannot forbear mentioning a tribe of egotists, for whom I have always had a mortal aversion; I mean the authors of memoirs who are never mentioned in any works but their own. Admison.

There is one speeies of terror which those who are unwilling to suffer the reproach of cowardiee have wisely dignifled with the name nf antipathy. A man has indeed no dread of harm from an insect or a worm, but his antipathy turns him pale whenever they approach him.

Jounson.
Every man whom business or curiosity has thrown at large inte the world, will recollect
many instanees of fondness and distike, which have furced themselves upon him without the in* tervention of his judgment.

Johnson.
One punishment that attends the lying and deecitful person is the hatred of all those whom he either has, or would have deceived. I do not say that a Christian ean lawfully hate any one, and yet I affirm that some may very worthily deserve to he hated.

South.
In this dilemma Aristophanes eonquered his repugnanee, and determined upon presenting himself on the stage for the first time in his life.

Cumberland

## AVIDITY, GREEDINESS, EAGERNESS,

Are terms expressive of a strong de sire. AVIDITY, in Latin aviditas, from aveo, to desire, expresses very strong desire. GREEDINESS, in German gierig, greedy, from begehren, to desire, signifies the same. EAGERNESS, from eager, and the Latin acer, sharp, signifies acuteness of feeling.

Avidity is in mental desires what greediness is in animal appetites: eagerness is not so vehement, but more impatient than avidity or greerliness. Avidity and greediness respect simply the desire of possessing ; eagerness the general desire of attaining an object. An opportunity is seized with avidity: the miser grasps at money with greediness, or the glutton devours with greediness: a person runs with eagerness in order to get to the place of destination : a soldier fights with eagerness in order to conquer: a lover looks with eager impatience for a letter from the object of his affection. Avidity is employed in an adverbial form to qualify an action : we seize with avidity: greediness marks the abstract quality or habit of the mind; groediness is the characteristic of low and brutal minds : eager. ness denotes the transitory state of feeling; a person discovers his eagerness in his looks.
1 have heard that Addison's avidity did not satisfy itself with the air of renown, but that with great eagerness he laid hold on his proportion of the profits.

Johnson.
Bid the sea listen, when the greed $y$ merchant, To gorge its ravenous jaws, hurls all his wealth, And stands himself upou the splitting deck For the last plunge.

Lee
TO AVOID, ESCHEW, SHUN, HLUDE.
AVOID, in Freuch éviter, Latin evito, compounded of $e$ and vito, probably from viduus, void, signifies to make one's seif
void or free from a thing. ESCHEW and SHUN both come from the German scheuen, Swedish sky, etc., when it signifies to fly. ELUDE, in French eluder, Latin eludo, compounded of $e$ and ludo, signifies to get one's self out of a thing by a trick.

Avoid is both generic and specific ; we avoid in esthewing or shunning, or we avoid without eschewing or shunning. Various contrivances are requisite for avoiding; eschewing and shunning consist only of going out of the way, of not coming in contact; eluding, as its derivation denotes, has more of artifice in it than aay of the former. We avoid a troublesome visitor under real or feigned pretences of ill-health, prior engagement, and the like; we aschew evil company by not going into any but what we know to be good; we ahun the sight of an offensive object by turoing into another road; we elude a puaiahment by getting out of the way of those who have the power of intlicting it. Prudence enables us to avoid many of the evils to which we are daily exposed: nothing but a fixed principle of religion can enable a man to eschew the temptations to evil which lie io his path: fear will lead us to shun a madman, whom it is not in our power to bind: a want of all principle leads a man to elude his creditors, whom he wishes to defrand. We speak of avoiding a danger, and shunning a danger; but to avoid it is in general not to fall into it; to shun it is with care to keep out of the way of it.

Having thoroughly considered the nature of this passion, I have made it my study how to avoid the envy that may accrue to me from these my speculations.

Strele.
Thus Brute this reaim into his rule subdued And reigned long in great felicity, Lov'd of his friends, and of his foes eschewed.

Spenser.
Of many things, some few I shall explain ;
Teach thee to shun the dangers of the main, And how at length the promis'd shore to gain.

Dryden.
The wary Trojan, bending from the blow, Etudes the death, and disappoints his foe.

Pope.
TO AWAKEN, EXCITE, PROVOKE, rouse, stir UP.
To AWAKEN is to make awake or alive. EXCITE, in Latin excito, compounded of the intensive syllables ex and
cito, in Hebrew sut, to move, signifies to move out of a state of rest. PROVOKE, v. To aggravate. To ROUSE is to caube to rise. STIR, in German stören, to move, signifies to make to move upward. To excite and provoke convey the idea of producing something; rouse and stir up that of only calling into action that which previously exists; to awaken is used in either sense. To awaken is a gentler action than to excite, and this is gentler than to provoke. We awaken by a simple effort; we excite by repeated efforts or forcible means; we provoke by words, looks, or actions. The tender feelings are awakened; affections, or the passions in geaeral, are excited; the angry passions are commonly provoked. Objects of distress awaken a sentiment of pity ; competition among scholars excites a spirit of emulation; taunting words provoke anger. Awaken is applied only to the individual, and what passes within him; excite is applicable to the outward circumstancea of one or many; provoke is applicable to the conduct or temper of one or many. The attention is awakened by interesting sounds that atrike upon the ear; the conscience is awakened by the voice of the preacher, or by passing events : a commotion, a tumult, or a rebellion, is excit$e d$ among the people by the active efforts of individuals; laughter or contempt is provoked by preposterous conduct.

The soul has its curiosity more than ordinarily avoakerad when it turns its thoughts upon the conduct of such who have behaved themselves with an equal, a resigned, a cheerful, a generous, or heroic temper in the extremity of death.

Steele.
In our Saviour was no form of comeliness that men should desire, no artifice or trick to cateb applanse or to excite surprise. Cumbebland
See, Mercy! see with pure and loaded hands Before thy shrine my country's genius stands. When he whom e'en our joys provoke, The fiend of nature, join'd his yoke, And rush'd in wrath to make our isles his prey, Thy form, from out thy sweet abode, O'ertook him on the blasted road. Comins,

To awaken is in the moral, as in the physical sense, to call into consciousness from a state of unconsciousness; to rouse is forcibly to bring into action that which is in a state of inaction; and stir up is to bring into a state of agitation or commotion. We are awakened from an ordinary state by ordinary means; we are

## AWE

roused from an extraordinary state by extraordinary means; we are stirred up from an ordinary to an extraordinary state. The mind of a child is awakened by the action on its senses as soon as it is horn ; there are some persons who are not roused from the stupor in which they were, by anything but the most awful events ; and there are others whose passions, particularly of anger, are stirred up by trifling circumstances. The conscience is sometimes awakened for a time, ont the sinner is not roused to a sense of his danger, or to any exertions for his own safety, until an intemperate zeal is stirred up in him by means of enthusiastic preaching, in which case the vulgar proverb is verified, that the remedy is as bad as the disease. Death is a scene calculated to awaken some feeling in the most obdurate breast: the tears and sighs of the afflicted excite a sentiment of commiseration ; the most equitable administration of justice may excite murmurs among the discontented; a harsh and unreasonable reproof will provoke a reply: oppression and tyranny mostly rouse the sufferers to a sense of their injuries; nothing is so calculated to stir up the rebellious spirits of men as the harangues of political demagogues.
The spark of noble conrage now aroake, And strive your excellent self to excel.

Spenser.
Go study virtue, rugged ancient worth ;
Rouse up that flame our great forefathers felt.
Shirley.
The turbulent and dangerous are for embroiling conncils, stirring up seditions, and subverting constitutions, out of a mere restlessness of temper.

Stezle.
AWARE, ON ONE'S GUARD, APPRISED, CONSCIOUS.
AW ARE, compounded of $a$ or on and ware, signifies to be on the lookout, from the Saxon waerd, German, etc., währen, Greek o $\rho a \omega$, to see. GUARD, in French garder, is connected with ward, in Saxon waerd, German, etc., gewährt, participle of währen, to see, as above. APPRISED, in French appris, from apprendre, to apprehend, learn, or understand. CONSCIOUS, in Latin conscius, compounded of con and scio, to know, signifies knowing within one's self.

The idea of having the expectation or
knowledge of a thing is common to all these terms. We are aware of a thing when we calculate upon it; we are on our guard against it when we are prepared for it; we are apprised of that of which we have had an intimation, and are con scious of that in which we have ourselves been concerned. To be aware, and on one's guard, respect the future ; to be apprised, either the past or present; to be conscious, only the past. Experience enahles a man to be aware of consequences; prudence and caution dictate to him the necessity of being on his guard against evils. Whoever is fully aware of the precarious temure by which he holds all his goods in this world, will be on his guard to prevent any calamities, as far as depends upon the use of means in his control. We are apprised of events, or what passes ontwardly, throngh the medium of external circumstances; we are conscious only through the medium of ourselves, or what passes within.
The first steps in the breach of a man's integrity are more important than men are aware of. Steele.
What establishment of religion more friendly to public happiness conld be desired or framed (than our own)? How zealons onght we to be for its preservation; bow mnch on our guard against every danger which threatens to tronble it 1 Blair.
In play the chance of loss and gain onght always to be equal, at least each party should be apprised of the force employed against him.

I know nothing so hard for a generons mind to get over as calumny and reproach, and cannot find any method of quieting the sonl under them besides this single one of our being conscious to ourselves that we do not deserve them.

Addison.

## AWE, REVERENCE, DREAD.

AWE, probably from the German ach ten, conveys the idea of regarding with solemnity and fear. REVERENCE, in French révérence, Latin reverentia, comes from revereor, to fear strongly. DREAD, in Saxon dread, is connected with the Latin territo, to frighten, and Greek raja $\sigma \sigma \omega$, to trouble.

Awe and reverence both denote a strong sentiment of respect, mingled with some emotions of fear; but the former marks the much stronger sentiment of the two: dread is an unmingled sentiment of fear for one's personal security. Awe may be
awakened by the help of the senses and understanding; reverence by that of the understanding only; and dread principally by that of the imagination. Sublime, sacred, and solemu objects awaken awe; they cause the beholder to stop and consider whether he is worthy to approach them any nearer ; they rivet his mind and body to a spot, and make him cautious lest by his presence he should contaminate that which is hallowed: exalted and noble objects produce reverence; they lead to every outward mark of obeisance and humiliation which it is possible for him to express: terrific objects excte dread; they cause a shuddering of the animal frame, and a revulsion of the mind which is attended with nothing but pain. When the creature places himself in the presence of the Creator-when he contemplates the immeasurable distance which separates himself, a frail and finite mortal, from his infinitely perfect Maker-he approaches with awc: even the sanctuary where he is aceustomed thus to bow before the Almighty acquires the power of a wakening the es a meemotions in his mind. Age, wisdom, and virtue, when combined ill one person, are never approached without reverence; the possessor has a dignity in himself that checks the haughtiness of the arrogant, that silences the petulanee of pride and self-conceit, that stills the noise and giddy mirth of the young, an 1 commanicates to all around a sobriety of mien and aspect. A grievous offender is seldom without dread; his guilty conscience pictures everything as the instrument of vengeance, and every person as denouncing his merited sentence. The golemn stillness of the tomb will inspire awe, even in the breast of him who has no dread of death. Children should be early taught to bave a certain degree of reverence for the Bible as a book, in distinction from all other books.

[^15]To Phcebus next my trembling steps he led Full of religious doubts and awful dread.

Drydey

## AWKWARD, CLUMSY.

AWKWARD, in Saxon cewerd, com pounded of $e$ or $a$, adversative, and ward from the Teutonic währen, to see or look, that is, looking the opposite way, or being in an opposite direction, as toward significs looking the same way, or being in the same direction. CLUMSY, from the same source as clump and lump, in German lumpisch, denotes the quality of heaviness and unseemliness.

These epithets denote what is contrary to rule and order, in form or manner. Awkward respects outward deportment; clumsy the shape and make of the object: a person has an awkward gait, is clumsy in his whole person. Awhward ness is the consequence of bad education; ctumsiness is mostly a natural defect. Young recruits are awkward in marching, and clumsy in their manual exercise.
They may be both employed figurative. ly in the same sense, and sometimes in relation to the same objects: when speak. ing of awkward contrivances, or clumsy contrivances, the latter expresses the idea more strongly than the former.

[^16]All the operations of the Greeks in sailing were clumsy and unskilful. Robebtson.
AWKWARD, CROSS, UNTOWARD, CROOKED, FROWARD, PERVERSE.
AWKWARD, $v$, Awkward. CROSS, from the noun cross, implies the quality of being like a cross. UNTOWARD signifies the reverse of toward ( $v . A w k$ koard). CROOKED signifies the quality of resembling a crook. FROWARD, that is, from ward, signifies running a contraly direction. PERVERSE, Latin perversus, participle of perverto, compounded of per. and verto, signifies turned aside.
Awkward, cross, untoward, and crooked, are used as epithets in relation to the events of life or the disposition of the mind; froward and perverse respect only the disposition of the mind. Awkward circumstances are apt to embarrass; cross
sircumstances to pain; crooked and un. toward circumstances to defeat. What is crooked springs from a perverted judg. ment; what is untoward is independent of human control. In our intercourse with the world there are always little awkeard incidents arising, which a person's good sense and good nature will anable him to pass over without disturbing the harmony of society. It is the lot of every one in his passage through life to meet with cross accidents that are calculated to ruffle the temper; but he proves himself to be the wisest whose serenity is not so easily disturbed. A crooked policy obstructs the prosperity of individuals, as well as of states. Many men are destined to meet with severe trials in the frustratiou of their dearest hopes, by numberless untoward events which call forth the exercise of patience; in this case the Christian can prove to hiruself and others the infinite value of his faith and doctrine.

It is an wokward thing for a man to print in defence of his own work against a chimera: you know not who or what you fight against. Pope.
Some are indeed stopped in their career by a sudden shock of calamity, or diverted to a different direction by the cross impulse of sume violent passion.

Johnson.
He (Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester), hy various untoundrd circumstances, was denied legitimacy and his paternal estate.

Pennant.
There are who can, by potent magic spells, Bend to their crooked purpose nature's laws.

Milton.
When used with regard to the disposition of the mind, awkward expresses less than froward, and froward less than perverse. Awkwardness is an habitual frailty of temper; it includes certain weaknesses and particularities, pertinaciously adhered to: crossmess is a partial irritation resulting from the state of the humors, physical and mental. Frovardness and perversity lie in the will : a froward temper is capricious; it wills or wills not to please itself without regard to others. Perversity lies deeper; taking root in the heart, it assumes the shape of malignity; a perverse temper is eeally wicked; it likes or dislikes by the rule of contradiction to another's will. Untowardness lies in the principles; it runs counter to the wishes and counsels of another. An wowkord temper is connected with self-
sufficiency; it shelters itself under the sanction of what is apparently reasonable; it requires management and indul. gence in dealing with it. Crossness and frowardness are peculiar to children; in. discriminate indulgence of the rising will engenders those diseases of the mind which, if fostered too long in the breast, become incorrigible by anything but a powerful sense of religion. Perversity is, however, but too commonly the result of a vicious habit, which embitters the happiness of all who have the misfortune of coming in collision with it. Untowardness is also another fruit of these evil tempers. A froward child becomes an untoward youth, who turns a deaf ear to all the admonitions of an afflicted parent.

## A kind constant friend

To all that regularly offend,
But was implacable and awkward
To all that interlop'd and hawker'd. Hudibras.
Christ had to deal with a most untoward and stubborn generation.

Blaik.
To fret and repine at every disappointment of our wishes is to discover the temper of froward children.

BLATR.
Interference of interest, or perversity of dis. position, may occasionally lead individnals to oppose, even to hate, the upright and the goud.

Blaib.

AXIOM, MAXIM, APHORISM, APOPHTHEGM, SAYING, ADAGE, PROVERB, BY-WORD, SAW.

AXIOM, in French axiome, Latin axio. $m a$, comes from the Greek $a \xi t o \omega$, to thlnk worthy, signifying the thing valued. MAXIM, in French maxime, in Latin max imus, the greatest, signifies that which is most important. APHORISM, from the Greek aфopıa $\mu \mathrm{s}$, a short sentence, and $a \phi o \rho t \zeta \omega$, to distinguish, signifies that which is set apart. APOPFTHEGM, in Greek $\alpha \pi o \phi \theta \varepsilon \gamma \mu a$, from $\alpha \pi \sigma \phi \theta \varepsilon \gamma \gamma \rho \mu a$, to speak pointedly, signifies a pointed saying. SAYING signifies literally what is said, that is, said habitually. ADAGE, in Latin adagium, probably compounded of $a d$ and $a g o$, signifies that which is fit to be acted upon. PROVERB, in French proverbe, Latin proverbium, compounded of pro and verbum. signifies that expression which stands for something particular. BY-WORD signifies a word by-the bye, or by-the-way, in the course of con
versatiou. SAW is but a variation of say, put for saying.

A given sentiment coovered in a apecific aentence, or form of expresaion, is the common idea included in the sigoifcation of these terms. The axiom to a truth of the first value; a eelf-evident propoeition which is the basis of other trutha. A maxim is a truth of the first moral importance for all practical purposes. An aphorism ia a truth aet apart for ita pointedneas and excelleace. Apophthegm ia, in respect to the ancienta, what saying is in regard to the moderns: it is a pointed sentiment pronounced by an individual, and adopted by others. Adage and proverb are vulgar bayinga, the former among the ancienta, the latter among the moderna. The by-word is a casual aaying, originating in some local circumstance. The saw, which is a barbarous corruptior. of saying, is the saying formerly current among the ignorant.
Axioms are in science what maxims are in morals; self-evidence ia an essential characteristic in both; the axiom presents itself in ao aimple and undeniable a form to the understanding as to exclude doubt, and the necessity for reasoning. The maxim, though not so definite in its expreasion as the axiom, is at the same time equally parallel to the mind of man, and of auch general application that it is acknowledged by all moral agents who are susceptible of moral truth; it comes home to the common-sense of all mankind. "Things that are equal to one and the same thing are equal to each other "-"Two bodies cannot occupy the same space at the same time," are axioms in mathematies and metaphysics. "Virtue is the true source of happiness" -"The happiness of man is the end of civil government," are axioms in ethics and politics. "To err is buman, to forgive divine "-" When our vices leave us, we flatter ourselves that we leave them," are among the number of maxims. Between axioms and maxims there is this obvioua difference to be observed : that the former are unchangeable both in matter and manner, and admit of little or no increase in number; but the latter may vary with the circumstances of human life, and admit of considerable extension.

Those authors are to be read at schools, that supply most axioms of prudence, nost principles of moral truth.

JOHNSON.
It was my grandfather's mawim, that a young man seldom makes much money who is out of his time before two-and-twenty. JoHNson.
An aphorism ia a speculative principle either in science or morals, which is preaented in a few words to the understandiag; it is the subatance of a doctrine, and many aphorisms may contain the ab. stract of a science. Of this description are the aphorisms of Hippocratea, and those of Lavater in phyaiognomy.
As this one aphorism, Jesus Christ io the Son of God, is virtually and eminently the whole Gospel, so to confess or deny it is virtually to embrace or reject tlie whole round and series of Gospel truths.

South.
Sayings and apophthegms differ from the preceding, inasmuch as they always carry the mind back to the peraon apeaking; there is always one who aays when there is a saying or an apophthegm, and both acquire a value as much from the person who utters them as from the thing that is uttered: wheo Leonidas was asked why brave men prefer honor to life, his answer became an apophthegm; namely, that they hold life by fortune, and honor by virtue: of this description are the apophthegms comprised by Plutarch, the sayings of Franklin's Old Richard, or those of Dr. Johnson: they are happy effusions of the mind which men are fond of treasuring.
It is remarkable that so near his time so much should be known of what Pope has written, and so little of what he las said. One apophthepm only stands upon record. When an objection raised against his inscription for Shakspeare was defended by the authority of Patrick, he replied that he would allow the pullisher of a dictionary to know the meaning of a single word, bat not of two words together.

Johnzon.
The little and short sayings of wise and excellent men are of great value, like the dust of gold or the least sparks of diamonds. Tmlotson.
The adage and proverb are habitual as well as general sayings, not repeated as the sayings of ooe, but of all; not adopted for the sake of the person, but for the sake of the thing; and they have been used in all ages for the purpose of conveying the aense of mankind on ordinary suhjects. The adage of former times is the proverb of the present times: if thera be any difference between them, it lied
in this, that the former are the frnit of knowledge and long experience, the latter of vulgar observations; the adage is therefore more refined than the proverb. Adversity is our best teacher, according to the Greek adage, "What hurts us instructs ns."-."Old birds are not to be canght with chaff," is a vulgar proverb.

It is in praiae and commendation of men as it is in gettings and gains: the proverb is true that light gains make heavy pursea; for light gains come thick, whereas great come now and then.

Bacon.
Quoth Hudibras, thon offer'st much, But art not able to keep touch, Mira de lente, as 'tis I, the adage, Id est, to make a leek a cabbage.

Butler.
By-words rarely contain any important sentiment ; they mostly consist of familiar similes, nicknames, and the like, as the Cambridge by-ward of "Hobson's choice," signifying that or none: the name of Nazarene was a by-word among the Jews for a Christian. A saw is vulgar in form, and vulgar in matter: it is the partial saying of particular neighborhoods, originating in ignorance and superstition: of this description are the sayings which attribute particular properties to animals or to plants, termed old women's sayings.

I knew a pretty young girl in a country village who, overfond of her own praise, became a property to a poor roguc in the parish, who was ignorant of all things but fawing. Thus Isaac extols her out of a quarteru of cut and dry every day she lives; and thongl the young woman is really handsome, she and her beanty are become a by-word, and all the country round she is cailed nothing but Isaac's best Virginitr.

ARBUTHNot.
If we mect tbis dreadful and portentous energy with poor, commonplace proceedings, with trivial maxims, paltry old Raws, with doubts, fears, and suspicions; down we go to the bottorn of the abyss, and nothing short of Omnipotence can save us.

Burke.

## B.

TO BABBLE, CIATTER, CHAT, PRATTLE, PRATE.
BABBLE, in French babiller, probabls receives its origin from the Tower of $B a$ $b o l$, when the confusion of tongues took place, and men talked unintelligibly to each other. CHATTER, CHAT, is in French caquet, low German tatern, high

German schnattern, Latin blatero, Hebrew bata. PRATTLE, PRA'TE, in low German praten, is probably connected with the Greek $\phi \rho a \zeta \omega$, to speak.

All these terms mark a superfluous or improper use of speech: babble and chatter are onomatopøeias drawn from the noise or action of speaking; babbling denotes rapidity of speech, which renders it unintelligible; hence the term is appliea to all who make use of many words to no purpose: chatter is an imitation of the noise of speech properly applied to magpies or parrots, and figuratively to a corresponding vicious mode of speech in human beings. The vice of babbling is most commonly attached to men, that of chattering to women: the babbler talks much to impress others with his self-importance; the chatterer is actuated by self-conceit, and a desire to display her volubility: the former cares not wbether he is understood; the latter cares not if she be but heard. Chatting is harmless, if not respectable: the winter's fireside invites neighbors to assemble and chat away many an hour which might otherwise hang heavy on hand, or be spent less inoffensively: chatting is the practice of adults; pratiling and prating that of children, the one innocently, the other impertinently: the prattling of babes has an interest for every feeling mind, but for parents it is one of their highest enjoyments; prating, on the contrary, is the consequence of iguorance and childish assumption: a prattler has all the unaffected gayety of an uncontaminated mind ; a prater is forward, obtrusive, and ridiculous.

[^17]BACK, BACKWARD, BEHIND.
BACK and BACKWARD are used only as adverbs: BEHIND either as an adverb or a preposition. To go back or backward, to go behind, or behind the wall. Back denotes the situation of being, and the direction of going; backward simply the manner of going: a person stands back, who does not wish to be in the way; he goes backward when he does not wish to turn his back to an object. Back marks simply the situation of a place, behind the situation of one object with regard to another: a person stands $b a c k$, who stands in the back part of any place; he stands behind, who has any onc in the front of him: the back is opposed to the front, behind to before.

So rag'd Tydides, boundless in his ire,
Drove urmies back, and made all Troy retire.
Pope.
Whence many, wearied ere they had o'erpass'd The middle stream (for they in vain have tried), Again return'd astounded and aghast.
No onc regardful look would ever backword cast.

Gilbert West.
Forth flew this hated flend, the child of Rome, Driv'n to the verge of Albion, lingered there: Then, with her James receding, cast behind One angry frown, and songht more servile climes. Shenstone on Crueltr.

## BAD, WICKED, EVIL.

BAD, in Saxon bad, baed, in German bös, probably connected with the Latin pejus, worse, and the Hebrew bosch. WICKED is probably changed from witched or bewitched, that is, possessed with an evil spirit. Bad respects moral and physical qualities in general ; wicked only moral qualities. EVIL, in German üebel, from the Hebrew chebel, pain, signifies that which is the prime canse of pain; evil, therefore, in its full extent, comprehends both badness and wickedness.

Whatever offends the taste and sentiments of a rational being is bad: food is Bad when it disagrees with the constitution; the air is bad which has anything in it disagreeable to the senses or hurtful to the body; books are bad which only inflame the imagination or the passions. Whatever is wicked offends the moral principles of a rational agent: any violation of the law is wicked, as law is the support of human society; an act of injustice or cruelty is wicked, as it opposes
the will of God and the feelings of hu manity. Evil is either moral or natural, and may be applied to every object that is contrary to good; but the term is employed only for that which is in the bigh. est degree bad or wicked.

When used in relation to persons, both refer to the morals, but bad is more general than wicked: a bad man is one who is generally wanting in the performance of his duty; a wicked man is one who is chargeable with actual violations of the law, human or divine; such a one has an evil mind. A bad character is the consequence of immoral conduct; but no man has the character of being wicked who has not been guilty of some known and flagrant vices: the inclinations of the best are evil at certain times.

> Whatever we may pretend, as to our belief, it is the strain of our actions that must show whether our principles have been good or bad. Blaik.
> For when th' impenitent and wicked die, Loaded with crimes and infamy ;
> If any sense at that sad time remains, They feel amazing terror, mighty pains.

> Pompret.
> And what your bounded view, which only saw
> A little part, deem'd evil, is no more;
> The storms of wintry time will quickly pass, And one unbounded spring encircle all.

Thomson.

## BADLY, ILL.

BADLY, in the manner of bad (v. Bact) ILL, in Swedish ill, Icelandic illır, Danish ill, etc., is supposed by Adelung, and with some degree of justice, not to be a contraction of evil, but to spring from the same root as the Greek ov oc , destructive, and $o \lambda \lambda \nu \omega$, to destroy.

These terms are both employed to modify the actions or qualities of things, but badly is always annexed to the action, and ill to the quality: as to do anytbing bad $l y$, the thing is badly done, an ill-judged scheme, an ill-contrived measure, an illdisposed person.

TO BAFFLE, DEFEAT, DISCONCERT, CONFOUND.
BAFFLE, in French baffler, from buffe, an ox, signifies to lead by the nose as an ox, that is, to amuse or disappoint. DEFEAT, in French défait, participle of défaire, is compounded of the privative do and faire, to do, signifying to undo. DIS

CONCERT is compounded of the privative dis and concert, signifying to throw out of concert or harmony, to putinto disorder. CONFOUND, in lirench confondre, is compounded of con and fouclre, to melt or mix together in general disorder.

When applied to the derangement of the mind or rational faculties, baffle and defeat respect the powers of argument, disconcert and confound, the thoughts and feelings: baffle expresses less than defeat; disconcert less than confound: a person is baffed in argument who is for the time discomposed and silenced by the superior address of his opponent; he is defeated in argument if his opponent has altogether the advantage of him in strength of reasoning and justness of sentiment: a person is disconcerted who loses his presence of mind for a moment, or has his feelings any way discomposed; he is confounded when the powers of thought and consciousness become torpid or vanish. A superior command of language or a particular degree of effrontery will frequently enable a person to bafle one who ls advocating the cause of truth: igaorance of the subject, or a want of ability, may occasion a man to be defeated by his adversary, even when he ls supporting a good cause: assurance is requisite to prevent any one from being disconcerted who is suddenly detected in any disgraceful proceeding: hardened effrontery sometimes keeps the daring villain from being confounded by any events, however awful.
When the mind has bronght itself to elose thinking, it may go on roundly. Every abstruse problem, every intricate question, will not baffe, discourage, or break it.

Locke.
He that could withstand conscience is frighted at infamy, and shame prevails when reason ts defeated.

Joungon.
She looked in the glass while ahe was speaking to mb, and without any confusion adjusted her tncker; she seemed rather pleased than diaconserted at being regarded with earnestness.

Hawkesworta.
I could not help inquiring of the clerks if they knew this lady, and was greatly confoundea when they told me with an air of secrecy that she was my cousin's mistress. Haweeswoath.

When applied to the derangement of plans, baffle expresses less than defeat; defeat less than confound; and disconcert less than all. Obstinacy, perseverance, kill, or art, baffes; superior force de-
feats; awkward circumatances discon cert; the visitation of God confounds. When wicked men strive to obtain their ends, it is a happy thiog if their adversaries have sufficient skill and address to bafle all their arts, and sufficient power to defeat all their projects; but sometimes when our best endeavors fail in our own behalf, the devices of men are confounded by the interposition of Hearcn. It frequently happens, even in the common transactions of life, that the best schemes are disconcerted by the trivial casualties of wind and weather. The obstinacy of a disorder may bafle the skill of the physician ; the imprudence of the patient may defeat the object of his prescriptions: the unexpected arrival of a superior may disconcert the unauthorized plan of those who are aubordinate: the miraculous destruction of his army confounded the project of the king of As. syria.
Now, shepherds 1 to your halplass chargs ba kind, Baffe tha raging year, and fll their pens
With food at will.
Тномдоn.
He finds himsalf naturally to drand a auperior baing that can defeat all hie dasigns and disappoint all hle hopaa.

Tillotson,
In aping thla faoulty I hava asan him diaconoarted, whan ha would fain hava basn thought a man of pleasantry.

Mиариу.
So apales tha Son of God, and Satan atood AwhUe as muta, confounded what to asy. Miloton.

BAND, COMPANY, CREW, GANG.
BAND, in French bande, in German, etc., band, from binden, to hind, signifies the thing bound. COMPANY, v. To ac. company. CREW, from the French cme, participle of croitre, and the Latin cresco, to grow or gather, signifies the thing grown or formed into a mass or assembly. GANG, in Saxon, German, eto., gang, a walk, from gehen, to go, signifies a body going the same way.

All these terms denote a small associatlon for a particular object: a band is an asseciation where men are bound together by some strong obligation, whether taken ia a good or bad sense, as a band of soldiers, a band of robbers. A company marks an association for convenience, without any particular obligation. as a company of travellers, a company of strolling players. Crew marks an asso-

## BANISH

ciation collected together by some external power, or by coincidence of plan and motive: in the former case it is used for a ship's crew; in the latter and bad sense of the word it is employed for any number of evil-minded persons met together from different quarters, and co-operating for some bad purpose. Gang is used in a bad sense for an association of thieves, murderers, and depredators in general; or in a technical sense for those who work together.

Behold a ghastly band,
Each a torch in his hand!
These ars Greciau ghosts that in battle ware slain,
And unburied remaln, Inglorious on the plain.

Dinyden.
Chuucer supposes in his prologue to his Tales that a company of pilgrims going to Canter'bury assemble at an inn in Southwark, and ugree that for their common amusement on the road each of them shall tell at least one tale in golng to Canterbury, and another in coming back from thence.

TYRWHIT.
The clowns, a boist'rous, rude, ungovern'd crew, With furlous baste to the loud summons flew.

Dryden.
Others, again, who form a gang,
Yet take due measures not to hang;
In magazines their forces join,
By legal methods to purloin.
Mallet.

## BANE, PEST, RUIN.

BANE, in its proper sense, is the name of a poisonous plant. PEST, in French peste, Latin pestis, a plague, from pastum, participle of posco, to feed upon or consume. RUIN, in French ruine, Latin ruina, from $r u o$, to rush, signifies the falling into a ruin, or the canse of ruin.

These terms borrow their figurative signification from three of the greatest evils in the world; namely, poison, plague, and destruction. Baze is said of things only; pest of persons only: whatever produces a deadly corruption is the bane; whoever is as obnoxious as the plague is a pest: luxury is the bane of civil society; gaming is the bane of all youth; sycophauts are the pests of society. Ruin comprehends more than either bane or pest, these latter being comparatively partial misehiefs, but ruin extends to every part of that which it affects.
Pierc'd through, the dauntless heart then turnbles slain,
And from his fatal courage finds his bane.
POPE.

First dire Chimera's conquest was enjoin'd, This pest be slaugliter'd (for he read the skies), And trusted heaven's informing prodigies.

Popa

Be this, oh mother ! your religious care, I go to rouse soft Paris to the war. Oh! would kind earth the hateful wretch embrace. That pest of Troy, that ruin. of our race, Deep to the dark abyss might he descend, Troy yet should flourish, and my sorrows end. Pope.

## TO BANISH, EXILE, EXPEL.

## BANISH, in French bannir, Germaa

 bannen, signifies to put out of a commu nity by a ban or civil interdict, whieh was formerly either eeelesiastical or civil. EXILE, in French exiler, from the Latin exilium, banishment, and exul, an exile, compounded of extra and solum, the soil, signifies to put away from one's native soil or country. EXPEL, in Latin expello, compounded of ex and pello, to drive, sig. nifies to drive out.The idea of exclusion, or of a coercive removal from a place, is common to these terms: banishment includes the removal from any place, or the prohibition of access to any place, where one has been or whither one is in the habit of going ; exile signifies the removal from one's home: to exile, therefore, is to banish, but to banish is not always to exile: the Tarquins were banished from Rome never to return; Coriolanus was exiled, or driven from his home. Banishment follows from a decree of justice; exile either by the necessity of circumstances or an order of authority: banishment is a disgraceful punishment inflicted by tribunals upon delinquents; exile is a disgrace incurred without dishonor: exile removes as from our country; banishment drives us from it ignominiously: it is the custom in Russia to banish offenders to Siberia; Ovid was exiled by an order of Augustus. Banishment is an action, a compulsory exereise of power over another, which must be submitted to; exile is a state into which we may go voluntarily: many Romans chose to go into exile rather than await the judgment of the people, by whom they might have been banished. Banishment and expulsion both mark a disgraceful and ooercive exclusion, but banishment is authoritative; it is a public act of government: expulsion is simply coercive; it
is the act of a private individual or a

## BARE

small community. Banishment always supposes a removal to a distant spot, to another land; expulsion never reaches beyond a particular house or society: expulvion from the university, or any public school, is the necessary consequence of discovering a refractory temper, or a propensity to insubordination.
O banishment ! Eternal banishment ! Ne'er to return! Must we ne'er meet again I My heart will break.
Arms, and the man I sing, who, forc'd by fate, And haughty Juno's unrelenting hate,
Exapell'd and exil'd, left the Trojan shore.
Dayden.
The expulsion and escape of Hippias at length set Athens free.

Combealand.
Banishment and expulsion are likewise used in a figurative sense, although exile is not: in this sense, banishment marks a distant and entire removal; expulsion a violent removal: we banish that which it is not prudent to retain; we expel that which is noxious. Hopes are banished from the mind when every prospect of success has disappeared; fears are banished when they are altogether groundiess ; envy, hatred, and every evil passion, should be expelled from the mind as disturbers of its peace: harmony and good-humor are best promoted by banishing from conversation all subjects of difference in religion and politics; good morals require that every unseemly word should be expelled.

If swect content is banish' $d$ from my soul,
Life grows a burden and a weight of woe.
Gentlebran.
In all the tottering imbecility of a new government, and with a parliament totally unmsiageable, his Majesty (King William III.) persevered. He perscvered to expel the fears of his people hy his fortitude; to steady their fickleness hy his constancy.

Burae.

## BARE, NAKED INCOVERED.

BARE, in Saxon bare, German bar, Hebrew parah, to lay bare, and bar, pure. NAKED, like the Saxon naced, the low German naakt, etc., and the Latin nudus, is connected with or derived from the Armoric noas, Welsh noeth, Irish nochta, open, noehduighe, naked, stripped, from noehduigham, to strip.

Bare marks the condition of being without a particular covering; naked, that of being without any covering; bare is therefore often substituted for naked,
to a certain degree: we speak of bars headed, barefoot, to expose the bare arm; but a figure is naked, or the body is naked.
Though the Lords used to be covered whilst the Commons were bare, yet the Commoas would not be bare before the Scottish commissioners; and so none were covered. Clarendon
He pitying how they stood
Before him naked to the air, that now
Must suffer clange-
As father of his family he clad
Their nakedness with skins of beasts. Milion.
When applied to other objects, bare conveys the idea of a particular want; naked of a general want: as the bare ground, bare walls, a bare house, where the idea of want in a certain particular is strongly conveyed; but naked walls, naked fields, a naked appearance, denote the absence of covering that is usual or general : bare in this seuse is frequently followed by the object that is wanted; naked is mostly employed as an adjunct: a tree is bare of leaves: this constitutes it a naked tree.

The story of Æneas, on which Virgil founded his poem, was very bare of circumstances,

Apdison.
Why turn'st thou from me? I'm alone already ; Methinks I stand upon a naked beach, Sighing to winds, and to the seas complaining.

Otway.
They preserve the same analogy in their figurative application: a bare suffciency is that which scarcely suffices; the naked truth is that which has nothing about it to intercept the view of it from the mind.

Christ and the Apostles did most earnestly inculcate the belief of his Godhead, and accepted men upon the bare acknowledgment of this.

South.
The truth appears so naked on my side, That any purblind eye may find it out.

Shakspeare.
Naked and uneovered hear a strong resemblance to each other; to be naked is, in fact, to have the body uncovered, but many things are uncovered which are not naked: nothing is said to be naked but what in the nature of things, or according to the usages of men, ought to be covered; everything is uneovered from which the covering is removed. According to our natural sentiments of decency or our acquired sentiments of propriety, we expect to see the naked body covered
with clothing; the naked tree covered with leaves; the uaked walls covered with paper or paint ; and the naked country covered with verdure or habitations: on the other band, plants are left uncovered to receive the benefit of the sun or rain; furniture or articles of use or necessity are left uncovered to suit the conrenience of the user; or a person may re uncovered, in the sense of bareheaded, on cortain occasions; so in the moral application, what is naked is without the ordinary or necessary appendage; what is uncovered is simply without any covering.

Not that God doth require nothing unto happiness at the hands of men, saving only a naked belief, for hope and charity we may not exclude.

Hoore,
In the eye of that Supreme Being to whom our whole internal frame is uncovered, dispositions hold the place of actions.

Blair.

## BARE, SCANTY, DESTITUTE.

BARE, v. Bare, naked. SCANTY, from to scant, signifies the quality of scauting: scant is most probably changed from the Latin scindo, to clip or cut. DESTITUTE, in Latin destitutus, participle of destituo, compounded of de, privative, and statuo, to appoint or provide for, signifies unprovided for or wanting.

All these terms denote the absence or privation of some necessary. Bare and scanty have a relative sense: bare respects what serves for ourselves ; scanty that which is provided by others. A subsistence is bare; a supply is scanty. An imprudent person will estimate as a bare competence what would supply an economist with superfluities. A hungry person will consider as a scanty allowance what would more than suffice for a moderate eater.

Were it for the glory of God that the clergy should be left as bare as the Apostles when they had neither scrip nor staff, God would, I hope, ondue them with the self-same affection.

Hooser.
Sa seanty is our present allowance of happimess, that in many situations life could scarcely be supported, if hope were not allowed to relieve the present hour by pleasures horrowed from the tuture.

Johnson.
Bare is said of those things which belong to our corporeal sustenance; destitute is said generally of whatever one wants. A person is bare of clothes or
money; he is destitute of friends, of re sources, or of comforts.
Dertitute of that faithful guide, the compass, the ancients had no other method of regulating their course than by observing the sun and stars.

Robeatson.

## BARE, MERE.

BARE, v. Bare, naked. MERE, in Latin merus, mere, properly solus, alone, from the Greek $\mu \epsilon \iota \rho \omega$, to divide, signifies sepa rated from others.

Bare is used in a positive sense: mere negatively. The bare recital of some events brings tears. The mere circumstance of receiving favors ought not to bind any person to the opinions of another. The bare idea of being in the company of a murderer is apt to a waken horror in the mind. The mere attendance at a place of worship is the smallest part of a Christian's duty.

Christ and the Apostles did most earnestly inculcate the belief of his Godhead, and accepted men upon the bare acknowledgment of this. South.
I would advise every man, who would not appear in the world a mere scholar or philosopher, to make himself master of the social virtue of complaisance.

ADDISON.

## BASE, VILE, MEAN.

BASE, in French bas, low, from the Latin basis, the foundation, or lowest part. VILE, in French vil, Latin vilis, Greek $\phi a v \lambda o s$, worthless, of no account. MEAN and MIDDLE both come from the Latin medius, which signifies moderate, not elevated, of little value.

Base is a stronger term than vile, and vile than mean. Base marks a high degree of moral turpitude: vile and mean denote in different degrees the want of all that can be valued or esteemed. What is base excites our abhorrence, what is vile provokes disgust, what is mean awakens contempt. Base is opposed to magnanimous; vile to noble; mean to generous. Ingratitude is base; it does violence to the best affections of our nature : flattery is vile; it violates truth in the grossest manner for the lowest purposes of gain: compliances are mean which are derogatory to the rank, dignity, or responsibility of the individual. The more elevated a person's rank, the greater is his baseness who abuses his influengt to the injury of those who repose cond
dence in him. The lower the rank of the individual and the more atrocions his conduct, the viler is his character. The more respectable the station of the person and the more extended his wealth, the greater is his meanness when he descends to practices fitted only for his inferiors. The school-master of Falerii was guilty of the basest treachery in surrendering his helpless charge to the enemy: the Roman general, therefore, with true nobleness of mind, treated him as a vile malefactor. Sycophants are in the habit of practising every mean artifice to obtain favor.

Scorns the base earth and crowd below, And with a soaring wing still mounts on high.

Creech.
That all the petty kings him envied, And worshipp'd be like him and deitied, Of courtly sycophants and caitiffs vile.

Gileert West.
There is hardly a spirit upon earth so mean and contracted as to centre all regards on its own interest exclusive of the rest of mankind.

Berbeley.

## battle, Combat, engagement, acTION.

BATTLE, in French bataille, comes from the Latin batuo, Hebrew abat, to beat, signifying a beating. COMBAT signifies literally a battle one with the other. ENGAGEMENT signifies the act of being engaged or occupied in a contest. ACTION, the state of acting and being acted upon by the way of fighting.

Battle is a general term; combat, engagement, and action are particular terms, having a modified signification. Battle, as an act of fighting, may be applied to what takes place either between bodies or individuals, as the battles between the Carthaginians and the Romans, or between Casar and Pompey; combat applies only to what takes place between individuals, as the combat between the Horatii and the Curiatii. Battle is taken for that which is premeditated and prepared, as battles between armies always are; combats are frequently accidental, if not unexpected, as the combats of Hercules, or the combat between Menelaus and Paris.

A battle bloody fought,
Where darkness and surprise made conquest cheap.

Dryden.

The most curious reason of all (for the wages of battle) is given in the Mirror, that it is allowable upon warrant of the oombat between David, for the people of Israel of the one party, and Goliath, tor the Plilistines, of the other party.

Blackstone.
Battle and combat are taken for the act of fighting generally ; engagement and action are seldom used in any other acceptation. Battle in this case is taken without any qualification of time, circum. stances, or manner, as armed for battle, wager of battle, and the like; combat refers to the act of individuals fighting with one another : to challenge to single combat, the combat was obstinate and bloody: engagement and action, which are properly abstract and general terms to denote engaging and acting, but bere limited to the act of fighting, have alwaye a reference to something actually passing or described as passing, and are therefore confined to descriptions, as in describing what passes during the engagement or action, or the number of engagements or actions, in which an individual is present or takes a part. It is reported of the German women, that whenever their husbands went to battle, they used to go.into the thickest of the combat to carry them provisions, or dress their wounds; and that sometimes they would take part in the engagement.
I have not disposed my materials to abide the test of a captious controversy, but of a sober and even forgiving examination: they are not armed at all points for battle, but dressed to visit those who are willing to give a peaceful entrance to truth.

Bures.
This hrave man, with long resistance, Held the combat doubtful.

Rowe.
The Emperor of Morocco commanded his principal officers that, if he died during the engagement, they sbould conceal his death from the army.

Addison.
Dreading they might be attacked before they could be prepared for action, they pleasantly said to an English gentleman, then prisoner on board, "We have received an invitation from the admiral to dine with him to-day, but it must have been your admiral, not our own." Glanke.

## TO BE, EXIST, SUBSIST.

BE, with its inflections, is to be traced through the Northern and Oriental languages to the Hebrew hovah, to be. EX. IST, in French exister, Latin existo, com. pounded of $e$ or ex and sisto, signified to place or stand by itself or of itself,

From this derivation of the latter verb arises the distinction in the use of the two words. The former is applicable either to the accidents of things, or to the substances of things themselves; the latter only to substances or things that stand or exist of themselves. We say of qualities, of forms, of actions, of arrangement, of movement, and of every different relation, whether real, ideal, or qualificative, that they are; we say of matter, of spirit, of body, and of all substances, that they exist. Man is mad, and will be man under all circumstances and changes of life: he exists under every known climate and variety of heat or cold in the atmosphere.

If, previous to the pain, I do not feel any actual pleasure, I liave no reason to judge that any auch thing excists; since pleasure is only pleas. ure as it is felt.

When the sonl is freed from all corporeal alliance, then it truly exists.

Huohes after Xenophon.
Being and existence as nouns have this further distinction, that the former is employed not only to designate the abstract action of being, but is metaphorically employed for the sensible object that is; the latter is confined altogether to the abstract sense. Hence we speak of human beings; beings animate or inanimate; the Supreme Being: but of the existence of a God; existence of innumerable worlds; the existence of evil.

Existence is a blessing to those beinge only who are endowed with perception, and is ln a manner thrown away upon dead matter, any further than as it is subservient to beings which are conscious of their eatintence.

ADDISON.
Being may in some cases be indifferently employed for existence, particularly in the grave style: when speaking of animate objects, as the being of a God; our frail being; and when qualified in a compound form is preferable, as our well-being.

How dreadful ls the condition of that creature who is only senslble of the being of his Creator by what he suffers from him!

Addigon.
He does not understand either vice or virtue who will not allow that life without the rules of morality is a wayward and uneasy being.

Sterle.
SUBSIST is properly a species of $e x$ isting; from the Latin prepositive sub,
signifying for a time, it denotes tempo rary or partial existence. Everything ex ists by the creative and preservative power of the Almighty; that which subsists depends for its existence upon the chances and changes of life. To exist, therefore, designates simply the event of being or existing; to subsist conveys the accessory ideas of the mode and duration of exist. ing. Man exists while the vital or spirit. ual part of him remains; he subsists by what he obtains to support life. Friendships exist in the world, notwithstanding the prevalence of selfishness; but they cannot subsist for any length of time between individuals in whom this base temper prevails.

> He only properly exists whose exiatence is entirely present; tlut is, in other words, who easists in the most perfect manner, and in such a manner as we have no idea of.

> Addigon.
> Forlorn of thee,
> Whither shall I betake me? where subsist ?

Milton.

## TO BE, BECOME, GROW.

BE, $v$. To be, exist. BECOME signifies to come to be, that is, to be in course of time. GROW comes from the same root as the Latin crevi, perfect of cresco, to increase or grow.
$B e$ is positive; become is relative: a person is what he is without regard to what he was; be becomes that which he was not before. We judge of a man by what he is, but we cannot judge of him as to what he will become: this year he is immoral and irreligious, but by the force of reflection on himself he may become the contrary in another year. To become includes no idea of the mode or circum stance of its becoming; to grow is to become by a gradual pracess : a man may become a good man from a vicious one, in consequence of a sudden action on his mind; but he grows in wisdom and virtue by means of an increase in knowledge and experience.

To $b e$ or not to $b_{6}$ that is the question.
Shakspeare.
About this time Savage's nurse, who hed always treated him as her own son, died; and it was natural for him to take care of those effects which by her death were, as he imagined, becoma his own.

Jounson.
Anthors, like coins, grow dear as they grow old.

## TO BEAR, YIELD.

BEAR, in Saxon baran, old German beran, Latin pario, and Hebrew bara, to create. YIELD, v. To afford.

Bear conveys the idea of creating within itself; yield that of giving from itself. Animals bear their young; inanimate objects yield their produce. An appletree bears apples; the earth yields fruits. Bear marks properly the natural power of bringing forth something of its own kind; yield is said of the result or quantum brought forth: shrubs bear leaves, flowers, or berries, according to their natural properties; flowers yield seeds plentifully or otherwise, as they are favored by circumstances.
No keel shall cut the waves for foreign ware, For ev'ry soil shall ev'ry product bear.

Dayden.
Nor Bactria, nor the richer Indian fields,
Nor all the gummy stores Arabia yieldb, Nor any foreign earth of greater name, Cao with sweet Italy contend in fame. Driden.

## TO BEAR, CARRY, CONVEY, TRANSPORT.

BEAR, from the sense of generating ( $v$. To bear, yield), has derived that of retaining. CARRY comes immediately from car, chaviot, etc., German karren, etc., signifying properly to move a thing from one place to another. CONVEY, in Latin conveho, is probably compounded of con and veho, to carry with one. TRANSPORT, in French transporter, Latin trunsporto, compounded of trans, over, and porto, to carry, signifies to carry to a distance.

To bear is simply to take the weight of any substance upon one's self, or to have the object about one: to carry is to remove a body from the spot where it was: we always bear in carrying, but we do not always carry when we bear. Both may be applied to things as well as persons: whatever receives the weight of anything bears it; whatever is caused to move with anything carries it. That which cannot be easily borne must be burdensome to carry: in extremely hot weather it is sometimes irksome to bear. the wcight even of one's clothing: Virgil praises the pious Fneas for having carried his father on his shoulders in order to save him from the sacking of Troy.

Weak people or weak things are not fit to bear heavy burdens: lazy people prefer to be carried rather than to carry anything.
Great Areithous, known from shore to shore By the huge knotted iron mace he bore. Pope.

A whale, besides those seas and oceans in the several vessels of his body which are filled witb innumerable shoals of little animals, carries about with hima a whole world of inhabitants.

Addison.
To bear is said either of persons or inanimate things, to carry, in its proper application, is said of persons only.

This done, to solemnize the warrior's doom,
The pions hero rais'd a lofty tomb;
The towering top his well-koown ensigns bore,
His arms, his once lond trump, and tapering var. Pitt.
To bear supposus the bearer for the most part to be stationary, but it may be applied to one who is in motion, as the bearer of a letter. In poetry it is mostly used in such connections for carry.
Ia hollow wood they floating armies bear.

## Driden.

The spoils of war brought to Feretrian Jove,
An empty coat of armor hung above
The conqueror's chariot, and in triamph borne, A streamer from a boarded galley torn.

Dayden.
To carry always supposes the carrier to be in motion, and that which is carried may either be about his person or resting on something, as to carry a thing in one's hand, or to carry it in a basket.

They (the slain Spartans) were carried home upoo their bucklers.

Pottea.
Bear and carry preserve this distinction in their figurative or moral application; bcar is applied to that which for the most part remains with the person or thing bearing; carry to that which passes by means of the person; thus to bear or carry a name: to bear a name is to have it without regard to time or place; to carry a name is to carry it down to posterity. So to bear a burden, to carry weight, authority, conviction, etc.; to bear a stamp, to carry a mark to one's grave.

Thanks to our sullen resistance to innovation, we still bear the stamp of our forefathers.

Bopee.
A man is glad to gain numbers on his side, as they seem to strengthen him in his opinions. Is makes him helieve that his principles carry conviction with them.

Addison.

Convey and transport are species of carrying. Carry in its particular sense 13 employed either for personal exertions or actions performed by the help of othur means; convey and transport are employed for such actious as are performed not by immediate personal intervention or exertion: a porter carries goods on his knot: goods are conveyed in a wagon or a cart; they are transported in a vessel. Convey expresses simply the mode of removing; transport annexes to this the idea of the place and the distance. Merchants get the goods conveyed into their warehouses which they have had transported from distant countries. Pedestrians take no more with them than what they can conveniently carry: could armies do the same, one of the greatest ubstacles to the indulgence of human umbition would be removed; for many an incursion into a peaceful country is defeated for the want of means to convey provisions sufficient for such numbers; and when mountains or deserts are to be traversed, another great difficulty presents itself in the transportation of artillery.
Because these funerals (of young men) were celebrated by torch-light, it became usual to carry torches at all other hurials, though performed in the day.

Portea.
Love cannot, like the wind, itself convey
To fill two sails, though both are spread one way. Haward.
It is to navigation that men ara indebted for the power of transporting the superflnous stock of one part of the earth to supply the wants of another.

Robentson.
TO BEAR, SUFFER, ENDURE, SUPPORT.
To BEAR (v. To bear). SUFFER, in Latin suffero, compounded of sub, under, and fero, to bear, signifies to bear up or from underneath. ENDURE, in Latin suduro, signifies to harden or become hardened. SUPPORT, from sub, under, and porto, to carry, signifies to bear up the weight of a thing in carrying it.

The idea of receiving the weight or pressure of any object is common to these terms, which differ only in the circumstances of the action. To bear is the general term taken in the proper sense without any qualification; the other terms denote different modes of bearing. To bear may be said of that which
is not painful, as to bear a burden, in the indifferent sense; so likewise the term to support, as to support a person who is falling; but for the most part these, as well as the other two terms, are taken in the bad sense. In this case to bear and to suffer are both involuntary acts as far as they relate to cvils imposed upon us without our will ; but bear is also voluntary, inasmuch as it denotes the manner of receiving the evil, so as to diminish the sense of it ; and suffer is purely passive and involuntary. We are born to suffer-bence the necessity for us to learn to bear all the numerous and diversified evils to which we are obnoxious.
Let a man be brought into some snch severe and trying situation as fixes the attention of the public on his behavior. The first question wa put concerning him is not what does he suffer, but how does he bear it?

Blaib.
To bear is applied either to ordinary or extraordinary evils, and is either a temporary or a permanent act of the resolution; to endure is applied only to great evils requiring strong and lasting resolution: we bear disappointments and erosses; we endure hunger, cold, tortures, and provocations. The first object of education should be to accustom children to bear contradictions and crosses, that they may afterward be enabled to endure every trial.

There is something disingenuons and immoral in the being able to bear such a sight. Tatlen. How small of all that human hearts endure, That part which kings or laws can cause or cire!

Goldsmith.
To bear and endure signify to receive beconingly the weight of what befalls ourselves; to support signifies to bear either our own or another's evils, for we may either support ourselves or be supported by others, but in this former case we bear not so much from the resolution to bear as from the motives which are presented to the mind; a person supports himself in the hour of trial by the condolence of friends, but still more by the power of religion.
'Tis mine to tame the stubborn plals, Break the stiff soil and house the grain : Yet I without a murmur bear The various labors of the year.

Gay.
The same Providence that gave him strength to endure, laid afflictions upon him to put that strength to the trial.

Cdmberland.

With inward consolations recompens'd And oft supported.

The words suffer and endure are said only of persons and personal matters: to bear and support are said also of things: the former in respect to things of any weight, large or small; the latter in respect to things of great weight, as the beams are cut according to the weight they have to bear; a building is supported by pillars.
They record of him that he was so prodigiously exact, that for the experiment sake he huilt an edifice of great beauty and seeming strength, but contrived it so as to bear its own weight only, and not to admit the additioc of the smallest particle.

Tatlen.
These temples are supported hy thirteen large fluted Doric columas on each side, and six at each end.
beyidone.

## TO BEAT, STRIKE, HIT.

BEAT, in French battre, Latin batuo, comes from the Hebrew habat, to beat. STRIKE is connected with stretch in the sense of extending lengthwise over the surface of a body. HIT, in Latin ictus, participle of ico, comes from the Hebrew necat, to strike.

To beat is to redouble blows; to strike ls to give one single blow; but the bare touching in consequence of an effort constitutes hitting. We never beat but with design, nor hit without an aim, but we may strike by accident. Beating was formerly resorted to as almost the only mode of punishment. He who brandishes a stick heedlessly may strike another to his serious injury. Hitting is the object of the marksman.

Young Sylvia beats her breast, and cries aloud For succor from the clownish neighborhood.

DRYDEN.
Send thy arrows forth,
Ftrike, strike these tyrants, and avenge my tears. Comaraland.
No man is thought to become vicious by sacriIfing the life of an animal to the pleasure of hitfing a mark. It is, however, certain that by this zet more happiness is destroyed than produced.

HAWEESWORTH.

## TO BEAT, DEFEAT, OVERPOWER, ROUT, OVERTHROW.

BEAT is here figuratively employed in the sense of the former section. DEEEAT, from the French défaire, implies
to undo; and OVERPOWER to have the power over any one. To ROUT, from the French mettre en deroute, is to turn from one's route; and OVERTHROW to throw over or upside down.

Beat respects personal contests between individuals or parties; defeat, rout, overpower, and overthrow are employed mostly for contests between numbers. Al general is beaten in important engagements; he is defeated and may be routed in partial attacks; he is overpowered by numbers, and overthrown in set eogagements. To beat is an indefinite term expressive of no particular degree: the being beaten may be attended with greater or less damage. To be defeated is a specific disadvantage, it is a failure in a particular object of more or less importance. To be cuerpowered is a positive loss; it is a loss of the power of acting, which may be of longer or shorter duration: to bs routed is a temporary disadvantage; a rout alters the route or course of proceeding, but does not disable: to be overthrown is the greatest of all misohiefs, and is applicable only to great armies and great concerns: an cuerthrow commonly decides a contest. Beat is a term which reflects more or less dishonor on the general or the army, or on both: defeat is an indifferent term; the hest generals may sometimes be defeated by circumstances which are above human control; overpowering is coupled with no particular honor to the wimer, nor disgrace to the loser; superior power is oftener the result of good fo:tune than of skill. The bravest and finest troops may be overpowered in cases which exceed human power: a rout is always disgraceful, particularly to the army; it always arises from want of firmness: an overthrow is fatal rather than dishonorable; it excites pity rather than contempt.

Turnus, I know you think me not your friend. Nor will I much with your belief contend; I beg your greatness not to give the law In other realms, bat beaten to withdraw.

Satan frequently confesses the omnipotence of the Supreme Being, that being the perfection he was forced to allow him, and the only consideration which conld snpport his pride under the shame of his defeat.

Andison
The veterans who defended the walis were soon overpowered by nambers.

ROBEMTBON

The rout (at the battle of Pavia) now became noiversal, and resistance cebsed in almost every part but where the king was in persco.

Ronebtaon.
Miton's subject is rebellion against the Supreme Being, raised by the highest order of crested beings; the overthrow of their host is the punishment of their erine.

Johnson.

## BEATIEICATION, CANONIZATION.

These are two acts emanating from the poatifioal authority, by which the Pope declares a person, whose life has been exemplary and accompanied with miraoles, as entitled to enjoy eternal happiness after his death, and determines in consequence the sort of worship which should be paid to him. In the act of BEATLFICATION the Pope pronounces only as a private person, and uses his own authority ooly in granting to certain persons, or to a religious order, the privilege of paying a particular worship to a beatified object. In the act of CANON. IZATION, the Pope speaks as a judge alter a judicial examioation on the state, and decides the sort of worship which ought to be paid by the whole church.

## BEAUTIFUL, FINIG, HANDSOME, PRETTY.

BEAUTIFUL, or full of beauty, in French beauté, comes from beau, belle, in Latin bellus, fair, and benus or bonus, good. FINE, in the sense in which it is here taken, is doubtless connected with the German fein, low German fien, Swedish wän; Welsh gwen, white, beautiful, Latin venustus, fair, and the Greek pawos, bright, splendid. HANDSOME, from the word hand, denotes a species of Beauty in the body, as handy denotes its agility and skill. PRETTY, in Saxon pratete, adorned, German prächtig, Swedish präktig, splendid, which is connected with our words parade and pride.

Of these epithets, which denote what ls pleasing to the eye, beautiful conveys the strongest meaning; it marks the possession of that in its fullest extent, of which the other terms denote the possession in part only. Fineress, handsomeness, and prettiness, are to beauty as parts to a whole. When taken in relation to persons, a woman is beautiful who in feature and complexion possesses a grand asnemblage of graces; a woman is fine who
with a striking figure unites shape and symmetry; a woman is handsome who has good features, and pretty if with symmetry of feature be united delicacy. The beautiful is determined by fixed rules; it admits of no excess or defect; it compre. hends regularity, proportion, and a dve distribution of color, and every particular which can engage the attention: the fine must be coupled with a certain grandeur of figure; it is incompatible with that which is small; a little woman can never be fine: the handsome is a general assemblage of what is agreeable; it is marked by no particular characteristic, but the absence of all deformity: prettiness is always coupled with simplicity, it is incompatible with that which is large; a tall woman with masculine features cannot be pretty. Beauty is pcculiarly a female perfection ; in the malc sex it is rather a defect; a man can scarcely be beautiful without losing his manly characteristics, boldness and energy of mind, strength and robustness of limb: but though a man may not be beautiful or pretty, he may be fine or handsome.

[^18]It was observed, of all wise men living, he was the most delighted and taken with handsome persons and fine clothes.

Clarendon.
"Indeed, my dear," says she, " you make me mad sometimes, so you do, with the silly way you have of treating me like a pretty idiot."

## Stelel.

When said in relation to other objects, beautiful, fine, pretty, have a strong analogy. With respect to the objects of nature, the beautiful is displayed in the works of creation, and wherever it appears it is marked by elegance, variety, harmony, proportion; but above all, that softness which is peculiar to female beauty: the fine, on the contrary, is associated with the grand, and the pretty with the simple: the sky presents either a beartiful aspect, or a fine aspect, but not a pretty aspect. A rural scene is beauffud
when it unites richuess and diversity of natural objects with superior cultivation; it is fine when it presents the bolder and more impressive features of nature, consisting of rocks and mountains; it is pratty when, divested of all that is extraordinary, it presents a smiling view of nature in the gay attire of shrubs, and many-colored flowers, and verdant meadows, and luxuriant fields.
Scenes must be beautiful which, daily viewed, Please daily, and whose novelty survives Long knowledge and the scrutiny of years.

Cowpen.
There are fine shady walks on all sides of Messina.

Brydone.
He sees me, and at once, swift as a bird,
Ascends the neighboring beech, there whisks his brush,
And perks his ears, and stamps and cries aloud, With all the prettiness of feigned alarm.

Cowper.
Beautiful, fine, and pretty, are applied indifferently to works of nature and art; handsome mostly to those of art only: a beautiful picture, a fine drawing, a pretty cap, and handsome furniture.

It is observed among birds that Nature has lavished all her ornaments upon the male, who very often appears in a most beautiful headdress.

Addison.
It is executed in the most masterly style, and is indeed one of the finest remains of antiquity.

Brydone.
In the moral application beautiful sentiments have much in them to interest the affections as well as the understanding; they make a vivid impression: fine sentiments mark an elevated mind and a loftiness of conception; they occupy the understanding, and afford scope for reflection; ihey make a strong impression : pretty ideas are but pleasing associations or combinations that only amuse for the time being, without producing any lasting impression. We may speak of a beautiful poem, although not a beautiful tragedy; but a fine tragedy, and a pretty comerly. Imagery may be beautiful and fine, 5ut seldom pretty.

[^19]An innocent creature, who would start at the name of strumpet, may think it pretty to be called a mistress.

Spectator.
Handsome conveys the idea not only of that which is agreeable in appearance, but also that which is agreeable to the understanding and the moral feelings from its fitness and propriety; it is therefore applied with this collateral meaning to moral circumstances and actions, as a handsome present, a handsome apology.
A letter dated Sept. acquaints me tbat the writer, being resolved to try his fortune, had fasted all that day, and, that he might be sure of dreaming upon something at night, procured a handsome slice of bride-cake.

Spectator.
Longinus excuses Homer very handsomely, when he says the poet made his gods like men, that he might make his men appear like the gods.

AdDison.

## BECOMING, DECENT, SEEMLY, FIT, SUITABLE.

BECOMING, from lecome, compounded of be and come, signifies coming in its place. DECENT, in French décent, in Latin decens, participle of deceo, from the Greek $\delta$ oкع , and the Chaldee $d e c a$, to beseem, signifies the quality of beseeming and befitting. SEEMLY, or SEEMLIKE, signifies likely or pleasant in appearance. FIT, in French fait, Latin factum, participle of facio, to do, signifies done as it ought to be. SCITABLE, from to suit, signifies able to suit; and suit, in French suite, Latin secutus, comes from sequor, to follow, signifying to follow as it ought.

What is becoming respects the manner of being in society such as it ought, as to person, time, and place. Decency regards the manner of displaying one's self so as to be approved and respected. Scemliness is very similar in sense to decency, but is confined to such things as immediately strike the observer. Fitness and suitableness relate to the disposition, arrangement, and order of either being or doing, according to persons, things, or circumstances. The becoming consists of an exterior that is pleasing to the view: decency involves moral propriety; it is regulated by the fixed rules of goodbreeding: semnliness is decency in the minor morals or in one's behavior ; fit ness is regulated by local circumstances, and suitableness by the established customs and usages of society. The drees
of a womao is becoming that renders her person wore agreeable to the eye; it is decent if it in no wise offend modesty; it is unseemly if it in any wise violate propriety; it is $f t$ if it be what the occasion requires; it is suitable if it be according to the rank and character of the wearer. What is becoming varies for every individual; the age, the complexion, the stature, and the bahits of the person must be consulted in order to obtain the appearance which is becoming; what becomes a young female, or one of fair complexion, may not become one who is farther advanced in life, or who has dark features: decency and seemliness are one and the same for all; all civilized nations have drawn the exact line between the decent and the indecent, although fashion or false principles may sometimes draw persons aside from this line: fitness varics with the seasons, or the circumstances of persons; what is fit for the winter is unfit for the summer, or what is fit for dry weather is unft for wet; what is fit for town is not fit for the country; what is fit for a healthy person is not fit for one that is infirm : suitableness accommodates itself to the external circumstances and conditions of persons; the house, the furniture, the equipage of a prince must be suitable to his rank; the retinue of an ambassador must be suitable to the character which he has to maintain, and to the wealth, dignity, and importance of the nation whose monarch he represents. Gravity becomes a judge, or a clergyman, at all times: an unassuming tone is becoming in a child when he addresses his superiors. Decency requires a more than ordinary gravity when we are in the house of mourning or prayer; it is indecent for a child, on the commission of a fault, to affect a careless unconcera in the presence of those whom he bas offended. Seemliness is an essential part of good manners; to be loud or disputative in company is unseemly. There is a fitness or unfitness in persons for each other's society: education fits a person for the society of the noble, the wealthy, the polite, and the learned. There is a suitableness in people's tempers for each other; such a suitability is particularly requisite for those who are destined to live together: selfish people,
with opposite tastes and habits, can net er be suitable companions.

Nothing onglt to be held landable or becoming but what nature itself should prompt us th think so.

Steele.
A Gothic bishop, perhaps, thonght it proper to repeat such a form in such particnlar shoes or slippers; another fancied it would be very deoent if such a part of public devotions were performed with a mitre on his head. ADdisors.

> I am a woman lacking wit

To make a seemly answer to such persons.

## Silakspeare.

To the wiser judgment of God it mnst be left to determine what is fit to be bestowed, and what to be withheld.

Blair.
Raphael, annidst his tenderness and friendship for man, shows such a dignity and condescension in all his speech and behavior as are suitable to a superior nature.

Addison.

## becoming, COMELY, Gracervl.

BECOMING, v. Becoming, decent. COMELY, or come like, signities coming or appearing as one would have it. GRACEFUL signifies full of grace.

These epithets are employed to mark in general what is agreeable to the eye. Becoming denotes less than comely, and this less than graceful; nothing can be comely or graceful which is unbccoming; although many things arc becoming which are neither comely nor graceful. Becoming respects the decorations of the person, and the exterior deportment; comely respects natural embelishments; graceful natural or artificial accomplishments: manner is becoming; figure is comely; air, figure, or attitude, is graceful.

The care of doing nothing unbecoming has accompanied the greatest minds to their last moments. Thus Casar gathered his robe about him, that he might not fall in a manner unbecoming of himself.

Spectatoa.
The comeliness of person, and the decency of behavior, add infinite weight to what is pronounced by any one.

Spectator.
Ile was a very extraordinary person; and never any man in any age, nor, I believe, in any country or nation, rose in so short a time to such greatness of honor, fame, and fortune, upon no other advantage and recommendation than the beauty and gracefulness of his person.

Clarendon.
Becoming is a relative term depsnding on the circumstances and condition of the person: what is unbecoming in one case may not he so in another, and what is becoming in one person may not be so in another: what is graceful is so abso-
lutely and at all times, although it may not be seen and acknowledged without the aid of cultivation.

He was carried through the crowd with vast cercmony, and received the bomage of the people with becoming dignity.

Brydone.
To make the acknowledgnent of a fault in the highest manner graceful, it is lucky when the sircumstances of the offender place him above any ill-consequences from the resentment of the person offended.

Tatler.

## TO BEG, DESIBE.

BEG, v. To ask, beg. DESIRE, in French désirer, Latin desidero, comes from desido, to fix the miud on an object.

To beg marks the wish; to desire, the will and determination. $B e g$ is the act of an inferior, or onc in a subordinate condition; desire is tbe act of a superior: we beg a thing as a favor; we desire it as a right: children beg their parents to grant them au indulgence; parents desire their children to attend to their business.

She'll hang upon his lips, and beg him tell The story of iny passion o'er again. Southern.

Once when he was withont lodging, meat, or clothes, one of his friends left a nuessage, that he desired to see him about nine in the morning. Savage knew that it was his intention to assist him; but was very much disgusted that he should prosume to prescribe the hour of his attendance, and I believe refused to see him.

Joinson.
to neg, beseech, solicit, entreat, supplicate, implore, crave.
BEG, $v$. To ask, beg. BESEEOH, compounded of be and seech, or seek, is an intensive verb, siguifying to seek strongly. SOLICIT, in French soliciter, Latin solicito, is probably compounded of solum or totum, and cito, to cite, summon, appeal to, signifying to rouse altogether. ENTREAT, compounded of en or in and treat, in French traiter, Latin tracto, to manage, signifies to act upon. SUPPLICATE, in Latin supplicatus, participle of supplico, compounded of sup or sub and plico, to fold, signifies to bend the body down, in token of submission or distress, in order to awaken notice. IMPLORE, in French implorer, Latin imploro, compounded of $i m$ or $i n$ and ploro, to weep or lament, signifies to act upon by weeping. CRAVE, in Saxon cravian, signiGies to long for earnestly.

All these terms denote a species of
asking (v. To ask, beg), varied as to the person, the object, and the manner; the four first do not mark such a state of dependence in the agent as the three last: to beg denotes a state of want; to beseech, entreat, and solicit, a state of urgent necessity; supplicate and implore, a state of abject distress; crave, the lowest state of physical want: one begs with importunity; beseeches with earnestness; entreats by the force of reasoning and strong representation: one solicits by virtue of one's interest, supplicates by an humble address; implores by every mark of dejection and humiliation. Begging is the act of the poor when they need assistance: beseeching and entreating are resorted to by friends and equals when they want to influence or persuade, but beseeching is more urgent, entreaiting more argumentative: solicitations are employed to obtain favors, which have more respect to the circumstances than the rank of the solicitor: supplicating and imploring are resorted to by sufferers for the relief of their misery, and are addressed to those who have the power of averting or increasing the calamity: craving is the consequence of longing; it marks an earnestness of supplication; an abject state of suffering dependence. Those who are too idle to work commonly have recourse to begging: a kind parent will sometimes rather beseech an undutiful child to lay aside his wicked courses, than plunge him deeper into guilt by an ill-timed exercise of authority: when we are entreated to do an act of civility, it is a mark of unkindness to be heedless to the wishes of our friends; gentlemen in office are perpetually exposed to the solicitations of their friends, to procure for themselves, or their connections, places of trust and emolument; a slave supplicates his master for pardon when he has offended, and implores his mercy to mitigate, if not to remit the punishment; a poor wretch, suffering with hunger, craves a morsel of bread.
What more advance can mortals make in sin, So ncar perfection, who with hood begin? Deaf to the calf that lies beneath the kuife, Looks up, and from the butcher bege her life?

Dayden.
Modesty never rages, never mirmurs, never ponts, when it is ill-treated ; it pines, it beseech. en, it languishes.

Steedia

As monay collected by subscription is necessarily received in small oums, Savage was never able to send his poems to the press, but for many years contimed his ablicitution, and squandered whatever he oltained.

Johnson.
For whom the merchant spread his allken stores, Can she entrout for bread, and want the needful raiment?

Howe: Jane Shore.
Savaga wrote to Lord Tyrconnel, not in a atyle of aupplication and respect, but of reproach, menace, and contempt.

Jounzon.
Is't then so hard, Monimia, to forgive
A fault, where humble love, like mine, implores thes?

OTway.
For my past crimes, my forfeit life receive, No pity for my sufferings here I orave, And only hope forgiveness in the grave.

Rowe: Jane Shore.
TO BEGIN, COMMENCE, ENTER UPON.
BEGIN, in German beginnen, is com. pounded of be and ginnen, probably a frequentative of gehen, to go, signifying to go first to a thing. COMMENCE, in French commencer, is not improbably derived from the Latin commendo, signifying to betake ons's self to a thing. ENTER, in Latin intro, within, signifies, with the preposition UPON, to go into a thing.

Begin and commence are so strictly al. lied in siguification, that it is not aasy to discover the difference in their application, although a minute difference does exist. To begin respects the order of time; to commence, the exertion of setting about a thing: whoever begins a dispute is termed the aggressor; po one shonld commence a dispute unless he can oalcu. late the consequonces, and as this is impraoticable, it is better nover to commence disputes. Begin is opposed to end; commence to complete: a person begins a thing with a view of ending it; he commences a thing with a view of completing it. To begin is either transitive or intransitive; to commence is mostly transitive: a spsaker begins by apologizing; he commences his speech with an apology: happiness frequently ends where prosperity begins; whoever commences any undertaking, without estimating his own power, must not expect to succeed. To begin is used either for things or persons; to commence for persons only: all things have their beginning; in order to effect anything, we must make a commencement: a word begins with a particular letter, or a line begins with a particular word; a person
commences his career. Lastly, begin is more colloquial than commence: thus we say, to begin the work; to commence the operation: to begin one's play; to commence the pursuit: to begin to write; to commence the letter.

When beginning to act your part, what can be of greater moment tban to regulate your plan of conduct with the most serious attention?

Blain.

By the destination of his Creator, and the necessities of his nature, man commences at once an active, not merely a corntemplative being.

Blair.
To cominence and enter upon are as closely allied in aense as the former words; they differ principally in application: to commence seems rather to denote the making an experiment; to enter upon, that of first doing what has not been tried before: we commence an undertaking; we enter upon an employ: ment: speculating pecple are very ready to commence schemes; considerate people are always averse to entering upon any office until they feel themselves fully adequate to discharge its duties.
If wit so much from ign'rance undergo,
Ah : let not learning too commence its foe.
Pope.
If any man has a mind to enter upon auch a voluntary abstinence, it might not be lmproper to give him the cantion of Pythagoras, in particular: Abstine a fabis, that is, say the inter:preters," meddle not with elections." AdDison.
behavior, CONDUCT, CARRIAGE, DEPORTMENT, DEMEANOR.
BEHAVIOR comes from behave, compounded of be and have, signifying to have one's self, or have self-possession. CONDUCT, in Latin conductus, participle of conduco, compounded of con or cum and duco, to lead along, signifies leading one's self along. CARRIAGE, the abstract of carry (v, 7o bear, carry), signifies the act of carrying one's body, or one's self. DEPORTMENT, from the Latim deporto, to carry, and DEMEANOR, from the French de mener, to lead, have the same original sense as the preceding.

Behavior respects corporeal or mental actions; conduct, mental actions; carriage, deportment, and demeanor, are different species of behavior. Behavior respects all actions exposed to the notice of others; conduct the general line of a

## BELIEF

person's moral proceedings: we speak of a person's behavior at table, or in company, in a ball-room, in the street, or in puhlic; of his conduct in the management of his private conceras, in the direction of his family, or in his different relations with his fellow-creatures. Behavior applies to the minor morals of society; rouduct to those of the first moment : in our intercourse with others we may adopt a civil or polite, a rude or boisterous behavior; in our serious transactions we may adopt a peaceable, discreet, or prudent, a rash, dangerous, or mischievous conduct. The behavior of young people in society is of particular importance; it should, above all things, he marked with propriety in the presence of superiors and elders: the youth who does not learn betimes a seemly behavior in company, will scarcely know how to conduct'himself judiciously on any future occasion.

The circumstance of life is not that which gives us place, but our behavior in that circumstance is what should be our solid distinction. Steele.

Wisdom is no less necessary in religious and moral than in civil conduct.

Blair.
Carriage respects simply the manner of carrying the body; deportment includes both the action and the carriage of the body in performing the actiou; demoanor respects only the moral character or tendency of the action; deportment is said only of those exterior actions that have an immediate reference to others; demeanor, of the general behavior as it relates to the circumstances and situation of the individual: the carriage is that part of behavior which is of the first importance to attend to in young persons. A carriage should neither be haughty nor servile; to be graceful, it ought to have a due mixture of dignity and condescension: the deportment of a mas should be suited to his station; a humble deportment is becoming in inferiors; a stately and forbidding deportment is very unbecoming in superiors: the demeanor of a man should be suited to his situation; the suitable demeanor of a judge on the bench, or of a clergyman in the pulpit, or when performing his clerical functions, adds much to the dignity and solemnity of the office itself. The carriage marks the birth and education: an awkward carriage stamps a man as vulgar; a graceful
carriage evinces refinement and culture. The deportment marks either the habitual or the existing temper of the mind: whoever is really impressed with the solemnity and importance of public worship will evince his impressions by a gravity of deportment: the demeanor is most commonly used to denote the present temper of the mind; as a modest demeanor is particularly suitable for one who is in the presence of the person whom he has of. . fended.

He that will look back upon all the acquaintances he has had in his whole life, will find he has seen more men capable of the greatest employments and performances, than such as could in the general bent of their carriage act o!herwise than according to their own complexion and humor.

Steele.
His deportment in this expedition was coble throughont: to the gentleman a fair respect, bountiful to the soldier, of unquestionable conrage in himself, and rather fearful of fame than danger.

Wotton.
I have been told the same even of Mohammedans, with relation to the propriety of their demeanor in the conventions of their erroneous worslip.

Tatleer
BELIEF, CIREDIT, TRUST, FAITH.
BELIEF, from believe, in Saxon gelyfan, gcleavan, in German glauben, comes, in all probability, from lief, as in German, belieben, to please, and Latin libet, it pleaseth, signifying the pleasure or assent of the mind. CREDIT, in French crédit, Latin creditus, participle of credo, compounded of cor, the heart, and do, to give, signifies also giving the heart. TRUST is connected with the old word trow, in Saxon treowian, German traven, old German thravdhn, thruven, etc., to hold true, connected with the Greek $\theta a \rho \rho \varepsilon \iota \nu$, to have confidence, signifying to depend upon as true. FAITH, in Latin fides, from fido, to confide, signifies also dependence upon as true.

Belief is the generic term, the others are specific; we believe when we credit and trust, but not always vice versa. Belief rests on no particular person or thing; but credit and trust rest on the authority of one or more individuals. Everything is the subject of belief which produces one's assent: the events of human life are credited upon the authority of the narrator: the words, promises, of the integrity of individuals are trusicd.
the power of persons and the virtue of things are objects of faith. Belief and credit are particular actions or sentiments: trust and faith are permanent dispositions of the mind. Things are entitled to our belief; persons are entitled to our credit: but people repose a trust in others; or havo a faith in others. Our belief or unbelief is not always regulated by our rcasoning faculties or the truth of things: we often believe from presumption, ignorarve, or passion, things to be true which are very false. With the bulk of mankind, assurance goes farther than anything clse in obtaining credit: gross falsehoods, pronounced with confidence, will be credited sooner than plain truths told in an unvarnished style. There are no disappointments more severe than those which we feel on finding that we have trusted to men of base principles. Ignorant people have commonly a more implicit faith :n any nostrum recommended to them by persons of their own class, than in the prescriptions of professional men regularly educated.

Oln! I've heard bim talk
Like the first-born child of love, when every word
Spoke in his eyes, and wept to be beliov' $d$, And all to roin me.

Southern.
Oh! I will eredit my Scamaadra's tears !
Nor think them drops of chance like other women's.

Lee.
Capricions man! To good'or ill inconstant.
Too much to fear or trust is equal weakness.
Jounson.
For faith repos'd on seas and on the flatt'ring sky,
Thy aaked corpse is doom'd on shores onknown to lie.

Dryden.
Belief, trust, and faith have a religious application, which credit has not. Belief is simply an act of the understanding; trust and faith are active moving principles of the mind. Belief does not extend beyond an assent of the mind to any given proposition; trust and faith impel to action. Belief is to trust and faith as cause to effect: there may be belief without either trust or faith; but there can be no trust or faith without belief: we believe that there is a God, who is the creator and preserver of all his creatures; we therefore trust in him for his protection of ourselves: we believe that Jesus Christ died for the sins of men; we have
therefore faith in his redeeming grace to save us from our sins. Belief is common to all religions: trust is peculiar to the believers in Divine revelation: faith is employed by distinction for the Christian faith. Belief is purely speculative; and trust and faith are operative: the former operates on the mind; the latter on the outward conduct. Trust in God serves to dispel all anxious concern about the future. Theorists substitute belief for faith; enthusiasts mistake passion for faith. True faith must be grounded on a right belief, and accompanied with a right practice.

The Epicureans conteated themselves with the denial of a Providence, asserting at the same time the existence of gods in general; because they would not shock the common belief of mankind.

ADdison.
What can be a stronger motive to a firm trust and reliance on the mercies of our Maker, than the giving us his Son to saffer for ns? ADDison.

The faith or persuasion of a Divine revelation is a divine faith, not only with respect to the object of it, but likewise in respect of the author of it, which is the Divine Spirit. Thmotson.

## BEND, BENT.

Both abstract nouns from the verb to bend; the one to express its proper, and the other its moral application: a stick has a BEND; the mind has a BENT. A bend in anything that should be straight is a defect; a bent of the inclination that is not sanctioned by religion is detrimental to a person's moral character and peace of mind. For a vicious bend in a natural body there are various remedies; but nothing will cure a corrupt bent of the will except religion.
His coward lips did from their color fly,
And that same eye whose bend does awe ths world,
Did lose its lustre.
Srakgpeane.
The sonl does not always care to be in the same bent. The faculties relieve one another by turns, and receive an additional pleasure from the novelty of those objects aboot wbich they are conversant.

ADDI80s.

## BENEFACTION, DONATION.

BENEFACTION, from the Latin bene. facio, signifies the thing well done, or done for the good of others. DONA. TION, from dono, to give or present, sig. nifies the sum presented.

Both these terms denote an act of charity, but the former comprehends
more than the latter: a benefaction comprehends acts of personal service in general toward the indigent; donation respects simply the act of giving and the thing giveo. Bonefactions are for private nse; donations are for public service. A benefactor to the poor does not confine himself to the distribution of money; be enters into all their necessities, consults their individual cases, and suits his benefactons to their exigencies; his influence, his counsel, his parse, and his property are employed for their gool: his donations form the smallest part of the good which he does.
The light and influence that the heavens bestow upon this lower world, though the lower world cannot equal their benefaction, yet, with a kind of grateful return, it reflects those rays that it cannot recompense.

Sooth.
Titles and lands given to God are never, and plates, vestments, and other sacred utensils, are seldom cunseerated: yet certain it is that after the donation of them to the church, it is as really a sacrilege to steal them as it is to pull down a church.

Sooth.
BENEFICENT, BOUNTIFUL OR BOUNTEOUS, MUNIFICENT, GENEROUS, LIBEIRAL.
BENEFICENT, from benefacio (v. Bene faction). BOUNTIFUL signifies full of bounty or goodoess, from the Fronch bonté, Latin bonitas. MUNIFICENT, in Latio munificus, from munus and facio, signifies the quality of making presents. GENEROUS, in French généreux, Latin generosus, of high blood, noble extraction, and consequently of a noble character. LIBERAL, in French libéral, Latin liberalis, from liber, free, signifies the quality of being like a freeman in distinction from a boodman, and by a natural association, being of a free disposition, ready to communicate.

Beneficent respects everything done for the good of others: bounty, munificence, and generosity are species of beneficence: liberality is a qualification of all. The two first denote modes of action: the three latter either modes of action or modes of sentiment. The sincere wellwisher to his fellow-creatures is benefieent according to his means; he is bountiful in providing for the comfort and happiness of others; he is munificent in dis. pensing favors; be is generous in impart-
ing his property; he is liberal in all he does. Beneficence and bounty are char acteristics of the Deity as well as of his creatures: munificence, generosity, and lits erality are mere human qualities. Benef. icence and bounty are the peculiar charac teristics of the Deity: with him the will and the act of doing good are commensurate only with the power; ne was $b e$ neficent to us as our Creator, and contin ues his beneficence to us by his daily pres ervation and protection; to some, how ever, he has been more bountiful than to others, by providing them with an un. equal share of the good things of this life. The beneficence of man is regulated by the bounty of Providence: to whom much is given, from him much will be required. Instructed by his word, and illumined by that spark of benevolence which was infused into their sonls with the breath of life, good men are ready to believe that they are but stewards of all God's gifts, holden for the use of such as are less bountifully provided. They will desire, as far as their powers extend, to imitate this feature of the Deity by betteriog with their beneficent counsel and assistance the condition of all who require it, and by gladdening the hearts of many with their bountiful provisions.

The most beneficent of all belngs is he who hath an absolute fulness of perfection in himself, who gave existence to tho universe, and so cannot be supposed to want that which he communicated.

Grove.
Hail! Universal Lord, be bounteous still To give us only good.

Milion.
Princes are munificent, friends are generous, patrons liberal. Munificence is measured by the quality and quantity of the thing bestowed; generosity by the extent of the sacrifice made; liberality by the warmth and freedom of the spirit discovered. A monarch displays his munificence in the presents which he sends by his ambassadors to another monarch. A generous man will waive his claims, however powerful they may be, when the accommodation or relief of another is in question. A liberal spirit does not stop to inquire the reason for giving, but gives when the occasion offers. Munificencs may spring either from ostentation or a becoming sense of dignity; generosity may spring either from a generous tem
per cr an easy unconcern about property; liberality of conduct is dictated by nothing but a warm heart and an expanded mund. Munificence is confined simply to giving, but we may be generous in assistiog, and liberal in rewarding.

1 esteem a habit of benignity greatly preferable © munificence.

Steele aftea Ciceho.
We may with great confidence and equal truth affirn, that sinee there wae suchi a thing as nuankind in the world, there never was any heart truly great and generous that was not also tender and compassionate.

Sourf.
The citizen, above all other men, has opportusities of arriving at tho highest fruit of wealth, do be leberal without the least expense of a man's own fortune.

Steele.

## BENEFIT, FAVOR, KINDNESS, CIVILITY.

BENEFIT sigmifies here that which is done to benefit (v. Advantage, benefit). FAVOR, in French faveur, Latin favor and faveo, to bear good-will, sigaifies the act flowing from good-will. KINDNESS signifies an action that is lind ( $w$. Affectionate). CIVILITY signifies that which is civil (v. Civil).

The idea of an action gratnitously performed for the advantage of another is common to these terms. Benefits and favors are graated by superiors; kindinesses and civilities pass between equals. Benefits serve to relieve actual wants: the power of conferring and the necessity of receiving them constitute the relative difference in station between the giver and the receiver: favors tend to promote the interest or convenience; the power of giving and the advantage of receiving are dependent on local circumstances, more than on difference of station. Kindnesses sind civilities serve to afford mutual accommodation by a reciprocity of kind offices on the many and various occasions which offer in human life: they are not so important as either benefits or favors, but they carry a charm with them which ts not possessed by the former. findnesses are more endearing than civilities, and pass mostly between those who are known to eacb other: civilities may pass between strangers. Benefits tend to draw those closer to each other who by station of life are set at the greatest distance Hrom each other: affection is engendered in him who benefits, and devoted attachment in him who is benefited: favors in-
crease obligation beyond its due limits, if they are not asked and granted with discretion, they may produce servility on the one hand, and baughtiness on the other. Kindnesses are the offspring and parent of affsction; they convert our multiplied wants into so many enjoy. ments: civilities are the sweets which wo gather in the way as we pass along the journey of life.

I think I have a right to conclude that thers is such a thing as generosity in the world. Though, if I were under a mistake in this, 1 should say as Cicero in relation to the lmmortality of the soul, I willingly err; for the cor trary notion naturally teaches people to be ungrateful by possessing them with a persuasion conceruing their benefactors, that they have no regard to them in the Denefits they bestow.

Gaove.
A favor well bestowed is almost as great an houor to him who confers it as to him who receives it. What, indeed, makes for the ouperior reputation of the patron in this case is, that he is always surrounded with specious pretences of unworthy candidates.

Tatler,
Ingratitude is too base to return a kindness, and too proud to regard it. South.
A common civility to an impertlnent fellow often draws upon one a great many unforeseen troubles.

Tatler.

## BENEFIT, SERVICE, GOOD OFFICE.

BENEFIT, v. Benefit, favor. SER. VICE, v. Advantage, benefit. OFFICE, in French office, Latin officium, duty, from officio, or ob and facio, signifies the thing done on another's account.

These terms, like the former (v. Ben. efit, favor), agree in denoting some action performed for the good of another, but they differ in the principle on which the action is performed. A benefit is perfectly gratuitous, it produces an obligation: a service is not altogether gratuitous; it is that at least which may be expected, though it cannot be demanded: a good office is between the two; it is in part gratuitous, and in part sach as one may reasonably expect. Benefits flow from superiors, or those who are in a situation to do good, and services from inferiors or equals; but good offices are performed by equals only. Princes confer benefits ov their subjects; subjects perform servicet for their princes; a eighbors do good affices for each other. Benefits are sometimes the reward of services: good offices produce a return from the receiver. Beno
fits consist of such things as serve to relieve the difficulties, or advance the interests, of the receiver: services consist in those acts which tend to lessen the trouhle, or increase the ease and convenience, of the person served: good offices consist In the employ of one's credit, influence, and mediation for the advantage of another; it is a species of voluntary service. It is a great benefit to assist an embarrassed tradesman out of his diffculty : it is a great service for a soldier to save the life of his commander, or for a frieod to open the eyes of another to see bis danger: it is a good office for any one to interpose his mediation to settle disputes and heal divisions. It is possible to be loaded with benefits so as to affect one's independence of character. Services are sometimes a source of dissatisfaction and disappointment when they do not meet with the remuneration or retuin which they are supposed to deserve. Good offices tend to nothing but the increase of good-will. Those who perform them are too independent to expect a return, and those who receive them are too sensible of their value not to seek an opportunity for making a return.

I have often pleased myself with considering the two kinds of benefits which accrue to the public from these my specnlations, and which, were 1 to apeak after the manner of logicians, it should distinguish into the material and formal.

ADDISON.
Cicero, whose learning and services to his country are so well known, was inflamed by a passion for glory to an extravagant degree.

Hughes.
There are several persons who have many pleasures and entertaintments in their possession which they do not enjoy. It is therefore a kind and good office to acquaint them with their own happiness.

Tatler.

## BENEVOLENCE, BENEFICENCE.

BENEVOLENCE is literally well willlng. BENEFICENCE is literally well doing. The former consists of intention, the latter of action: the former is the cause, the latter the result. Benevolence may exist without beneficence; but benefieence always supposes benevolence; a man is not said to be beneficent who does good from sinister views. The benevolent man enjoys but half his happiness if be cannot be beneficent; yet there will still remain to him an ample store of enjoyment
in the contemplation of others' happiness that man who is gratified only with thsi happiness which he himself is the instru. ment of producing, is not entitled to thi name of benevolent. As benevolonce is an affair of the heart, and beneficence of the outward conduct, the former is confined to no station, no rank, no degree of education or power: the poor may be benevolent as well as the rich, the unlearned as the learned, the weak as well as the strong: the latter, on the contrary, is oomtrolled by outward circumstances, and is therefore principally confined to the rich. the powerful, the wise, and the learned
The pity which arises on sight of persons in distress, and the satisfaction of mind which is the consequence of having removed them into a happier state, are instead of a thousand argument to prove such a thing as a disinterested benevolence.

Gaovz.
He that banishes gratitude from among men, by so doing stops up the stream of beneficence: for though, in conferring kindness, a truly generous man doth not aim at a return, yet he looks to the qualities of the person obliged. Grove

## BENEVOLENCE, BENIGNITY, HUMAN- <br> ITY, KINDNESS, TENDEISNESS.

BENEVOLENCE, v. Benevalence. BENIGNITY, in Latin benignitas, from bene and gigno, signifies the quality or disposition for producing good. HUMANITY, in French humanité, Latin humanitas, from humanus and homo, signifies the quality of belonging to a man, or having what is common to man. KINDNESS, from kind (v. Affectionate). TENDERNESS, from tender, is in Latin tener, Greek $\tau \varepsilon \rho \eta \nu$.

Benevolence lies in the will, benignity in the disposition or frame of mind; hum manity lies in the heart; kindness and tenderness in the affections: benevolenar indicates a general good-will to all man kind; benignity particular goodness or kindness of disposition; humanity is a general tone of feeling; kindness and tenderness are particular modes of feel. ing. Benevolence consists in the wish or intention to do good; it is confined to no station or object: the benevolent man may be rich or poor, and his benevolence will be exerted wherever there is an opportu. nity of doing good; benignity is mostly associated with the power of doing good, and is actually exerted or displayed in
ine actions or looks. Benevolence in its fullest aenge is the aun of moral excellence, and comprehends every other virtus; when taken in this acceptation, benrgnity, humanity, kindness, and terderness are but modes of benevolence. Bcnesolence and benignity tend to the communicating of happiness; humanity is concerned in the removal of evil. Benevolence is common to the Creator and his creaturea; it differa only in degree; ths former has the knowledge and power aa well as the will to do good; man often has the will to do good, without having the power to carry it into effect. Beniguity is ascribed to the stars, to heaven, or to princes ; ignowant and superatitioua people are apt to ascribe their good fortune to the benign influence of the stars rather than to the gracious dispensations of Providence. Humanity belongs to man only; it is his peculiar characteristic, and ought at all times to be his boaat; when he throws off this his distinguishing badge, he loses everything valuable in him; it is a virtue that is indispensable in his present suffering condition: humanity is as universal in its application as benevolence; wherever there ia diatresa, humanity flies to its relief. Kindness and tenderness are partial modes of affection, confined to those who know or are related to each other: we are kind to friends and acquaintances, tender toward those who are near and dear: kindness ia a mods of affection most fitted for social beings; it is what every one can show, and every one is pleased to receive: tenderness is a state of feeling that is occasionally acceptable: the young and the weak demand tenderness from those who stand in the closest connection with them, but this feeling may be carried to an excess, so as to injure the object on which lt is fixed.

I have hesrd say, that Pope Clement XI. never passes throngh the people, who always kneel In crowds and ask lis benediction, but the tears are seen to flow from his eyes. Tbis must proceed from an imagination that he is the father of all these people, and that he is tonched with so extensive a benevolence, that it breaks out into 4 passion of tears.

Tathen.
A constant benigntiy in commerce with the rest of the world, which ought to run through all s msa's actions, has effects more useful to those whom you oblige, and is less ostentatious th yourself.

Tatlef.

The greatest wits I have conversed with art men eminent for their humanity Abotion.

Beneficence, would the followers of Epicurus say, is all founded on weakness; and whatever be preterided, the kindness that passeth between men and men is by every man directed to himself. This, it must be confessed, is of a piece with that hopeful philosophy which, having patched man up out of the four elements, at. tributes his being to chance.

Grove.
Dependence is a perpetual call upon $h w_{1} n a n i t y$, and a greater incitement to tenderneas and pity than any other motive whatsocver. ADDison,

## BENT, CURVED, CROOKED, AWRY.

BENT, from bend, in Saxon bendan, is a variation of wind, in the sea phraseol. ogy wend, in German winden, etc., from the Hehrew onad, to wind or turn. CURVED ia in Latin curvus, in Greek кортоg, Жolicè кvoros. CROOKED, Awkward. AWRY ia a variation of writhed: v. To turn.

Bent is here the generic term, all the rest are but modes of the bent: what is bent ia opposed to that which is atraight; things may therefore be bent to any degree, but when curved they are bent only to a small degree; when crook$e d$ they are bent to a great degree: a stick is bent any way; it is curved by being bent one apecific way; it is crooked by being bent different ways. Thinga may be bent by accident or design; they are curved by design, or according to some rule; they are crooked hy accident or in violation of some rule: a atick is bent by the force of the hand; a line ia curved so as to make a mathematical figure; it is crooked so as to lose all figure: awry marks a species of crookedness, but crooked is applied as an epithet, and awry is employed to characterize the action; hence we apeak of a crooked thing and of sitting or standing aury.
And when, too closely press'd, she quits the ground,
From her bent bow she seads a baekward woand.
Dryden.
Another thing observable in and from the spots is, that they describe various paths or lines over the sun, sometimes straight, sometimes curved toward one pole of the sun. Deseass
It is the ennobling offlce of the understanding to correct the fallacious and mistaken reports of the senses, and to assure as that the staft in the water is straight, thongh our eye would tell as if is crooked.

Sodta.
Preventing fate directs the lance awory,
Which, glancing, only mark'd Achates thigh.
Deypan:

BHNT, BIAS, INCLINATION, PREPOSsession.
BENT, $v$. Bend, bent. BIAS, in French biais, signifies a weight fixed on one side of a bowl in order to turn its course that way toward which the bias leans, from the Greek $\beta_{t a}$, force. INCLINATION, in French inclination, Latin inclinatio, from inclino, Greek $\kappa \lambda i \nu(0$, signifies a leaning toward. PREPOSSESSION, com. pounded of pre and possession, significs the taking possession of the mind previously, or beforehand.

All these terms denote a preponderacing influence on the mind. Bent is applied to the will, affection, and power in general; bias solely to the judgment; inclination snd prepossession to the state of the feelings. The bent includes the general state of the mind, and the object on which it fixes a regard: bias, the particular influential power which sways the judging faculty: the one is absolutely considered with regard to itself ; the other relatively to its results and the object It acts upon. Bent is sometimes with regard to bias, as canse is to effect; we may frequently trace in the particular bent of a person's likes and dislikes the principal bias which determines his opinions. Inclination is a faint kind of bent; prepossession is a weak species of bias: an inclination is a state of something, namely, a state of the feelings : prepossession is an actual something, namely, the thing that prepossesses.

We may discover the bent of a person's mind in his gay or serions moments; in his occupations, and in his pleasures; in some persons it is so strong, that scarcely an action passes which is not more or less influenced by it, and even the exterior of a man will be under its control: in all disputed matters the support of a party will operste more or less to bias the minds of men for or against particular men, or particular measures:' when we are attached to the party that espouses the cause of religion and good order, this bias is in some measure commendable and 'silutary: : a mind without inclination would be a blank, and where inclination ls, there is the groundwork for preposotssion. Stroug minds will be strongly bent, and labor under a strong bias; but
there is no mind so weak and powerlest as not to have its inclinations, snd none so perfect as to be without its preposses sions: the mind that has virtuous inclina. tions will be prepossessed in favor of everything that leans to virtue's side: it were well for mankind were this the only prepossession; but in the present mixture of truth and error, It is necessary to guard -against prepossessions as dangerous anticipations of the judgment: if their object be not perfectly pure, or their force be not qualified by the restrictive pewers of the judgment, much evil springs from their abuse.
Servlle inclinations, and gross love, The guilty bent of vicious appetite. Hayarm

The choice of man's will is indeed uncertain, because in many things free; but yet there are certain hahits and principles in the soul that bave some kind of sway upon it, apt to bias it more one way tlian another.

Soute.
Tis not lndulging private inclination,
The selfish passions, that sustains the world, And lends its ruler grace.

Thomson
I take it for s rule, that in marriage the chief business is to acquire a prepossession in favor of each otber.

Steble.

## TO BEREAVE, DEPRIVE, STRIP.

BEREAVE, in Saxon bereafian, Ger. man berauben, etc., is compounded of bo and reave or rob, Saxon reafian, German rauben, low German roofen, etc., Latin rapina and rapio, to catch or seize, sig. nifying to take away contrary to one's wishes DEPRLVE, compounded of do and prive, French priver, Latin privo, from privus, private, signifies to csuse a thing to be no longer a man's own. STRIP is in Germsn streifen, low German streipen, stroepen, Swedish ströfva, probably connected with the Latin surripio.

To bereave expresses more than deprive, but less than strip, which denotes antal and violent beraavement: one is bereaved of children, deprived of pleasures, and stripped of property: we are bereaved of that on which we set most value; the set of bereaving does violence to our inclination: we are deprived of the ordinary comforts and conveniences of life: they cease to be ours: we are stripped of the things which we most want; we are thereby rendered, as it were, naked. Deprivations sre preparatory to bereave
ments: if we cannot bear the one patiently, we muy expect to sink under the otheI: common prudenee should teach us to look with unconcern on our deprivadions: Christian faith should enable us to consider every bereavement as a step to perfection; that when stripped of all worldly goods, we may be invested with those more exalted and lasting honors which await the faithful disciple of Christ

> 0 firgt-created Belng, and thon great Word, l.et thers be light, and light was over ail! Why an I thus bereav'd thy prime decrse?

Milion.
Too daring bard I whose unsuccessful prlda Th' immortai Muses jo their art defled; Th' avenging Muses of the light of day
Dopriv'd his syes, and snatch'd bis voice away.
Pope.
After the publication of her sentence, she (Queen Mary) was atripped of every remaining mark of royalty.

Robeatron.
Bereave and deprive are applied only to persons, strip may be figuratively applied to things.

From the uncertainty of life, moralists have endeavored to sink the estimation of its plessures, and if they could not strip the seduotions of vice of their present enjoyment, at least to load them with the fear of their end.

Mackenzie.

## BESIDES, MOREOVER.

BESIDES, that is, by the side, next to, marks simply the connection which suibsists between what goes before and what follows. MOREOVER, that is, more than all clse, marks the addition of something particular to what has already been said. Thus, in enumerating the good qualities of an individual, we may say "he is besides of a peaceable disposition." On concluding any subjeet of question, we may introduce a farther clause by a moreover. "Morcover we must not forget the claims of those who will suffer by such a change."

[^20]
## besídes, nXCEPT.

BESIDES (v. Moreover), which is hers taken as a preposition, expresses the idea of addition. EXCEPT' expresses that of exclusion. There were many there besides ourselves ; no one except ourselves will be admitted.

Besides impiety, discontent carries along with it, as its inseparable' concomitants, several other sinful passions.

Blatr.
Neither jealousy nor envy can dwell with the Supreme Being. He is a rival to none, he is an enemy to none, aroept to such as, by rebellion against his laws, seek enmity with him. Blaik.

## TO BEWAIL, BEMOAN, LAMENT.

BEWAIL is compounded of be and wail, which is probably connected with the word woe, signifying to express sorrow. BEMOAN, compounded of be and moan, signifies to Indicate grief with moans. LAMENT, in French lamenter, Latin lamentor or lamentum, probably from the Greek $\kappa \lambda a \nu \mu a$ and $\kappa \lambda a t \omega$, to cry out with grief.

All these terms mark an expression of pain by some external sign. Bewail is not so strong as bemoan, but stronger than lament; bewail and bemoan are expressions of unrestrained grief or anguish: a wretched mother bewails the loss of her chlld; a person in deep cistress bemoans his hard fate: lamentation may arise from simple sorrow or even imaginary grievances: a sensualist laments the disappointment of some expected gratification. Beroail and bemoan are always indecorous if not sinful expressions of grief, which are inconsistent with the profession of a Christian; they are common among the uncultivated, who have not a proper principle to restrain the intemperance of their feelings. There is nothing temporal which is so dear to any one that he ought to bewail its loss; nor any condition of things so distressing or desperate as to make a man bemoan his lot. Lamentations are sometimes al. lowable; the miseries of others, or our own infirmities and sins, may justly be lamented.

Canace in Ovid bawails her misfortune because she was debarred from performing this (funeral) ceremony to her beloved Macarens. Putter.
First I bemoan' $d$ a noble busband's death, Yet liv'd with looking on his images;
But now my last support is gone. Skaraping

When men describe in what manner they are affected by pain and danger, they do not dwell on the pleasure of health and the comfort of security, and then lamant the loss of these satisfactions; the whole turns upon the actual pains which they endure.

Bunke.

## BIAS, PREPOSSESSION, PREJUDICE.

BIAS, v. Bent, bias. PREPOSSESSION, v. Bent, bias. PREJUDICE, in French préjudice, Latin proejudioium, compounded of proe, befare, and judisium, judgment, signifies a judgment beforehand, that is, before examination.

Bias marks the state of the mind, as leaning to this or that side, so as to determine one's feelings or apinions generally; prepossession denotes the previaus occupation of the mind with some particular idea or feeling, so as to preclude the admission of any other; prejudice is a prejudging or predetermining a matter without knowing its merits. We may be biassed for or against: we are always prepossessed in favor and mastly prejudiced against; the feelings bave mostly ta do with the bias and prepossession, and the understanding or judgment with the prejudice. Bias and prepossession suppase a something real, whether good or otherwise, which determines the inclination of the mind, but prejudice supposes a something unreal or false, whicb misleads the judgment: bias and prepossession may therefore be taken in an indifferent, if not a good sense; prejudice al. ways in a bad seuse: interest or personal affection may bias, but not so as to pervert either the integrity or judgment; prepossessions may be formed of persons at first sigbt, but they may be harmless, even although they may not be perfectly correct; prejudices prevent the right exercise of the understanding, and consequently favor the cause of falsehood, as wben a person has a prejudice against another, which leads him to misinterpret his actions.
It should be the principal labor of moral writers to remove the bias which inclines the mind rather to prefer natural than moral endowments.

Hawkesworth.
A man in power, who can, withont the ordinary propossessions which stop the way to the true knowledge and service of mankind, overlook the little distinctions of fortune, raise obscure merit, and discountenance successful indesert, has, in the minds of knowing men, the figure of an angel rather than a man.

Steele.

Jt is the work of a philosopher to be every das subduing his passions, and laying aside his prejudices. I endeavor at least to look upon men and their actions only as an impartial spectator.

Spectator.

## TO BIND, TIE.

BIND, in Saxan, etc., binden, is con. nected witb the word wind, to denote the manner of fastening, namely, by winding round. TIE, in Saxon tian, low German tehen, to draw, denotes a mode of fasten. ing by drawing or pulling.

The species of fastening denated by these two words differ both in manner and degree. Binding is performed by circumvolution round a body; tying, by involution witbin itself. Some bodies are bound without being tied; atbers are tied without being bound: a wounded leg is bound, but not tied; a string is tied, but not bound; a ribbon may sometimes be bound raund the bead, and tied under the chin. Binding, therefore, serves to keep several things in a campact form together; tying may serve to prevent one single body separating from another: a criminal is bound hand and foot; he is tied to a stake. Binding and tying likewise differ in degree; binding serves to praduce adhesion in all the parts of a body; tying only to produce contact in a single part: thus, when the hair is bound, it is almost enclosed in an envelope: when it is tied with a string, the ends are left to hang loose.
Now are our brows bouna with victorious wreathe,
Our stern alarms are chang'd to merry meetinga.
Shakspeabe.
A fluttering dove upon the top they tie,
The living mark at which their arrows fly.
Dryden.
A similar distinction is preserved in the figurative use of the terms. A bond of union is applicable to a large body with many component parts; a tie of affection marks an adhesion between individual minds.

As nature's ties decay ; As dnty, love, and honor fail to sway: Fictitious bonds, the bonds of wealth and law, Still gather strength, and force unwilling awe.

Goldsmiti.
TO BIND, OBLIGE, ENGAGE.
BIND, v. To bind, tie. OBLIGE, in French obliger, Latin obligo, compaunded of $o b$ and ligo, signifies to tie up. EN.

GAGE, in French engager, compounded of $e n$ or in and gage, a pledge, signifies to bind by means of a pledge.

Bind is more forcible and coercive than oblige; oblige than engage. We are bound by an oath, obliged by circumstances, and engaged by promises.

Conscience binds, prudence or necessity obliges, honor and principle engage. A parent is bound no less by the law of his conscience, than by those of the community to which he belongs, to provide for his helpless offspring. Politeness obliges men of the world to preserve a friendly exterior toward those for whom they have no regard. When we are engaged in the service of our king and country, we cannot shrink from our duty without exposing ourselves to the infamy of all the world. We lind a man by a fear of what may befall him; we oblige him by some immediate urgent motive; we engage him by alluring offers and the prospect of gain. A debtor is bound to pay by virtue of a written instrument in law; he is obliged to pay in consequence of the importunate demands of the creditor; he is engaged to pay in consequence of a promise given. A bond is the strictest deed in law; an obligation binds under pain of a pecuniary loss; an engagement is mostly verbal, and rests entirely on the rectitude of the parties.
Who can be bound by any solemn vow To do a murd'rons deed?

SHAKSPEARE.
No man is commanded or obliged to obey beyond his power.

South.
While the Israelites were appearing in God's house, God himself engages to keep and defend theirs.

Soumir.

## BISHOPRIC, DIOCESE.

BISHOPRIC, compounded of bishop and rick or reich, empire, signifies the empire or government of a bishop. DIOCESE, in Greek $\delta_{t o \kappa \eta \sigma t s, ~ c o m p o u n d e d ~}^{\text {, }}$ of $\delta \iota \alpha$ and oıкєш, to administer throughout, signifies the district within which a government is administered.

Both these words describe the extent of an episcopal jurisdiction; the first with relation to the person who officiates, the second with relation to the charge. There may, therefore, be a bishopric either where there are many dioceses or no diocese; but according to the import of the term, there is properly no diocese where there is no
bishopric. When the jurisdiction is merely titular, as in countries where the Catholic religion is not recognized, it is a bishopric, but not a diocese. On the other hand, the bishopric of Rome, or that of an archbishop, comprehends all the dioceses of the suhordinate bishops. Hence it arises that when we speak of the ecclesiastical distribution of a country, we term the divisions bishoprics; but when we speak of the actual office, we term it a diocese. England is divided into a certain number of bishoprios, not dioceses. Every bishop visits his diocese, not his bishopric, at stated intervals.

## TO BLAME, CENSURE, CONDEMN, REPROVE, REPROACH, UPBRAID.

BLAME, in French blamer, is connected with blemir, to blemish, signifying to find a fault or blemish. CENSURE (v. To accuse, censure). CONDEMN, in Latin condemno, from con and damnum, loss or damage, signifies literally to inflict a penalty or to punish by a sentence. REPROVE, from the Latin reprobo, signifies the contrary of probo, to approve. REPROACH, from re and proche, near, signifies to cast back upon or against another ; and UPBRAID, from $u p$ and $b \tau a i d$ or breed, to breed or hatch against onc.

The expression of an unfavorable opinion of a person or thing is the common idea in the signification of these terms. To blame is simply to ascribe a fault to ; to censure is to express disapprobation: the former is less personal than the latter. The thing more than the person is blamed; the person more than the thing is censured. The action or conduct of a person in any particular may be blamed, without reflecting on the individual; but the person is directly censured for that which is faulty in himself.

Blames not thy elime, nor ehide the distant sun; The sun is innocent, thy elime absolved. Young.

He hopes he shall not be censured for unnecessary warmth upon sueh a subjeet.

Cowper.
Venial or unquestionable faults, or even things that are in themselves amiable, may be the subject of blame, but positive faults are the subject of censure. A person may be blamed for his good nature, and censured for his negligence.

But I'm much to blame;
I humbly do beseech you of your pardon
For too inuch loving you.
SHAKgPEARE.
He would he sorry to stand suspected of having aimed his censures at any particular achool. His objections are such as naturally apply themaclves to schopols in general. Cowpea.
Persons are blamed in general or qualified terms, but are censured in terms more or less harsh.

Now blams we most the nurselings or the nurse? The children crooked, twisted and deformed, Through want of care, or hcr whose winking eye And slumbering oscitancy mar the brood.

Cowper.
Though ten times worse themselves, you'll frequent view
Those who with keenest rage will censure you.
Pitt.
Condemn, like blame, though said of personal matters, has more reference to the thing than the person; but that which is condemned is of a more serious nature, and produces a stronger and more infavorable expression of displeasure or disapprobation, than that which is blamed.

Glen. And with
A risen sigh he wisheth you in heav'n.
ITot. And you in hell, as often as he hears
Owen Glendower spoken of:
Glen. I blame him not; at my nativity
The front of heav'n was full of fiery shapes.
Shakspeare.
For her the judgment, nmpire in the strife, Condemne, approves, and, with a faithful voice, Guides the decision of a doubtful choice.

Cowpen.
Blame and condemn do not necessarily require to be expressed in words, hat censure must always be conveyed in direet terms.
He blamed and protested, but joined in the plan ; He shared in the plunder, but pitied the man.

Cowper.
Would you have me applaud to the world what my beart must internally condemn

Goldsmite.
${ }^{1}$ Twere pity to offend
By uscless censure whom we cannot mend.
Cowper.
Reprove is even more personal than censure. A reproof passes from one individual to another, or to a certain number of individnals; censure may be public or general.
I again find, sir, proceeded he, that you are guilty of the same offence for which you once had my reproof. Goldsmita.

Censure is the tax which a man pays to the public for being eminent.

Addiaon.
Censure is frequently provoked by ill. nature or some worse feeling, or dictated by ignorance, as the censures of the vulgar.
And as a bird each fond endearment tries To tempt its new-fledged offapring to the akies; He tried each art, reprov'd each dull delay, Allur'd to brighter worlds, and led the way.

Goldamith.
A man thus armed (with assnrance), if his words or actions are at any time misinterpreted, retires within himself, and from a consciousness of his own integrity, assnmes force enough to despise the little censures of ignorance or malice.

Spisctator.
Reproaching and upbraiding are as mueh the acts of individuals as reproving, but the former denote the expression of personal feelings, and may be jnst or unjust; the latter is presumed to be divested of all personal feelings.

In all terms of reproof, when the aentence appears to arise from personal hatred or pasaion, it is not then made the canse of mankind, but a misunderstanding between two persons. Steele.
The prince replies: "Ah! cease, divinely fair, Nor add reprocches to the wounds I bear."

Pope.
Have we not known thee slave ! Of all the host, The man who acts the least upbraids the most.

Pope.
Reproaches are frequently dictated by resentment or self-interest, upbraidings by contempt or wounded feelings.

I soon perceived, by the londness of her voice and the bitterness of her reproaches, that no money was to be had from her lodger.

Goldsmita.
He came with less attendance and show than if he had been an ordinary messenger from a governor of a province; hence it is that we so often find Him upbraided with the meamess of his origin.

Sherlock.
Blame, condemn, reproach, and upbraid are applied to ourselves with the same distinction.

I never receive a letter from you withont great pleasure and a very strong sense of your gener' osity and friendship, which I heartily blame myself for not cultivating with more care. Jormaon.
Thus they in mutnal accusation spent
The fruitlcss hours, but neither self-condemning.
Milton.
The very regret of being surpassed in any valuable quality hy a person with the same abilities as onrselves, will reproach our own laziness, and even shame us into imitation.

Roolra

I was beginning to grow tender and to upbraid myself: sapecially after having dreanied two nights ago that I was with yon.

Boswell.
Reproof and censure are most properly addressed to others: in the following oxample, censure, as applied to one's self, is not so suitable as blame or condemn.

If I was put to deflne modesty, I should call it the reflection of an ingennons mind either when it has committed an action for which he censures (blames or condemns) himself, or fancies he is exposed to the cenaure of others. Spectator.

BLAMELESS, IRREPROACHABLE, UNBLEMISHED, UNSPOTTED, OR SPOTLess.
BLAMELESS signifies literally void of llame (v. To blame). IRREPROACHABLE, that is, not able to be reproached (v. To blame). UNBLEMISHED, that is, without blemish (v. Blemish). UNSPOTTED, that is, without spot ( $v$. Blemish).

Blameless is less than irreproachable; what is blameless is simply free from blame, but that which is irreproachable cannot be blamed, or have any reproach attached to it. It is good to say of a man that he leads a blameless life, but it is a high encomium to say that he leads an irreproachable life: the former is but the negative praise of one who is known only for his harmlessness; the latter is the positive commendation of a man who is well known for his integrity in the different relations of society.

The sire of gods, and all th' ethereal train, On the warm limits of the farthest main, Now mix with mortals, nor disdain to grace The feasts of Athiopia's blameleas race. Pore.

Take particular care that your amusements be of an irreproachable kind.

Blait.
Unblemished and unspotted are applicable to many objects besides that of personal couduct ; and when applied to this, their original meaning sufficiently points out their use in distinction from the two former. We may say of a man that he has an irreproctiable or an unblemished reputation, and unspotted or spotless purity of life.
But now those white unblemish'd manners, whence
The fabling poets took their golden age, Are found no more amid these iron times.

Thombon.
But the good man, whose sonl is pure, Inapotted, regular, and free

From all the ugly stains of lust and villany, Of mercy and of pardon sure,
Looks through the darkness of the gloomy nightw And sees the dawning of a glorlous day.

Pompeet.
Hail, rev'rend priest! To Phoebus' awful dome A sluppliant I from great Atrides come.
Unrangom'd here, receive the spotlesa fair, Accept the hecatomb the Greeks prepare. Popra

BLEMISH, STALN, SPOT, SPECK, FLAW.
BLEMISH is coonected with the French blêmir, to grow pale. STAIN, in French teindre, old French desteindre, Latin tingo, to dye. SPOT, not improbably connected with the word spit, Latin sputum, and the Hebrew spad, to adhere as something extraneous. SPECK, in Saxon specce, Hebrew sapach, to unite, or to adhere as a tetter on the skin. FLAW, in Saxon floh, fliece, German fleck, low Gepman flak or plakke, a spot or a tragment, a piece, which is connected with the Latin plaga, Greek $\pi \lambda \eta \gamma \eta$, a strip of land, or a stripe, a wound in the body.

In the proper sense blemish is the generic, the rest specific: a stain, a spot. spech, and flaw, are blemishes, but there are likewise many blemishes which are neither stains, spots, specks, nor flaws. Whatever takes off from the seemliness of appearance is a blemish. In works of art the slightest dimness of color, or want of p:oportion, is a blemish. A stain or spot sufficiently characterizes itself, as that which is superfluous and out of its place. A speck is a small spot; and a flaw, which is confined to hard substances, mostly consists of a faulty indenture on the outer surface. A blemish tarnishes; a stain spoils; a spot, speck, or flan disfigures. A blemish is rectified, a stain wiped out, a spot or speck removed.

All these terms are employed figuratively. Even an imputation of what is improper in our moral conduct is a blemin $h$ in our reputation: the failings of a good man are so many spots or specks in the bright hemisphere of his virtue : there are some vices which affix a stain on the character of nations, as well as of the individuals who are guilty of them. In proportion to the excellence or purity of a thing, so is any flaw the more easily to be discerned.
It is impossible for authors to discover beanties in one amother's works: they have eyes only fot spots and blemishes.

Addigom.

By length of time The acurf is worn away of each committed crime; No speck ia left of their habitnal stains, But the pure ether of the aoul remains.

Dryden.
There are many who appland themselves for the singularity of their judgment, which has searched deeper than others, and fonnd a flaw in what the generality of mankind have admired. AdDIson.

## BLEMISH, DEFECT, FAULT.

BLEMISH, v. Blemish, stain. DEFECT, n Latin defectus, participle of deficio, to fall short, signifies the thing falling short. FaULT, from fail, in French faute, from faillir, in German gefehlt, participle of fehlen, Latin fullo, to deceive or be wanting, and Hebrew repal, to fall or decay, signifies what is wanting to truth or propriety.

Blemish respects the exterior of an object: defect consists in the want of some specific propriety in an object; fault conveys the idea not only of something wrong, but also of its relation to the author. There is a blemish in fine china; a defcet in the springs of a clock; and a fault in the contrivance. An accident may cause a blemish in iu fine painting; the course of nature may occasion a defect in a person's speech; but the carelessness of the workman is evinced by the faults in the workmanship. A blemish may be easier remcdied than a defcet is corrected, or a fault repaired.

There is another particular which may he reckoned among the blemishes, or rather the false beanties, of our English tragedy: I mean those particular specches which are commonly known by the name of rants.

ADDison.
It has been often remarked, thongh not without wonder, that a man is more jealous of his natural than of his moral qualities; perhaps it will no longer appear strange if it be considered that natural defects are of necessity, and moral of choice.

Hawkeaworth.
The resentment which the discovery of a fault or folly produces must bear a certain proportion to our pride.

Johnson.
to blot out, EXPUNGE, RASE OR ERASE, GFFACE, CANCEL, ObliterATE.
BLOT is in all probability a variation of spot, signifying to cover over with a blot. EXPUNGE, in Latin expungo, conpounded of ex and pungo, to prick, signifies to put out by pricking with any sharp
instrument. ERASE, in Latin erasus, par. ticiple of erado, that is, $e$ and rado, to scratch out. EFFACE, in French effacer, compounded of the Latin $e$ and facio, to make, signifies literally to make or put out. CANOEL, in French canceller, Latin cancello, from cancelli, lattice-work, signifies to strike out with cross-lines. OB. LITERATE, in Latin obliteratus, participle of oblitero, compounded of ob and li. tera, signifies to cover over letters.

All these terms obviously rcfer to characters that are impressed on bodies; the three first apply in the proper sense only to that which is written with the hand, and bespeak the manner in which the action is performed. Letters are blotted out, so that they cannot be seen again; they are expunged, so as to signify that they cannot stand for anything; they are crased, so that the space may be reoccupied with writing. The three last are extended in their application to other claracters formed on other substances: efface is general, and does not designate either the manner or the object: ioscriptions on stone may be effaced, which are rubbed off so as not to be visible: ancel is principally contined to written or printed characters; they are cancelled by striking through them with the pen; in this manner leaves or pages of a book are cancelled which are no longer to be reckoned: obliterate is said of all characters, but without defining the mode in which they are put out; letters are obliterated which arc in any way made illegible. Efface applies to images, or the representations of things; in this manner the likeness of a person mav be effaced from a statue; cancel respects the subject which is written or printed; obliterate respects the sidgle letters which constitute words. Efface is the consequence of some direct action on the thing which is effaced; in this manner writing may be effaced from a wall by the action of the elements: cancel is the act of a person, and always the fruit of design : obliterate is the fruit of accident and circumstances in general; time itself may obliterate characters on a wall or on paper.

The metaphorical use of these terms is easily deducible from the preceding explanation: what is figuratively described as written in a book may be said to bo

Glotted; thus our sins are blotted out of the book by the atoning blood of Christ: when the contents of a book are in part rejected, they are aptly described as being expunged; in this manner the freethinking sects expunge everything from the $\mathrm{Bi}-$ ble which does not suit their purpose, or they expinge from their creed what does not humor their passions. When the memory is represented as having sharacters impressed, they are said to toe erased when they are, as it were, direetly taken ont and occupied by others; in this manner, the recollection of what a child has learned is easily erased by play; and with equal propriety sorrows may be said to efface the recollection of a person's image from the mind. From the idea of striking out or cancelling a debt in an account-book, a debt of gratitude, or an obligation, is said to be canselled. As the lineaments of the face corresponded to written characters, we may say that all traces of his former greatncss are obliterated.
If virtue is of this amiable nature, what can we think of those who can look apon it with an eye of hatred and ill-will, and can suffer themselves, from their aversion for a party, to blot out all the merit of the person who is engaged in it?

Addison.
I believe that any person who was of age to take a part in public concerns furty years ago (if the intermediate space were expunged from bis memory) wonld bardly credit his senses when he should lear that an army of two hnudred thousand men was kept up in this island. Burke.
Mr. Waller used to say he would rare any line out of his poem which did not imply some motive to virtue.

WALSH.
Yet the best blood by learning is refin'd, And virtue arms the solid mind:
While vice will stain the noblest race,
And the paternal stamp effice. Oldisworth.
Yet these are they the world pronounces wise ;
The world, which cancels nature's right and wrong,
And casts new wisdom.
Youne.
The transferring of the scene from Sicily to the court of King Arthur must have had a very plessing effect, before the fabulons majesty of that court was quite obliterated. Trnwhitr.

## BLOW, STROKE.

BLOW probably derives the meaning in which it is here taken from the action of the wind, which it resembles when it is violent. STROKE, from the word strike, denotes the aet of striking.

Blow is used abstractedly to denote the
effeet of violence; stroke is employed rel. atively to the person producing that effect. A blow may be received by the carelessness of the receiver, or by a pure accident; but strokes are dealt out according to the design of the giver. Children are always in the way of getting blows in the course of their play, and of receiving strokes by way of chastisement. A blow may be given with the hand, or with any flat substance; a stroke is rather a long drawn blow given with a long instrument, like a stick. Blows may be given with the flat part of a sword, and strokes with a stick.

The advance of the human mind tnward any object of landable pursuit may be compared to the progress of a body driven by a blow.

Jonnson.
Penetrated to the heart with the recollection of his bebavior, and the unmerited pardon lie had met with, Thrasyppus was proceeding to execnto vengeanco on himself, by rushing on lis sword, when Pisistratus again interposed, and, scizing his hand, stopped the stroke.

Cumberland.
Blow is seldom used but in the proper sense; stroke sometimes figurativcly, as a stroke of death, or a stroke of fortune.
This declaration was a btroke which Evander had neither skill to elude nor force to resist.

Hawkeswortn.

## bODY, CORPSE, CARCASS.

BODY is here taken in the improper sense for a dead body. CORPSE, from the Latin corpus, a body, has also been turned, from its derivation, to signify a dead body. CARCASS, in French carcasse, is compounded of caro and cassa vita, signifying flesh without life.

Body is applicable to either men or brutes, corpse to men only, and carcass to brutes only, unless when taken in a contemptnous sense. When speaking of any particular person who is deceased, we should use the simple term body; the body was suffered to lie too long nnburied: when designating its condition as lifeless, the term corpse is preferable: he was taken up as a corpse; when designating the body as a lifeless lump separated from the soul, it may be charac. terized (though contemptuously) as a car. cass; the fowls devour the carcass.

A groan, as of a troubled ghost, renew'd My fright, and then these dreadful words ensned

Why dost thou thus my buried body rend? 01 spare the corpse of thy unhappy friend.

Dryden.
On the bleak share-now lies th' abandon'd king, A headless carcass, and a nameless thing.

DRYDEN.

## BOLD, FEARLESS, INTREPID, UNDAUNTED.

BOLD, v. Audaeity. FEARLESS signifies without fear: v. To apprehend. INTREPID, compounded of in, privative, and trepidus, trembliog, marks the total absence of fear. UNDAUNTED, compounded of un, privative, and daunted, from the Latin domitatus, participle of domitare, to subdue or tame with fear, signifies unimpressed or unnoved at the prospect of danger.

Bolduess is a positive characteristic of the spirit; fearlessness is a negative state of the mind, that is, simply an absence of fear. A person may be bold through fearlessness, but he may be feurless withont bcing bold; he may be fearless where there is no apprehension of danger or no canse for apprehension, but he is bold only when he is conscious or apprehensive of danger, and prepared to encounter it. A man may be fearless in a state of inaction; he is bold only in action, or when in a frame of mind for action.

Such unheard of prodigies hang o'er us As make the boldest tremhle.

Youno.
Tbe careful hen
Calls all her chirping family around, Fed and defended by the fearless cock.

Thomson.
Iutrepidity is properly a mode of fearlessness, undauntedness a mode of boldness in the highest degree, displayed only on extraordinary occasions; he is intrepid who has no fear where the most fearless might tremble; he is undaunted whose spirit is nuabated by that which would make the stoutest heart yield. Intrepidsiy may be shown either in the bare contemplation of dangers-

A man who talks with intrepidity of the monsters of the wilderness, while they are out of gight, will readily confess his antipathy to a mole, a weasel, nr a frog. Thus he goes on without any reproach from his own reflections.

Johnson.
or in the actual encountering of dangers in opposing resistance to force.

They behaved with the greatest intrepidity and gave proofs of a true British apirit. Lord Hawke.
Urodauntedness is the opposing actual resistance to a force which is calculated to strike with awe.
His party, press'd with numbers, soon grew faint, And would have left their charge an easy prey; While he alone, undaunted at the odds,
Though hopeless to escape, fought well and brave-
ly.
Rowe
BOOTY, SPOIL, PREY.
These words mark a species of capt. nre. BOOTY, in French butin, Danish bytte, Dutch buyt, Teutonic beute, probably cones from the Teutonic bat, a useful tbing, denoting the thing taken for its use. SPOIL, in French dépouille, Latin spolium, in Greek $\sigma \kappa v \lambda o \nu$, signifying the things stripped off frow the dead, from $\sigma v \lambda a \omega$, Hebrew salal, to spoil. PREY, in French proie, Latin preeda, is not improbably changed froin prcendo, prendo, or prehendo, to lay bold of, signifying the thing seized.

Booty and spoil are used as military terms in attacks on an enemy, prey in cases of particular violence. The soldier gets his booty; the combatant his spoils; the carnivorous animal his prey. Booty respects what is of personal service to the captor; spoils whatever serves to designate his triumph ; prey includes whatever gratifies the appetite and is to be consumed. When a town is taken, soldiers are too busy in the work of destruction and mischief to carry away much booty; in every battle the arms and personal property of the slain enemy are the lawful spoils of the victor; the hawk ponnces on his prey, and carries it up to his nest. Greediness stimulates to take booty; ambition produces an cagerness for spoils; a ferocious appetite impels to a search for prey. Among the adcients the prisoners of war who were made slaves constitnted a part of their booty; and even in later periods such a capture was good booty, when ransom was paid for those who could liberate themselves. Among some savages the head or limb of an enemy constituted part of their spoils. Among cannibals the prisoners of wat are the prey of the conquerors.
One way a band select for forage drives A herd of beeves, fair oxen and fair kine

## BORDER

From a fat meadow ground, or fleecy flock, Ewes and their bleating lambs, Their booty.

Milton.
'Jwas in the dead of night, when sleep repairs Our bodles worn with tolls, our minds with cures, When Hector's ghost hefore my sight appears, A blnody shroud he seem'd, and bath'd in tears, Unlike that Hector who return'd from toils Of war, trimmphant in Eacian spoils. Dryden.
The wolf, who from the nightly fold
Forth drags the bleating prey, ne'er drank her milk,
Nor wore her warming fleece.
Thomson.
Booty and prey are often used in an extended and figurative sense. Plunderers obtain a rich booty; the diligent bee returns loaded with his booty. It is necessary that animals should become a prey to man, in order that man may not become a prey to them; everything in nature becomes a prey to another thing, which in its turn falls a prey to something else. All is change but order. Man is a prey to the diseases of his body or his mind, and after death to the worms.
When they had finally determined on a state
resource from church booty, they came, on the
l4th of April, 1790 , to a solemn resolution on the
suhject.
Borke.
Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.
Gobsmith.
BORDER, EDGE, RIM OR BRIM, BRINK,
MARGIN, VERGE.
BORDER, in French bord or bordure, Teutonic bord, is probably connected with bret, board, signifying a stripe in shape like a board. EDGE, in Saxon ege, low German egge, high German ecke, a point, Latin acies, Greek aкๆ, sharpness, signifies a sharp point or line. RIM, in Saxon rima, high German ralinen, a frame, ricmen, a thong, Greek $\rho v \mu a$, a tract, from ovo, to draw, signifies a line drawn round. BRIM, BRINK, are but variations of rim. MARGIN, in French marge, Latin margo, probably comes from mare, the sea, as it is mostly connected with water. VERGE, from the Latin virga, signifies a rod, but is here used in the improper sense for the extremity of an object.

Of these terms, border is the least definite point; edge the most so; rim and brink are species of edge; margin and verge are species of border. A border is a stripe, an edge is a line. The border lies at a certain distance from the edge;
the edge is the exterior termination of the surface of any substance. Whatever is wide enough to admit of any space round its circumference may have a border, whatever comes to a narrow extended sur. facc has an edge. Many things may have both a border and an edge; of this description are caps, gowns, carpets, and the like; others have a border, but no edge, as lands; and otbers have an edge, but no border, as a knife or a table. A rin is the cdge of any vessel; the brim is the exterior edge of a cup; a brink is the edge of any precipice or deep place; a margin is the border of a book or a piece of water; a verge is the extreme border of a place.
So the pure limpid stream, when foul with stain of rushing torrents and descending rains, Works itself clear, and as it runs refiues, Till by degrees the crystal mirror shines, Reflects each flower that on its border grows.

## Addison.

Methought the shilling that lay upon the table reared itself upon its edge, and turning its face toward me, opened its mouth.

Addison.
But Merion's spear o'ertook him as he flew,
Deep in the belly's rim an entrance found
Where sliarp the pang, and mortal is the wound.
Pope.
As I approach the precipice's brink,
So steep, so terrible, appears the depth.
Lansdowne.
By the sea's margin, on the watery strand, Thy monument, Themistocles, shall stand. Cumbealand.
To the earth's ntmost verge I will pursue him; No place, though e'er so holy, shall protect bim.

Rowe
BORDER, BOUNDARY, FRONTIER, CON* FINE, PRECINCT.
BORDER, v. Border, edye. BOUNDA. RY, from to bound ( $v . T_{0}$ bound), expresses what bounds, binds, or confines. FRON. TIER, French frontière, from the Latin frons, a forehead, signifies the fore part, or the commencement of anything. CONFINE, in Latin confinis, compounded of con or cum and finis, an end, signifies an end next to an end. PRECINCT, in Latin preecinctum, participle of proecingo, that is, proe and cingo, to enclose, signifies any enclosed place.

Border, boundary, frontier, and confinas are all applied to countries or tracts of land: the border is the outer edge or tract of land that runs along a country; it is mostly applied to countries running
n a line with each other, as the borders of England and Scotland; the boundary is that which bounds or limits, as the boundaries of countries or provinces; the frontier is that which lies in the front or forms the entrance into a country, as the frontiers of Germany or the frontiers of France; the confines are the parts lying contiguous to others, as the confines of different states or provioces. The term border is employed in describing those parts which form the borders, as to dwell on the borders, or to run along the borders. The term boundary is used in speaking of the extent or limits of places; it belongs to the science of geography to describe the boundaries of countries. The frontiers are mostly spoken of in relation to military matters, as to pass the frontiers, to fortify frontier towns, to guard the frontiers, or in respect to one's passage from one country to another, as to be stopped at the frontiers. The term confines, like that of borders, is mostly in respect to two places; the border is mostly a line, but the con. fines may be a point: we therefore speak of going along the borders, but meeting on the confines.

The Tweed runs from east to west, on the borders of Scotland.

Guthrie.
The Thames rises on the confines of Gloucestershire. GUthme.
The term border may be extended in its application to any space, and boundary to any limit. Confines is also figuratively applied to any space included within the confines, as the confines of the grave; precinct is properly any space which is encircled by something that serves as a girdle, as to be within the precincts of a court, that is, within the space which belongs to or is under the control of a court.
Menalcas, whom the larks with many a lay
Had call'd from slumber at the dawu of day, By chance was roving throngh a bordering dale, And heard the swains their youthful woes bewail. Sir Wh. Jones.
The Carthaginians discovered the Fortunate Inlands, now known by the name of the Canaries, the utmost boundary of ancient navigation.

Robertson.
High on a rock fair Thryoessa stands,
Our utmost frontier on the Pylian lands. Pope.
You are old;
Nature in you stands on the very verge
Of her confines.
srakbpeare.

Through all restraint broke loose, he wings his way,
Not far off heav'n in the precincts of light.
Milton.
TO BOUND, LIMIT, CONFINE, CIRCUMSCRIBE, RESTRICT.
BOUND comes from the verb bind, signifying that which binds fast, or close to an object. LIMIT, from the Latin limes, a landmark, signifies to draw a line which is to be the exterior line or limit. CONFINE signifies to bring within confines ( $v$. Border). CIRCUMSCRIBE, in Latin circumseribo, is compounded of circum and scribo, to write round, that is, to describe a line round. RESTRICT, im Latin restrictum, participle of restringo, compounded of $r e$ and stringo, signifies to keep fast back.

The four first of these terms are employed in the proper sense of parting off certain spaces. Bound applies to the natural or political divisions of the earth: countries are bounded by mountains and seas; kingdoms are often bounded by each other; Spain is bounded on one side by Portugal, on the other side by the Mediterrancan, and on a third side by the Pyrenees. Limit applies to any artificial boundary: as landmarks in fields serve to show the limits of one man's ground from another; so may walls, palings, hedges, or any other visible sign, be converted into a limit, to distinguish one spot from another, and in this manner a field is said to be limited, because it has limits assigned to it. To confine is to bring the limits close together; to part off one space absolutely from another: in this manner we confine a garden by means of walls. To circumscribe is literally to surround : in this manner a circle may circumscribe a square: there is this difference, however, between confine and circumscribe, that the former may not only show the limits, but may also prevent egress and ingress; whereas the latter, which is only a line, is but a simple mark that limits.
From the proper acceptation of these terms, we may easily perceive the ground on which their improper acceptation rests: to bound is an action suited to the nature of things, or to some given rule; in this manner our views are bound
ed by the oojects which intercept our sight.
Past hours,
If not by guilt, yet wound us by their flight
If folly bounds our prospect by the grave.
Youno.
Or we bound our desires according to the principles of propriety.
They, whom thou deignest to inspire, Thy science learn, to bound desire.

Gaeen.
Fo limit, confine, and circumseribe, all convey tbe idea of an action more or less involuntary, and controlled either by circumstances or by persons. To limit is an affair of discretion or necessity ; we limit our expenses because we are limited by circumstances.

Ordinary expense ought to be limited by a man's estate.

Bacon.
Things may be limited to one or many points or objects.

The operations of the mind are not, like those of the hands, limited to one individual object, but at once extended to a whole species.

Bartelet.
Confine conveys the same idea to a still stronger degree: what is confined is not only brought within a limit, but is kept to that limit, which it cannot pass; in this manner a person confines himself to a diet which he finds absolutely necessary for his health, or he is confined in the size of his house, in the choice of his situation, or in other circumstances equally uncontrollable; lience the term confined expresses also the idea of the limits being made narrow as well as impassable or unchangeable. Thercfore to confine Is properly to bring within narrow limits; it is applied either to space, as

A man hath a body, and that body is confined to a place.

Bacon.
or to the movements of the hody or the mind.
Mechanical motions or operations are confined to a narrow circle of low and little things.

Bartelet.
My passion is too strong
In reason's narrow bounds to be confin'd.
Wandesford.
To eircumscribe is to limit arbitrarily, or to bring within improper or inconvenient limits.

It is much to be lamented that among all de. nominations of Christians, the nncharitable spirit has prevalled of unwarrantably circunsoribing the terms of Divine grace within a narrow circle of their own drawing.

Blalg.
Sometimes circumscribing is a matter of necessity resulting from circumstances, as a person is circumscribed in his means of doing good who cannot do all the good he wishes.
Therefore must his choice be circumbcribed Unto the voice and yielding of his body Whereof he's head.

Shafspeare.
To restrict is to exercise a stronger degree of control, or to impose a harder necessity, than either of the other terms: a person is restricted by his physician to a certain portion of food in the day.
It is not necessary to teach men to thirst after power; but it is very expedient that by moral instractions they should be taught, and by their civil Institations they should be compelled, to put many restrictions upon the immoderate exercise of it.

Blackatone.

## BOUNDLESS, UNBOUNDED, UNLIMITED, INFINITE.

BOUNDLESS, or without bounds, is applied to objects which admit of no bounds to be made or conceived by us. UNBOUNDED, or not bounded, is applied to that which might be bounded. UNLIMITED, or not limited, applies to that which might be limited. INFINITE, or not finite, applies to that which in its nature admits of no bounds.

The ocean is a boundless object so long as no bounds to it have been discovered; desires are often unbounded which ought always to be bounded; power is sometimes unlimited which would be better limited; nothing is infinite but that Be ing from whom all finite beings proceed.
And see the country far diffus'd around
One boundless blush, one white empurpled shower
Of mingled blossoms. Tromson.
The soul requircs enjoyments more sublime, By space unbounded, undestroy'd by time. Jenys.
Gray's curiosity was unlimited, and his jodgment cultivated.

Jonnson.
In the wide fields of nature the sight wanders up and down without confinement, and is fed with an infinite variety of images. Addson.

BOUNDS, BOUNDARY.
BOUNDS and BOUNDARY, from the verb bound ( $v$. To bound), signify the line
which sets a bound, or marks the extent to which any spot of ground reaches.

Bounds is employed to designate the whole space including the outer line that confines: boundary comprehends only this outer line. Bounds are made for a local purpose; boundary for a political purpose: the master of a school preacribes the bounds beyond which the scholar is not to go; the parishes throughout England have their bouncaries, which are distinguished by marks; fields have likewise their boundaries, which are commonly marked out by a hedge or a ditch. Bounds are temporary and changeable; boundaries permanent and fixed: whoever has the authority of prescribing bounds for others, may in like manner contract or extend them at pleasure; the boundaries of places are seldom altered but in consequence of great political changes.
So when the swelling Nile contemns her bounds, And with extended waste the valleys drowns, At length her ebbing streams resign the field, And to the pregnant soil a tenfold harvest yield.

Clbeer.
Alexander did not in his progress toward the East advance beyond the banks of the rivers thet fell into the Indus, which is now the western boundary of the vast continent of India.

Roaertson.
In the figurative sense bound or bounds is even more frequently used than boundary: we speak of setting bounds, or keeping within bounds; but to know a boundary: it is necessary occasionally to set bounds to the inordinate appetites of the best disposed children, who cannot be expected to know the exact boundary for indulgence.

There are bounds within which our concern for worldly success must be conflned. Blals.

It is the proper ambition of heroes in literature to cnlarge the boundaries of knowledge by discovering and conquering new regions of the intellectual world.

Jounson.

## BRAVE, GALLANT.

BRAVE, in German brav, Welsh braw, signifies good, but in the French, etc., it has the same meaning as in English: bravery was looked upon as the highest virtue. GALLANT, in French galant, from the Greek aya $\lambda \lambda \omega$, to adorn, signifies distinguished either by splendid dress or spiendid qualities.

These epitheta, whether applied to the
person or the action, are alike honoran ble; but the latter is a much stronger expression than the former. Gallantry is extraordinary bravery, or bravery on extraordinary occasions: the brave man goes willingly where he is commanded; the gallant man leads on with vigor to the attack. Bravery is common to vast numbers and whole nations; gallantry is peculiar to individuals or particular bodies: the brave man bravely defends the post assigned him; the gallant man volunteers his services in cases of peculiar danger: a man may feel ashamed in not being considered brave; he feels a pride in being looked upon as gallant. To call a hero brave adds little or nothing to his character; but to entitle him gallant adds a lustre to the glory he has acquired.
The brave unfortunate are our best acquaintance. Francts.
Death is the worst ; a fate which all must try, And for our country 'tis a bliss to die, The gallant man, though slain in fight he be, Yet leaves his nation safe, his children free.

TO BRAVE, DEFY, DARE, CHALLENGE.
BRAVE, from the epithet brave ( $v$. Brave), signifies to act the part of a fearless man. DEFY, in French défier, i. e.; de, privative, and fier, to trust, not to trust or set any store by, to set at naught. DARE, in Saxon dearran, dyrran, Franconian, etc., odurren, thorren, Greek $\mathcal{I}$ ap$\rho \in \iota \nu$, signifies to be bold, or have the confidence to do. CHALLENGE is probably changed from the Greek $\kappa a \lambda \varepsilon \omega$, to call.
To brave is with bravery to resist or meet the force of any opposing power: as the sailor braves the tempestuous ocean, or in the bad sense, a man braves the scorn and reproach of the world; so things per. sonified may brave.
Joining in proper union the amiable and the estimable qualities, in one part of our character we shall resemble the flower that smiles in spring : in another the firmly-rooted tree, that braves the winter storm.

Blair.
To defy is to hold cheap that which opposes itself as it respects persons; there is often much insolent resistance in defiance, as a man defies the threats of his superior.
The description of the wild ass in Job is worked up into. ne small sublimity, merely by insisting on his freedom, and his setting mankind at defanoe.

Buatan

In respect to things, it denotes a resolution to bear whatever may be inflicted.

## The seul, secur'd in her existence, sniles At the drawn dagger, and defies its point.

ADDISON.
To dare and to challenge have more of provocation than resistance in them; he who dares and challenges provokes or calls on another to do something. To dare is an informal act, performed eifther by words or deeds; as to dare a person to come out, to dare him to leave his place of retreat: to ohallenge is a formal act, performed hy words; as to challenge another to fight, or to engage in any contest.

I Judge it improper to dare the eliemy to battle any longer.

Hood.
Time, I dare thee to discover
Such a yauth, and such a lover.
Driden.
But while the daring'mortal o'er the floed
Rais'd luis high netes and ehalleng'd'every god; With envy Triton heard the noble strain, And whelm'd the beld musician in the main.

Pope.
Daning may sometimes be performed by actions, and braving sometimes by words; so that hy the poots they are occasionally used onc for the other.
Trey sunk in flames I saw (nor ceuld prevert), And 'Ilium'from ita old feundations rent-
Rent like a mountain-ash, which dar'd the winds,
And atood the sturdy strekes of lab'ring hinds.
Dryden.
There Ereuthalion brav'd us in the field,
Proud Areithous' dreadful arms to wic'd. Pope.

## bravery, COURAGE, Valor.

BRAVERY denotes the ahstract quality of brave (v. Brave). COURAGE, in French courage, comes from courr, in Latin cor, the heart, which is the seat of courage. VALOR, in French valeur, Latin valor, from valeo, to be strong, signifies by distinction strength of mind.

Bravery lies in the blood; courage lies in the mind: the latter depends on the reason, the former on the physical temperament: the first is a species of instinct; the second is a virtue: a man is brave in proportion as he is withont thought; he has courage in proportion as he reasons or reffects. Bravery is of utility only in the hour of attack or contest; courage is of service at all times and undor all circumstances: bravery is of avail
in overeoming the ohstacle of the mo. ment; courage seeks to avert the distant evil that may possibly arrive. Bravery is a thing of the moment, that is or is not, as circumstances may favor; it varies with the time and season: courage exists at all times and on all occasions. The brave man who fearlessly rushes to the mouth of the cannon may tremble at his own shadow as he passes through a churchyard, or turn pale at the sight of blood: the courageous man smiles at imaginary dangers, and prepares to meet those that are real. It is as possible for a man to have courage withont bravery, as to have bravery without courage. Cicero showed no marks of personal bravery as a commander, but he displayed his courage when he laid open the treasonable purposes of Catiline to the whole senate, and charged bim to his face with the crimes of which he knew him to be guilty.
The Athenlan government centinued in the same state till the death of Codrus, the sevellteenth and last king, a prince mere renowned fer his bravery than his fertune. Potien.
With as mucl ambition, as great abilities, and mere acquired knowledge than Cæsar, he (BoliDghroke) wanted only his courage to be as anccessful.

Goldsmith.
Valor is a higher quality than either bravery or courage, and seems to partake of the grand characteristics of both; it combines the fire of bravery with the determination and firmness of courage: bravery is most fitted for the soldier and all who receive orders; courage is most adapted for the general and all who give command; valor for the leader and framer of enterprises, and all who carry great projects into execution : bravery requires to be guided; courage is equally fitted to command or obey; valor directs and executes. Bravery has most relation to danger; courage and valor include in them a particular reference to action: the brave man exposes himself; the courageous man advances to the scene of action which is before him ; the valiant man seeks for occasions to act. The three hundred Spartans who defended the Straits of Thermopylx were brave. Socrates drinking the hemlock, Regulus returning to Carthage, Titus tearing himself from the arms of the weeping Berenice, Alfred the Great going into thr
samp of the Danes, were courageous. Hercules destroying monsters, Perseus delivering Andromeda, Achilles running to the ramparts of Troy, and the knights of more modern date who have gone in quest of extraordinary adventures, are all entitled to the peculiar appellation of valiant.

> This brave man, with long resistance, Held the combat doubtful.

Rowe.
Oh! when I see him arming for his honor, His country, and his gods, that martial fire That mounts his courage, kindles even me!

Dbyden.
True valor, friends, on virtue founded strong, Meets all events alike.

Mallet.

## BREACH, BREAK, GAP, CHASM.

BREACH and BREAK are both derived from the same verb break (v. To (reak), to denote what arises from being broken, in the figurative sense of the verb itself. GAP, from the English gape, signifies the thing that gapes or stands open. CHASM, in Greek $\chi a \approx \mu a$, from रat $\nu \omega$, and the Hebrew gahah , to be open, signifies the thing that has opened itself.
The idca of an opening is common to these terms, but they differ in the nature of the opening. A breach and a gap are the consequence of a violent removal, which destroys the connection; a break and a chasm may arise from the absence of that which would form a connection. A breach in a wall is made by means of cannon; gaps in fences are commonly the effect of some violent effort to pass through; a brcak is made in a page of printing by leaving off in the middle of a line; a chasm is left in writing when any words in the sentence are omitted. $\boldsymbol{A}$ breach and a chasm always imply a larger opening than a break or gap. A gap may be made in a knife; a breach is always made in the walls of a building or fortification: the clouds sometimes separate 80 as to leave small breaks; the ground is sometimes so convulsed by earthquakes as to leave frightful chasms.

[^21]Breach, chasm, and gap are figuratively applied to other objects with the same distinction; as a brcach of friendship, or of domestic harmony; a gap in nature or time; and a chasm in our enjoyments.

## Or if the order of the world below

Will not the gap of one whole day allow, Give me that minute when she made her vow.

Dryden.
The whole chasm in nature, from a plant to a man, is flled up with diverse kinds of creatures.

AdDison.
When breach of faith join'd hearts doea disengage,
The calmeat temper turns to wildest rage. Lez.

## TO BREAK, RACK, REND, TEAR.

BREAK, in Saxon brecan, Danish and low German breken, high German brechen, Latin frango, Greek $\beta \rho \eta \gamma \nu v \mu \mu, \beta \rho \eta \chi \nu v \omega$, Chaldee perak, to separate. RACK comes from the same source as break; it is properly the root of this word, and an onomatopœia, conveying a sound correspondent with what is made by breaking: rak in Swedish, and racco in Icelandic, signify a breaking of the ice. REND is in Saxon hrendan, hreddan, low German ritan, high German reissen, to split, Greek $\rho \eta \sigma \sigma \omega$, Hebrew rangnah, to break in pieces. TEAR, in Saxon taeran, low German tiren, bigh German zerren, is an intensiive verb from ziehen, to pull, Greek $\tau \rho \nu \omega$, rєцр $\omega$, to bruise, Hebrew tor, to split, divide, or cleave.
The forcible division of any substance is the common characteristic of these terms. Break is the generic term, the rest are specific: everything racked, rent, or torn, is broken, but not vice versá. Break has, however, a specific meaning, in which it is comparable with the others. Breaking requires less violence than either of the others: brittle things may be broken with the slightest touch, but nothing can be racked without intentional violence of an extraordinary kind. Glase is quickly broken; a table is racked. Hard substances only are broken or racked; but everything of a soft texture and composition may be rent or torn. Breaking is performed by means of a blow; racking by that of a violent concussion or straining; but rending and tearing are
the consequences of a pull or a sudden snatch. Anything of wood or stone is broken, anything of a complicated structure, with hinges and joints, is racked; cloth is rent, paper is torn. Rend is sometimes used for what is done by design; a tear is always faulty. Cloth is sometimes rent rather than cut when it is wanted to be divided; but when it is torn it is injured. To tear is also used in the sense not only of dividing by violence that whieh ought to remain whole, by separating one object from another; as to tear anything off, or out, etc.
She sigh'd, she sobb'd, and furious with despair, She rent her garments, and she tore her hair.

Dryden.
In the moral or figurative application, break denotes in general a division or separation more or less violent of that which ought to be united or bound; as to break a tie, to break an engagement or promise. To rack is a continued action; as to rack the feelings, to place them in a violent state of tension. To rend is figuratively applied in the same sense as in the proper application, to denote a sudden division of what has been before whole; as to rend the heart, to have it piereed or divided as it were with grief; so likewise to rend the air with shouts. To tear is metaphorically employed in the sense of violently separating objects from one another which are united; as to tear one's self from the company of a friend.

But out affection !
All bond and privilege of nature break.
Shakspeare.
Loog has this seeret struggled in my breast;
Long has it rack'd and rent my tortured bosom.
Smiti.
The people rend the skies with loud applanse,
And heaven can hear no other name but yours.
Dayden.
Who would not bleed with transport for his conntry,
Tear every tender passion from his heart?
Tuomson.
TO BREAK, BRUISE, SQUEEZE, POUND, CRUSH.
BREAK, $v$. To break, rack. BRUISE, in French briser, Saxon brysed, not improbably from the same source as press. SQUEEZE, in Saxon cooysin, low German quietsen, quoesen, Swedish quasa, Latin
quatio, to shake, or produce a concussion, signifies to press close. POUND, in Sax. on punian, is not improbably derived by a change of letters from the Latin tundo, to bruise. CRUSH, in French écraser, is most probably only a variation of the word squeeze, like crash, or squash.

Break always implies the separation of the component parts of a body; bruise denotes simply the destroying the continuity of the parts. Hard brittle substances, as glass, are broken; soft pulpy substances, as flesh or fruits, are bruised. The operation of bruising is performed either by a violent blow or by pressure; that of squeving by compression only. Metals, particularly lead and silver, may be bruised; fruits may be either bruised or squezed. In this latter sense bruise applies to the harder substances, or indicates a violent compression; squecze is used for soft substances or a gentle eompression. The kernels of nuts are bruised; oranges or apples are squeezed. To pound is properly to bruise in a mortar, so as to produce a separation of parts; to crush is the most violent and destructive of all operations, whicb amounts to the total dispersion of all the parts of a body. What is broken may be made whole again; what is bruised or squeezed may be restored to its former tone and consistency; wbat is pounded is only reduced to smaller parts for convenience; but what is crushed is destroyed. When the wheel of a carriage passes over any body that yields to its weight, it crushes it to powder.
Dash my devoted bark : ye surges break it, Tis for my ruin that the tempest rises! Rown.
Yet lab'ring well his little spot of ground, Some scatt'ring pot-herbs here and there bs found:
Which, cultivated with his daily care,
And $b r u i s^{\prime} d$ with vervain, were his daily fare.
Dryden
He therefore first among the swains was found
To reap the produce of his latur'd ground,
And squeeze the combs with golden liquor crown'd. Dryden
And where the rafters on the columns meet, We push them headlong with our arms and feet: Down goes the top at once; the Greeks beneath Are piecemeal torn, or pounded into death.

Dryden.
Such were the sufferings of our Lord, so great and so gricvous as none of us are in any degree able to undergo. That weight under which he crouched would crush us.

Thlemion

In the figurative sense, crus $h$ marks a total amihilation: if a conspiracy be not crusbed in the bud, it will prove fatal to the power which has suffered it to grow.
To crush rebellion every way is just. Darcy.
TO BREAK, BURST, CRACK, SPLIT.
BREAK, v. To break, rack. BURST, in Saxon beorstan, bersten, byrsten, low German baisten, basten, high German ber. sten, old German bresten, Swedish brysta, is but a variation of break. CRACK is in Saxon cearcian, French craquer; high German krachen, low German kraken, Danish krakke, Greek крекєьv, which are in all probability bet variations of break, etc. SPLIT, in Dutch split, Danish splitten, low German splieten, bigh German spalten, old German spilten, Swedish splita, which are all connected with the German platzen, to burst, the Greek $\sigma \pi a \lambda v \sigma \sigma o \mu a t$, to tear or split, and the Hebrew pelah, to separate, palect or palety, to cut in pieces.

Break is the general term, denoting any separation or coming apart with more or less force; the rest are particular modes, varied either in the circumstances of the action or the object acted npon. To break does not specify any particular manner or form of action; what is broken may be broken in two or more pieces, broken short or lengthwise, and the like: to burst is to break suddenly and with violence, frequently also with noise.
In various proofs of emphasis and awe
He spoke his will, and trembling nations heard: Witness, ye billows, whose returning tide, Breaking the chain that fastened it in air, Swept Egypt. Youno.
Time this vast fabric for him built (and doom'd With him to fall), now bursting 0 'er his head His lamp, the sun extinguish'd, from beneath The form of hideous darkness calls his sons.

Young.
Everything that is exposed to external violence, particularly hard substances, are said to be broken; but hollow bodies, or such as are exposed to tension, are properly said to burst.
The brittle steel, unfaithful to his hand, Broke short.

Pope.
Atoms and systems into ruin hurl'd, And now a bubble burst, and now a world.

Pope.
In the sense of making a way or openlng, the same distinction is preserved.

Ambitious thence the manly river braake, And gathering many a flood, and copious fed With all the mellowed treasures of the aky, Winds in progressive majesty along. Thomsona

The torreot burst over the walla, sweeping away the images of every saint that were placed there to oppose it. Brydone.
So likewise in application to moral objects.
Your luxury might break anl bounds: Plate, tables, horses, ste wards, houads, Might swell your debts.

GAX
Now the distemper'd mind
Has loat that concord of harmonious powers Which forms the soul of happiness; and allIs off the poise within; the passions all Have burat their bounds.

Thouson.
To crack and split are modes of breaking length wise: the former in application to hard or brittle objects, as clay, or the things made of clay; the latter in application to wood, or that which is made of wood. Breaking frequently causes an entire separation of the component parts so as to destroy the thing; cracking and splitting are but partial separations.
And let the weighty roller run the round, To smooth the surface of th' unequal ground; Lest crack'd with summer heats tbe flooring flies,
Or sinks, and through the crannies weeds arise.
Deyden.
Is't meet that he Should leave the helm, and like a fearful lad, With tearful eyes, add watcr to the sea?
White in his mean, the ship optits on the rock, Which indostry and courage might have saved.

Sharspeare,

## TO BREED, ENGENDER.

BREED, in Saxion b'redan, Teutonic bree. tan, is probably connected with braten, to roast, being an operation principally performed by fire or heat. ENGENDER, compounded of en and gender, from genitus, participle of gigno, signifies to lay or communicate the seeds for production:

These terms are properly employed for the act of procreation. To breed is to bring into existence by a slow operation : to engender is to be the author or prime cause of existence. So, in the metaphorical sense, frequent quarrels are apt to breed hatred and animosity: the levelling and inconsistent conduct of the higher classes in the present age serves to engender a spirit of insubordination and assumption in the inferior order. Whatever breeds acts gradually; whatever en.
qenders produces immediately as cause and effect. Uncleanliness breeds diseases of the body; want of oceupation breeds those of the mind; playing at chance games engenders a love of money.
The strong desire of fame breeda several vicious habita in tho mind.

ADDIson.
Eve's dream is full of those high cenceits, engendering pride, which, we are told, the Devil madeavored to instil into her.

ADDISON.

## BREEZE, GALIE, BLAST, GUST, STORM, TEMPEST, HURRICANE.

All these words express the action of the wind, in different degrees and under different circumstances. BREEZE, in Italian brezza, is in all probability an onomatopoeia for that kind of wind peculiar to Southern elimates. GALE is probably conneeted with call and yell, denoting a sonorous wind. BLAST, in German geblaset, participle of blasen, signifies properly the act of blowing, but by distinction it is employed for any strong effort of blowing. GUST is immediately of Icelandic origin, and expresses the phenomena which are characteristic of the Northern climates; but in all probability it is a variation of gush, signifying a violent stream of wind. STORM, in German sturm, from störem, to put in commotion, like guast, describes the phenomenon of Northern climates. TEM. PEST, in Latin tempestas, or tempus, a time or season, describes that season or sort of weather which is most remarka. ble, but at the same time most frequent, in Southern climates. HURRICANE has been introduced by the Spaniards into European languages from the Caribbee Islands; where it describes that species of tempestuous wind most frequent in tropical climates.

A breeze is gentle; a gale is brisk, but steady: we have breezes in a calm summer's day; the mariner has favorable goles, whieh keep the sails on the stretch. A blast is impetuous: the exhalations of a trumpet, the breath of bellows, the sweep of a violent wind, are blaots. A gust is sudden and vehement; pusts of wind are sometimes so violent as to sweep everything before them while they last. Storm, tempest, and hurrieane include other particulars besides wind. A storm throws the wbole atmosphere into
commotion; it is a war of the elementh in which wind, rain, hail, and the like, conspire to disturb the heavens. Tempest is a species of storm whieh has also thun. der and lightning to add to the confusion. Hurricane is a species of storm which exceeds all the rest in violence and duration.

Into a perfect caludual sidks the breaze
Themán.
What happy gale
Blows you to Padua here from old Veroos? Shakspeare.
As when fierce Northeru blasts from th' Alpa de. scend,
Fron his firm roots with atruggling gusts to rend An aged aturdy oak, the rustling sound
Grows loud.
Deniam.
Through storms and tempesty so the sailor drives,
While every element in combat atrives; Loud roars the thunder, flerce the lightning fiea Winds wildly rage, and billows tear the skies.

Shirlev.
So where our wide Numidian wastes extend, Sudden th' impetuous hurrioclnes descend, Wheel through the air, in circling eddies play, Tear up the ganda, and aweep whole plains away. ADDISON.

Gust, storm, and ternpest, which are applied figuratively, preserve their distinction in this sense. The passions are exposed to gusts and storms, to sudden bursts, or violent and continued agitations; the soul is exposed to tempests when agitated with violent and contending emotions.

Stay these sudden gusts of passion That hurry you away.

Rowe.
I burm I I burn I The storm that's in my mind Kindles my heart, like fires provoked by wind.

Lansdewn.
All deaths, all tortures, in one pang combin'd, Are gentle, to the tempest of my mind.

Thomsom.
BRIGHTNESS, LUSTRE, SPLENDOR, BRILLIANCY.
BRIGHTNESS, from the English bright, Saxon breorht, probably comes, like the German pracht, splendor, from the He brew berak, to shine or glitter. LUSTRE, in French lustre, Latin lustrum, a purga. tion or cleansing, that is, to make clean or pure. SPLENDOR, in French splen. deur, Latin splendor, from splendeo, to shine, comes either from the Greek $\sigma \pi \lambda \eta$ $\delta o s$, embers, or $\sigma \pi เ \nu \theta \eta \rho$, a spark. BRILL. IANCY, from brilliant, and briller, to
shlne, comes from the German brille, spectacles, and the Latin of the Middle ages beryllus, a crystal.

Brightness is the generic, the rest are specific terms: there cannot be luastre, splendor, and brilliancy without brightness; but there may be brightness where these do not exist. These terms rise in sease; lustre rises on brightness, splendor on lustre, and brilliancy on splendor. Brightness and lustre are applied properly to natural lights; splendor and brilliancy have been more commonly applied so that which is artiticial or unusual: there is always more or less brightness in the suo or moon; there is an occasional lustre in all the heavenly bodies when they shine in their unclouded brightness; there is splendor in the eruptions of flame from a volcano or an immense conflagration; there is brilliancy in a collection of diamonds. There may be both splendor and brilliancy in an illumination: the splendor arises from the mass and richness of light; the brilliancy from the variety and brightness of the lights and colors. Brightness may be obscured, lustre may be taroished, splendor and brilliancy diminished.

The analogy is closely preserved in the figurative application. Brightness attaches to the moral character of men in ordinary cases, lustre attaches to extraordinary instances of virtne and greatness, splendor and bralliancy attach to the achievements of men. Onr Saviour is strikingly represented to us as the brightness of his Father's glory, and the express image of his persoo. The humanity of the English in the hour of conquest adds a lustre to their victories, which are either splendid or brilliant according to the number and nature of the circumstances which reader them remarkable.

Earthly honors are both short-lived in their continuance, and, while they last. tarnished with spots and stains. On some quarter or other their brightness is obscured. But the honor which proceeds from God and virtue is unmixed and pure. It is a lustre which is derived from leaven.

Blatr.
Thomson's diction is in the highest degree fiorId and luxuriant, such as may be said to be to his images and thoughts "hoth their lustre and their shade," such as invests then with splendor through which they are not easily discernible.

Joinson.

There is an appearance of brilliancy in the pleasures of high life which naturally dazzles the young.
cbalg.
TO BRING, FETCH, CARRY.
BRING, in Saxon bringan, Teutonic, etc., bringen, old German brigyan, prin. gan, bibringen, is most probably contracted from beringin, which, from the simple ringen or regen, to move, signifies to put in m tion or remove. FETCH, in Saxon feccian, is not improbably connected with the word search, in Freach chercher, Ger-
 nack, to send for or go after. CARRY, v. To bear, carry.

To bring is simply to take with one's self from the place where one is; to fetch is to go first to a place and then bring a thing; to fetch, therefore, is a species of bringing: whatever is near at hand is brought; whatever is at a distance must be fetched: the porter at an inn brings a parcel, a servant who is sent for it fetches it. Bring always respects motion toward the place in which the speaker resides; fetch, a motion both to and from; carry, always a motion directly from the place or at a distance from the place. A servant brings the parcel home which his master has sent him to fetch; he carries a parcel from home. A carrier carries parcels to and from a place, but he does not bring parcels to and from any place. Bring is an action performed at the option of the agent; fetch and carry are mostly done at the command of another. Hence the old proverb, " He who will fetch will carry," to mark the character of the gossip and tale-hearer, who reports what he hears from two persons in order to please both parties.

What appeared to me wonderful was that none of the ants came home without bringing something.

ADDIson.
I have sald before that those ants which I did so particularly consider fetched their corn ont of a garret.

ADDISON.
How great is the hardship of a poor ant, when she carries a grain of corn to the second story, climbing up a wall with her head downward!

ADDIson.
TO BUILD, ERECT, CONSTRUCT.
BUILD, in Saxon bytlian, French bdtir, Gcrman bauen, Gothic boa, bua, bygga, to erect houses, from the Hebrew bajith, a habitation. ERECT, in French érigers

Lath erectus, participle of erigo, compounded of $e$ and rego, from the Greek o $\rho \varepsilon \gamma \omega$, to stretch or extend. CONSTRUCT, in Latin constructus, participle of construo, compounded of con, together, and struo, to put, in Greek sp $\rho \nu v \mu t$, $50 \rho \varepsilon \omega$, to strew, in Hebrew ohrah, to dispose or put in order, signifies to form toyether into a mass.
The word build by distinction expresses the purpose of the action; erect indicates the mode of the action; construct indi. cates contrivance in the action. What is built is employed for the purpose of receiving, retainiug, or confining; what is erected is placed in an elevated situation ; what is constructed is put together with ingenuity. All that is built may be said to be erected or constructed; but all that is erected or constructed is not said to be built; likewise what is erected is mostly ronstructed, though not vice versa. We build from necessity; we ereet for ornament; we construct for utility and convenience. Houses are built, monuments erected, machines are constructed.

Montesquea wittlly observes that by building professed mad-houses, men tacitly insinuate that all who are out of their senses are to be found only in those places

Warton.
It is as rational to live in caves till our own hands have erected a palace, as to reiect all knowledge of architecture which our understandlings will not snpply.

Johnson.
From the raft or canoe, which first served to sarry a savage over the river, to the construclion of a vessel capable of conveying a numerons crew with safety to a distant coast, the pregress in improvement is immense.

Robertson.

## BULKY, MASSIVE.

BULKY denotes having bulk, which is connected with our words belly, body, bilge, bulge, etc., and the German bailg. MASSIVE, in French massif, from mass, signifies having a mass or being like a mass, which is in the German masse, Latin mass $\alpha$, Greek $\mu a \zeta a$, dough, from $\mu \alpha \sigma \sigma \omega$, to knead, signifying made into a sulid substance.

Whatever is bulky has a prominence of figure ; what is massive has compactness of matter. The bulky, therefore, though larger in size, is not so weiglity as the massive. Hollow bodies frequently have bulk; nons but solid bodies can be massive. A vessel is bulky in its form ; lead, silver, and gold are massive.

In Milon's tims It was suspected that the whole creation languished - that neither trees ner anlmals had tha height or bulk of their pred. ecessors.

Johnson.
Hls pond'rous shield,
Ethareal temper, massy, large, and round,
Behind him cast.
Milton.

## BURLAL, INTERMENT, SEPULTURE.

BURIAL, from bury, in Saxon birian, birigan, German bergen, signifies in the original sense to conceal. INTERMENT, from inter, compounded of in and terra, signifies the putting into the ground. SEPULTURE, in French stpulture, Latin sepultura, from sepultus, participle of sepelio, to bury, comes from sepes, a hedge, signifying an enclosure, and probably likewise from the Hebrew sa$b a t$, to put to rest, or in a state of privacy.

Under burial is comprehended simply the purpose of the action; under interment and sepulture, the manner as well as the motive of the action. We bury in order to conceal; interment aod sepulture are accompanied with religious ceremonies. Bury is confined to no object or place; we bury whatever we deposit in the earth, and wherever we please; but interment and sepalture respect only the bodies of the deceased when deposited in a sacred place. Burial requires that the object be concealed under ground; interment may be used for depositing in vaults. Self-murderers were formerly bured in the highways; Chris. tians in general are buried in the churchyard; but the kings of England were formerly interred in Westminster Abbey. Burial is a term in familiar use; interment serves frequently as a more elegant expression; sepultare ís an abstract teria confined to particular cases, as in speak. ing of the rites and privileges of sepuh ture.
Let my pale corse the rites of bureal know, And give me entrance in the realms below.

Pops.
But good Aneas ordered on the shere A stately tomb, whese top a trumpet herc: Thus was his friend intere'd, and deatnless fame Still to the lofty cape consigns his name.

Dnyder.
Ah! leave me not for Grecian degs to tear : Tha common rites of aepulture bestow, Te soothe a father's and a mother's woe: Let their large gifts procure an urn at least. Aud Hector's ashes in his country rest. Pope:

## BUSINESS

BUSINESE, OCCUPATION, EMPLOYMENT,' ENGAGEMENT, A VOCATION.
BUSINESS signifies what makes brisy, v. Active, busy. OCCUPATION, from occupy, in French occuper, Latin occupo, that is, ob and capio, signifies that which serves or takes possession of a person or thing to the exclusion of other things. EMPLOYMENT, from employ, in French emploi, Latin implico, Greek $є \mu \pi \lambda \in \kappa \omega$, signifies that which engages or fixes a person. ENGAGEMENT, v. To attract. AVOCATION, in Latin avocatio, from a and voco, signifies the thing that calls off from another thing.

Business occupies all a person's thoughts as well as his time and powers; occupation and employment occupy only his time and strength: the first is mostly regular, it is the object of our choice; the second is casual, it depends on the will of another. Engagement is a partial employment, avocation a particular engagement: an engagement prevents us from doing anything else; an avocation calls off or prevents us from doing what we wish. Every tradesman has a business, on the diligent prosecution of which depends his success in life; every mechanic has his daily occupation, by which he maintains his family; every laborer has an employment which is fixed for him. Business and occupation always suppose a serious object. Business is something more urgent and important than occupation: a man of independent fortune has no occasion to pursue business, but as a rational agent he will not be contented to be without an occupation.

The materials are no sooner wrought into paper but they are distributed among the presses, where they again set innumerable artists at work, and furnish businass to another mystery.

Addison.
Absence of occupation is not rest;
a mind quite vacant is a mind distress'd.
Cowfer.
Creatures who have the labors of the mind, as well as those of the body, to furnisb them with employments.

Gdardian.
Employment, engagement, and avocation, leave the object undefined. An employment may be a mere diversion of the thoughts, and a wasting of the hours in nome idle pursuit; a child may have its mployment; which may be its play in
distinction from its business: an engaga ment may have no higher object than that of pleasure; the idlest people have often the most engagements; the gratif. cation of curiosity, and the love of social pleasure, supply them with an abundance of engagements. Avocations have seldom a direct trifling object, although it may sometimes be of a subordinate nature, and generally irrelevant: numerous avocations are not desirable; every man should have a fixed pursuit, as the business of his life, to which the principal part of his time should be devoted: avocations, therefore, of a serious nature are apt to divide the time and attention to 4 hurtful degree.
I would recommend to evsry one of my readars the keeping a journal of their lives for one week, and setting down panctnally their whole series of employments during that space of time.

Addison.
Mr. Baretti being a single man, and entirely clear from all angagements, takes the advantage of his independence.

Jognson.
Sorrow ough't not to be suffered to increase by indulgence, but must give way after a stated tims to social duties and the common avooathons of lits.

Johnson.
A person who is busy has much to attend to, and attends to it closely: a person who is occupied has a full share of business without any pressure; he is opposed to one who is idle: a person who is employed has the present moment filled up; he is not in a state of inaction: the person who is engaged is not at liberty to be otherwise employed; his time is not his own; he is opposed to one at leisure.
These professors of the rights of men are so busy in teaching others, that they have not leisure to learn anything themselves. Bokaz.
The world o'erlooks him in her busy search
Of objects mors illustrious in her view;
And, occupisd as earnestly as she,
Though more sublimely, he o'erlooks the werld.
Cowper,
Not slothfil be, though seeming unemploya, And censur'd oft as useless.

Cowpen.
How little must the ordinary occupations of men seem to one who is engaged in so noble a pursuit as the assimilation of himself to the Deity !

Berkeley.
BUSINESS, TRADE, PROFESSION, ART.
BUSINESS, v. Business, occupation. TRADE signifies that which employs the time by way of trade. PROFESSION signifies that which one professes to da'

ART signifies that which is followed in the way of the arts.

These words are synonymous in the sense of a calling, for the purpose of a livelihood: business is general, trade and profession are particular ; all trade is business, but all business is not trade. Buying and selling of merchandise is inseparable from trade; but the exercise of one's knowledge and experience for purposes of gain constitutes a business ; when learning or particular skill is required, it is a profession; and when there is a peculiar exercise of art, it is an art: every shopkeeper and retail dealer carries on a trade; brokers, manufaeturers, bankers, and others, carry on business; clergymen, medieal, or military men, follow a profession; musicians and painters follow an art.
Those who are determined by cloice to any particular kind of business are indeed more happy that those who are determined by necessity.

ADDISON.
Some persons,indeed, by the privilege of their birth and quality, are above a common trade and profession, but they are not hereby exempted from all business, and allowed to live unprofitably to others.

Tillotson.
No nue of the sons of Adam ought to think himself exempt from labor or industry; those to whom birth or fortune may seem to make such an application umecessary ought to find out arme calling or $\mathfrak{z r}$ ffession, that they may not lie as a burden upon the apecies.

ADDIson.
The peintor understands his art.
SwIFT.

## BUSINESS, OFFICE, DUTY.

BUSINESS, v. Busizuess, occupation. OFFICE, v. Benefit, service. DU'TY signifies what is due or owing one, from the Latin debitum, participle of debeo, to owe.

Business is that which engages the time, talents, and interest of a man; it is what a man proposes to himself : office is that which a man is ealled upon to do for another; it is eonsequently prescribed by others: duty is that whieh duty prescribes: one follows business, fills or discharges an office, and performs or discharges a duty. As business is the concern of the individual, and duty is his duty, these terms properly apply to private matters, as the business or duties of life: office, on the other hand, being that whieh is donc for the benefit or by the direction of others, it is properly applied to public matters.

It may be observed that men who, from being engaged in business, or from their course of lifo in whatever way, seldom see their children, do not care much about them.

Johnson.
He discharged all the offloss he went through with great abilities and singular reputation of integrity.

Clarendon.
Diacretion is the perfection of reason, and a guide to us in all the duties of life. Abdison.

But the terms may be so qualified that the former may be applied to public, and the latter to private matters.

He was in danger of being pursued by his enemies in Parliament fur having made the peace and endeavored to atitle the popish plot, and yet sat very loose with the King, who told Sir William several reasons of that change, whereof one was, his bringing the lusiness of the plot into Purliament against his absolute command.

Temple.
We cannot miss him ; he does light our fire, Fetch in our wood, and serves in offices That profit us.

Sharspeare.
I gee and feel sensibly that I am not able to perform those duties as I ought, and as the place requires.

Lord Ellesmeae.
Business and office are frequently applied to that part whioh a man is called to perform ; in which sense business and office come still nearer to the term duty; what belongs to a person to do or see done, that is properly his business : a person is bound, either by the nature of bis engagements or by private and personal motives, to perform a service for another, as the office of a prime minister, the office of a friend; that is his office. Duty in this application expresses a stronger obligation than eitber of the other terms; where the serviee is enjoined by law, or commanded by the person, that is a duty, as the elerical duties, the duty of a soldier.
It is certain, from Suetonius, that the Romans thought the education of their children a business properly belonging to the parents themselves.

Budgell.
But now the feather'd youth their former bounds Ardent disdain, and, weighing oft their wings, Demand the free possession of the sky.
This one glad office more, and then dissolves
Parental love at once, now heedless grown.
Thomson.
In the first, entrance into the troubles he underteok the command of a regiment of foot, and performed the duty of a celenel upon all oceasions most punctually.

Glarendon.

## BUSTLE, TUMULT, UPROAR.

BUSTLE is probably a frequentative of busy. TUMULT, in French tumulte, Latin tumultus, or tumor multus, much
swelling or perturbation. UPROAR, compounded of $u p$ and roar, marks the act of setting up a roar or clamor, or the state of its being so set up.

Bustle has most of hurry in it; tumult most of disorder and confusion; uproar most of noise: the hurried movements of one, or many, cause a bustle; the disorderly struggles of many constitute a tumult; the loud elevation of many opposing voices produces an uproar. Bustle is frequently not the effect of design, but the natural consequence of many persons coming together; tumult commonly arises from a general effervescence in the minds of a multitude; uproar is the consequence either of general anger or mirth. A crowded street will always be in a bustle; contested electious are always accompanied with a great tumult: drinking parties make a considerable uproar, in the indulgence of their intemperate mirth.

> They who live in the bustle of the world are not, perhaps, the most accurate observers of the progressive change of manners in that socicty in which they pass their time.

> Abercromby.
> Outlaws of nature! yet the great must use 'em Sometimes as nccessary tools of tumult.

Dryden.
Amidst the uproar of other bad passions, conscience acts as a restraining power.

Blait.

## TO BUY, PURCHASE, BARGAIN, CHEAPEN.

BUY, in Saxon bysgean, Gothic bugyan, is in all probability connected with the Saxon gebysgod, busy, and tbe German berchäfftigt, from schaffen, to do or concern one's self in a thing, to deal in it. PURCHASE, in French pourchasser, like the word pursue, poursuivre, comes from the Latin persequor, signifying to obtain by a particular effort. BARGAIN, in Welsh bargen, is most probably connected with the German borgen, to borrow, and Bürge, a surety. CHEAPEN is in Saxon ceapan, German kaufen, Dutch, etc., coopen, to buy.

Buy and purchase have a strong resemblance to each other, both in sense and application; but the latter is a term of more refinement than the former: buy may always be substituted for purchase without impropricty; but purchase would be sometimes ridiculous in the familiar application of buy: the necessaries of life
are bought; luxuries are purchased. Ths characteristic idea of buying is that of expending money according to a certain rule, and for a particular purpose; that of purchasing is the procuring the thing. by any means; some things, therefore, may more properly be said to be purchased tban bought, as to purchase friends, ease, and the like.

It gives me very great scandal to observe, wherever I go, how much skill, in buying ati manner of things, there is necessary to defead yourself from being cheated. Tatlen.
Pirates may make eheap pennyworths of their pillage,
And purchase friends.

## Shakspeaze.

Buying implies simply the exchange of one's money for a commodity; bargaining and cheapening have likewise respect to the price: to bargain is to make a specific agreement as to the price; to cheapen is not only to lower the price asked, but to deal in such things as are cheap: trade is supported by buyers; bargainers and cheapeners are not acceptable customers: mean people are prone to bargaining; poor people are obliged to eheapen.
So York must sit, and fret, and bite his toogue, While his own lands are bargain'd for and sold. Suakspeate.
You may see many a smart rhetorician turning his hat in his hands, monlding it into several different cocks, examining sometimes the lining, and sometimes the button, during the whole course of his harangue. A deaf man would think he was eheapening a beaver, when perhaps he is talking of the fate of the British oation.

ADDISON.

## C.

## CALAMITY, DISASTER, MISFORTUNE,

 MISCHANCE, MISHAP.CALAMITY, in French calamité, Latin calamitas, from calamus, a stalk; because hail or whatever injured the stalks of corn was termed a calamity. DISASTER, in French désastre, is compounded of the privative des or dis and astre, in Latin astrum, a star, signifying what comes from the adverse influence of the stars. MISFORTUNE, MISCHANCE, and MISHAP, naturally express what comes amiss by fortune or chance.

The idea of a painful event is common to all these terms, but they differ in the
degree of importance. A calamity is a great disaster or misfortune; a misfortune a great mischance or mishap: whatever is attended with destruction is a calamity; whatever occasions mischief to the person, defeats or interrupts plans, is a disaster; whatever is accompanied with a loss of property, or the deprivation of health, is a misfortune; whatever diminishes the beauty or utility of objects is a mischance or mishap: the devastation of a country by hurricanes or earthquakes, or the desolation of its inhahitants by famine or plague, are great calamities; the overturning of a carriage, or the fracture of a limb, are disasters; losses in trade are misfortunes; the spoiling of a book is, to a greater or less extent, a mischance or mishap. A calamity seldom arises from the direct agency of man; the elements, or the natural course of things, are mostly concerned in producing this source of misery to men; the rest may be ascribed to chance, as distinguished from design : disasters mostly arise from some specific known cause, either the carelessness of persons, or the unfitness of things for their use; as they generally serve to derange some preconcerted scheme or undertaking, they seem as if they were produced by some secret influence: misfortune is frequently assignable to no specific cause, it is the bad fortune of an individual ; a link in the chain of his destiny; an evil independent of himself, as distinguished from a fault: mischance and mishap are misfortunes of comparatively so trivial a nature, that it would not be worth while to inquire in to their cause, or to dwell upon their consequences. A calamity is dreadful; a disaster melancholy; a misfortune grievous or heavy; a mischance or mishap slight or trivial.

They observed that soveral blessings had degenerated into calamities, and that several cahamities had improved into blessings, according as they fell into the possession of wise or foolish men.

AdDISON.
There in his noisy mansion, skill'd to rule, The village master tanglit his little school: A man severe he was, and stern to view, I knew him well, and every truant knew. Well had the boding tremblers learn'd to trace The day's disasters in his morning face.

Golnsmitri.
She daily exercises her benevolence by pitying every misfortune that happens to every family within her circle of notice.

Jонмson.

Permit thy daughter, fracious Jove, to tell How this misehance the Cyprian Queen befell. Pore
For pity's sake tells undeserv'd mishaps, And, their applause to gain, recounts his claps.

Cedrchil.

## TO CALCULATE, RECKON, COMPUTE, COUNT.

CALCULATE, in Latin caleulatus, participle of calculo, comes from calculus, Greek кa入ı乡, a pebble; because the Greeks gave their votes, and the Romavs made out their accounts, by little stones; hence it denotes the action itself of reckoning. RECKON, in Saxon recean, Dutch rekener, Gerinan rechnen, is not improbably derived from row, in Dutch reck, because stringing of things in a row was formerly, as it is now sometimes, the ordinary mode of reckoning. COMPUTE, in French omputer, Latin computo, compounded of com and puto, signities to put together in one's mind. COUNT, in French compter, is but a contraction of computer.

These words indicate the means by which we arrive at a certain result, in regard to quantity. To calculate is the generic term ; the rest denote modes of calculating: to calculate denotes any numerical operation in general, but is particularly applicable to the abstract science of figures; the astronomer calculates the motions of the beavenly bodies; the mathematician makes algebraic calculations: to reckon is to enumerate and set down things in detail; reckoning is applicable to the ordinary business of life : tradesmen keep tbeir accounts by rechoning; children learn to reckon by various simple processes. Calculation is therefore the science, reckoning the practical art of enumerating.
His faculty for transacting business, and his talents for caleulation, were considered by his fond admirers as the gift of nature, when in reality they were the result of education, assiduity, and experience.

Cox.
The stars lie in such apparent confusion as makes it impossible on ordinary oecasions te reekon them.

Burke.
To compute is to come at the result by calculation; it is a sort of numerieal estimate drawn from different sources: historians and chronologists compute the times of partieular events by comparing
them with those of other known events. An almanac is made by calculation, computation, and reckoning. The rising and setting of the beavenly bodies are calcotlated; from given astrooomical tables is computed the moment on which any celestial phenomenon may return; and by reckoming are determined the days on which holidays, or other periodical events, fall.

In this bank of fame, by an exact calculation, and the rules of political arithmetic, I have allotted teo hundred thonsand shares; five hundred thousand of which are the due of the general ; two huodred thousand I assign to the general officers ; and two hundred thonsand more to all the commissioned officers, from the colonels to ensigns; the remaining hundred thousand must he distributed among the non-commissioned officers and private men; according to which computation, I find Sergeant Hall is to have one share and a fraction of two-fifths.

Steele.
To count is as much as to take account of, aud when used as a mode of calculatiom it signifies the same as to reckon one by one; as to count one by one, to count the hours or minutes.

Among the North Americans, they all counted to ten, and by adding one, two, and three, etc., to ten, advanced to any namber of units and tene ep to one thousand.

Yarsona.
These words are all employed in applieation to moral objects, to denote the estimate which the mind takes of things. To calculate is to look to future events and their probable consequences; we calculate on a gain, on an undertaking, or any enterprise : to compute is to look to that which is past, and what results from any past event; as to comprote a loss, or the amount of any mischief done: to reckon is either to look at that which is present, and to set an estimate upon it ; as to reckon a thing cheap; or to look to that which is future ss something desirable, as to reckor on a promised pleasore. To count is to look on the thing that is present, sad to set a value upon it according to circumstances, as to count a thing for nothing. A spirit of calculation arises from the cupidity engendered by trade; it narrows the mind to the mere prospect of accumulation and self-interest. Computations are inaccurate that are not founded upon exact numerical calculations. Inconsiderate people are apt to reckon on things that are very un-
certain, and then lay up to themselve a store of disappointments. Those who bave experienced the instability of human affairs will never calculate on an hour's enjoyment beyond the moment of existence. It is difficult to compute the loss which an army sustains upon being defeated, especially if it be obliged to make a long retreat. Those who know the human heart will never reckon on the as sistance of professed friends in the hour of adversity. Men often count their lives as nothing in the prosecution of a favorite scheme.
By this unjust measure of calculating happinesa, people mourn with real aftiction for inarginary losses. Spectacol
The time we live ought aot to be computed by the number of years, but hy the use that has been made of $1 t$.

Andison.
Men reck on themselves posseased of what their genius inclines them to, and so bend all their ambition to exeel in what is oot of their reach.

Spectation.
He (the Duke of Monmonth) was greater than ever; Lord Shafteshury reckowed upon being so too, and at the cost of those whom he took to be the anthors of the last prorogation. Temple.

Applanse and admiration are by no means to be counted amoag the neceasariea of life.

## Jobnaon.

## CALENDAR, ALMANAC, EPHEMERIS.

CALENDAR comes from calenda, the Roman name for the first days of every month. ALMANAC, that is, al and mana, signifies properly the reokoning or thing reokoned, from the Arabic mana and Hebrew manach, to reckon. EPHEMERIS, in Greek $\varepsilon \notin \varepsilon \varepsilon \rho \iota \zeta$, from $\varepsilon \pi t$ and $\eta \mu \varepsilon \rho \alpha$, the day, implies that which happens by the day.

These terms denote a date-book, but the calendar is a book which registers events under every month: the almanac is a book which registers times, or the divisions of the year: aod an ephemeris is a book which registers the planetary movements every day. An almanac raay be a calendar, and an ephemeris may be both an almanac and a calendar; but every almanac is not a calendar, nor every calendar an almanac. The Gardenor's Calendar is not an almanac, sud the sheet almanacs are seldom calendars: likewise the Nautical Ephemeris may serve as an almanac, although not as a calendar.

Re was sitting apon the ground npon a little atraw, in the farthest corner of his dungeon, which was slternately his chair and bed; a little oalendar of amall sticks were laid at the head, notched all over with the dismal nights and days he had passed there.

Sterne.
When the reformers were purging the calendar of lagione of visioaary saints, they took due care to defend the niches of real martyrs from profanation. They preserved the holy festivals which had been consecrated for many agea to the great luminariea of the church, end at once paid proper observance to the memory of the good, and fell in with the proper humor of the valgar, which loves to rejoice and mourn at the discretion of the almanac.

Walpole.
That two or thres sans or moons appear in any man's life or ralgn, it la not worth the wonder ; but that the same should fall ont at a remark: able time or point of some declaive action; that those two should make bat one line in the book of fate, and atand together in the great ephemerides of God, beside the philosophical assignment of the cause, it may admitt a Chrlatian apprehension in the aignality.

Bnowne, Vulgar Errore.

## TO CALL, CRY, EXCLAIM.

CALL, from the Hebrew kol, the voice, signifies aimply raising the voice. CRY, In the Hebrew karah, and EXCLAIM, in the Latin ex and clamo, to cry out, hoth denote a raising the voice louder than a slmple call. Call is used on all ordinary occasions in order to draw a peraon to a spot, or for any other purpose, when one wishes to he heard; to cry ia to call loudly on particular occasions: a call draws attention; a cry awakena alarm.
And oft the mighty necromancer boasts
With thess to call from tombs the atalking ghoata.

Dayden.
My attention was so mucl taken up by Mr. Barchell's accoant, that I scarce looked forward as wa want slong, till we were alarmed by the cries of my family.

Golnamith.
To cry ia for general purposes of convenience, as the cry of the hunter, or the cries of persons to or among numbers; to exclaim is an expression of aome particular feeling.
There, whila you groan beneath the load of life, They cry, Behold the mighty Hector's wife!

Pore.
The dreadful day
No pause of worda admits, ne dnll delay ;
Fierce discord storms, Apollo loud eacelaime,
Fame calls, Mars thunders, and the field's in flames.

Pope.
TO CALL, INVITE, BID, SUMMON.
CALL, in its abstract and original aenae, signifiea simply to give an expres.
aion of the voice (v. To call, cry). BID in Saxon beodan or bidden, to offer, old German buden, low German bedan, German biethen, etc., and INVITE, Latin vito or invito, which comes from in and viam, the way, both signify to call into the way or measure of another. SUMMON, in French sommer, changed from summoner, Latin submoneo, aignifies to give special notice.

The idea of signifying one's wiah to another to do anything is included in all these terms. In the act of calling, any gounds may be uaed; we may call by aimply raising the voice: inviting may be a direct or indirect act; we may invite by looks or signs as well as by words, by writing as well as by speaking.
As soon as I entered, the maid of the shop,
who, I suppose, was prepared for my coming,
ran away to call her mistress. SpEctator.
The interruption in my last was a depntation
from the bishop to invita us to a great dinner.
Baynone.
To bid and summon require the express uae of worda; the former ia always directly addressed to the person, the latter may be conveyed by an indirect channel.

She thank'd me, And bade ma, if I had a friend that lov'd ma, I should but teach him how to tell my atory, And that would woo her.

Shakaplaja.
The parilament is summoned by the king's writ or letter.

Blackatone.
Aa the action of calling requirea no articulate sounds, it may be properly applied to animala; as sheep call their young.

The carcful hen
Calls all her chirping family around. Tномson.
So likewiae to inanimate objects when made to sound by way of signal or for the purpose of calling.

He dresses himself according to the sesson in cloth or in stuff, and has no one necessary attention to anything but the bell which calls to prayers twice a day.

Spectatoz.
So likewise invite may be said not only of unconscious, but spiritual agents.
Time flies, death urges, knells call, Heav'n invitar,
Hell threatens.
Youno.
Calling is the act of persons of all ranks, superiors, inferiors, or equals; it may therefore be either a command, a
demand, or a simple request. Parents and children, masters and servants, call to each other as the occasion requires.

Aa soon as he came within hearing, I called out to him hy name, and entreated his help.

Goldsmith.
Bidding is always the act of a superior hy way of command or entreaty.
My author and disposer, what thou bidd'st Unargued I obey.

Milton.
Inviting is an act of courtesy or kindness between equals.
Her tather loved me, oft invited me.
SHAKAPEABE.
To summon is an act of anthority, as to summon witnesses.

Mark there, she says; these, summoned from afar,
Begin their march to meet thee at the bar.
Cowpea.
When these words are employed in the sense of causing any one to come to a place, call and sumnon are most nearly allied, as are also bid and invite. In this case to call is an act of discretion on ordinary occasions, and performed in an ordinary manner; as to call a meeting, to call together, to call home: to summon is a formal act, and more or less imperative according to the occasion; as to summon a jury.
In other part the sceptred heralds call To council. Milton.
Some trumpet fummons hither to the walls These men of Angiers.

Suakspeare.
Bidding and inviting, though acts of kindness, are distinguished as before according to the condition of the person; bid is properly the act of a superior, and invite of an equal, or one entitled to the courtesies of life.

The broken soldier, kindly bade to stay, Sat hy his fire, and talked the night away.

Goldamith.
Mr. Arnold, being informed that the new performer was my son, sent his coach and an invitation for him.

Goldsmith.
These terms may all be used in the figurative application with a similar distinction in sense. Things personified may be said to call, summon, bid, invite.

The morning ahinea, and the fresh field Calls us.

Miluton.

The husiness of life summons us away from nseless grief, and calls us to the exercise of those virtues of which we are lamenting the deprivation.

JOENBON.
The star that bids the shepherd fold, Now the top of heaven doth hold. Minton. Still follow where auspicions fates invite, Caress the happy, and the wretched slight.

## Lewso.

Things personified may also be said to be called, invited, bidden, or summoned.
In a deep vale, or near some ruin'd wall, He would the ghosts of slaughter'd soldiers call. Dryden. 0 call back yesterday, bid time return.

Shafrpeabe.
Rise, lovely pair; a sweeter hower invites
Your eager stepa.
Sis W. Jones.
Ere to black Hecate's summons The shard-horne beetle, with his drowsy hums, Hath rung night's yuwning peal, there ahall be done
A deed of dreadful note. Shafapeare.

## CALM, COMPOSED, COLLECTED.

CALM, v. To appease. COMPOSED, from the verb compose, marks the state of being composed; and COLLECTED, from collect, the state of heing collected.

These terms agree in expressing a state; but calm respects the state of the feelings, composed the state of the thoughts and feelings, and collected the state of the tboughts more particularly. Calmness is peculiarly requisite in seasons of distress, and amidst scenes of horror: composure, in moments of trial, disorder, and tumult: collectedness, in moments of danger. Calmness is the companion of fortitude; no one whose spirits are easily disturbed can have strength to bear misfortune: composure is an attendant upon clearness of understanding; no one can express himself with perspicuity whose thoughts are any way deranged: collectedness is requisite for a determined promptitude of action; no one can be expected to act promptly who cannot think fixedly. It would argue a want of all feeling to be calm on some occasions, When the best affections of our nature are put to a severe trial. Composedness of mind associated with the detection of guilt evinces a hardened conscience and an insensibility to shame. Collectedness of mind has contributed in no small degree to the preservation of some persons' lives in moments of the most imminent peril,

## CANDID

Tls godlike magnanimity to keep, When most provok'd, our reason calm and clear. Thomson.
A moping lover would grow a pleasant fellow by the time he had rid thrice about the island (Anticyra) ; and a hare-hrained rake, after a short stay in the conntry, go home again a composed, grave, worthy gentleman. Steele. Collected in his strength, and like a rock Pois'd on his base, Mezentius stood the shock.

Dryden.

## CALM, PLACID, SERENE.

CALM, v. To appease. PLACID, in Latin placidus, from placeo, to please, signifies the state of being pleased, or free from uneasiness. SERENE, Latin serenus, comes most probably from the Greek $\varepsilon \varphi \rho \eta \nu \eta$, peace, signifying a state of peace.

Calm and serene are applied to the elements; placid only to the mind. Calmness respects only the state of the winds, serenity that of the air and heavens; the weather is calm when it is free from agitation: it is serene when free from noise and vapor. Calm respects the total absence of all perturbation; placid the ease and contentment of the mind; serene clearness and composure of the mind.

As in the natural world a particular agitation of the wind is succeeded by a calm, so in the mind of man, when an unusual effervescence has been produced, it commonly subsides into a calm; placidity and serenity have more that is even and regular in them; they are positively what they are. Calm is a temporary state of the feelings; placid and serene are habits of the mind. We speak of a calm state; but a placid and serene temper. Placidity is more of a natural gift ; serenity is acquired: people with not very ardent desires or warmth of feeling will evince placidity; they are pleased with all that passes inwardly or outwardly : nothing contributes so much to serenity of mind as a pervading sense of God's good providence, which cheeks all impatience, softens down every asperity of humor, and gives a steady current to the feelings.
Preach patience to the sea, when Jarring winds Throw up the swelling billows to the sky ! And if your reasons mitigate her fury, My sonl will be as calm.

Smith.
Placid and soothing is the remembrance of a life passed with quiet, innocence, and elegance.

Every one ought to fence against the tempet of his climate or constitution, and frequently to indulge in himself those considerations which may give him a serenity of mind. Addison.

## CAN, MAY.

CAN, in the Northern languages können, etc., is derived, most probably, from kennen, to know, from the natural intimacy which subsists between knowledge and power. MAY is in German mögen, to may or wish, Greek $\mu a t \omega$, to desire, from the connection between wishing and complying with a wish. Can denotes possibility, may liberty and probability: he who has sound limbs can walk; but he may not walk in places which are prohibited.
For who can match Achilles? he who can Must yet be more than hero, more than man.

POPE.
Thou canst not call him from the Stygian shore, But thou, alas : mayst live to suffer more.

POPE,

## CANDID, OPEN, SINCERE.

CANDID, in French candide, Latin can. didus, from candeo, to shine, signifies to be pure as truth itself. OPEN is in Sax. on open, French ouvert, German offen, from the preposition $u p$, German $a u f$, Dutch op, etc., because erectness is a characteristic of truth and openness. SINCERE, French sincère, Latin sincerus, probably from the Greek $\sigma v \nu$ and $\kappa \eta \rho_{,}$ the heart, that is, with the heart, signifying dictated by or going with the heart.

Candor arises from a conscious purity of intention: openness from a warmth of feeling and love of communication: sincerity from a love of truth.

Candor obliges us to acknowledge even that which may make against ourselves; it is disinterested: openness impels us to utter whatever passes in the mind; it is unguarded: sincerity prevents us from speaking what we do not think; it is positive. A candid man will have no re. serve when openness is necessary; an open man cannot maintain a reserve at any time; a sincere man will maintain a reserve only as far as it is consistent with truth. Candor wins much upon those who come in connection with it; it removes misunderstandings and obviates differences; the want of it occasions suspicion and discontent. Openness gains
as many enemies as friends; it requires to be well regulated not to be offensive; there is no mind so pure and disciplined that all the thoughts and feelings which it gives birth to may or ought to be made public. Sincerity is an indispensable virtue; the want of it is always mischievous, frequently fatal.

## Self-conviction is the path to virtue. <br> An bonorable candor thus adorns

 Ingenuous minds.C. Johngon.

The fondestand firmest friendships are dissolved by such openness and sincerity ss interrupt our enjoyment of our own approbation. JoHNson.
Truth and sincerity have all the advantages of appearance, and many more. Thlotson.

## CAPACITY, CAPACIOUSNESS.

CAPACITY (v. Ability) is the abstract of capax, receiving or apt to hold; it is therefore applied to the eontents of hol. low bodies. CAPACIOUSNESS (v. Am$p l e$ ) is the abstract of capacious, and is therefore applied to the plane surface comprehended within a given space. Hence we speak of the capacity of a vessel, and the capaciousness of a room.

Capacity is an indefinite term designating the property of being fit to hold or receive, as applied to bodies generally; but capaciousness denotes a fulness of this property as belonging to a particular object in a great degree. Measuring the copacity of vessels belongs to the science of mensuration: the capaciousness of a room is to be observed by the eye. They are marked by the same distinction in their moral application: men are born with various capacities; some are remark. able for the capaciousness of their minds.

A concave measure, of known and denominate capacity, serves to measure the capaciousness of any other vessel.

Holder.

## CAPTIOUS, CROSS, PEEVISH, PETULANT, FRETFUL.

CAPTIOUS, in Latin captiosus, from capio, signifies taking or treating in an offensive manner. CROSS, after the noun cross, marks the temper which resembles a cross. PEEVISH, probably changed from beeish, signifies easily provoked, and ready to sting like a bee. FRETFUL, from the word frct, signifies full of fretting; fret, which is in Saxon frcotan, is connected with the Latin fricatus, parti-
ciple of frico, to wear away with rubbing PETULANT, in Latin petulans, from peta to seek, signifies seeking or catching up.

All these terms indicate an unamiabls working and expression of temper. Cap. tious marks a readiness to be offended: cross indicates a readiness to offend or come across the wishes of others: peevish expresses a strong degree of crossness: fretful a complaining impatience: petu lant a quick or sudden impatience. Cap tiousness is the consequence of misplaced pride; crossness of ill-humor; peevishness and fretfulness of a painful irritability; petulance is either the result of a naturally basty temper or of a sudden irritability: adults are most prone to be cap. tious; they have frequently a self-impor. tance which is in perpetual danger of being offended: an undisciplined temper, whether in young or old, will manifest itself on certain occasions by cross looks and words toward those with whom they come in connection : spoiled children are most apt to be peevish; they are seldom thwarted in any of their unreasonable desires without venting their ill-bumor by an irritating and offending action: sickly children are mostly liable to fretfulness; their unpleasant feelings vent themselves in a mixture of erying, complaints, and crossness: the young and ignorant are most apt to be petulant when contra. dicted.

Captiousness and jealonsy are easily offeaded; and to bim who studiously looks for an affront, every mode of hehavior will supply it. Jonnson.
I was so good-homor'd, so cheerful, and gay, My heart was as light as a feather all day ; But now l so cross and so peevish am grown, So strangely uneasy as never was known.

## Bytom.

Peevish displeasure, and snspicions of mankind, are apt to persecute those who withdraw themselves altogether from the haunts of men.

Blair
On earth what is, seems formed indesd for us;
Not as the plaything of a froward child,
Fretful unless diverted and beguiled. Cowpen.

## CAPTURE, SEIZURE, PRIZE.

CAPTURE, in French capture, Latin captura, from captus, participle of capio, to take, signifies either the act of taking or the thing taken, but mostly the former. SEIZURE, from seize, in French saisir, signifies only the act of seizing

PRIZE, in French prise, from pris, participle of prendre, to take, signifies only the thing taken.

Capture and seizure differ in the mode : a capture is made by force of arms; a seizure by direct and personal force. The caplure of a town or an island requires an army; the seizure of property is effected by the exertions of an individual.

The late Mr. Robert Wood, in his Easay on the original Genius and Writinga of Homer, inclines to think the lliad and Odyssey were fuished about half a century after the capture of Troy.

Cumberlana.
Every ship was subject to seisure for want of stamped clearances.

Bub天E.
A seizure always requires some force, but a capture may be effected without force on unresisting objects. Merchant vessels are captured; contraband goods are seized, or there may be an unlawful seizure of another's property.

This was very happy for him, for in a very few years, being concorned in several captures, he brought home with him an estate of about twelve thouaand pounds.

Guardian.
Many of the dangers imputed of old to exorbitant wealth are now at an end. The rich are neither waylaid by robbers nor watched by informers; theve is nothing to be dreaded from proscriptions or aeizures.

Johnson.
Capture and seizure relate to the act of taking as well as the thing taken: prize relates only to the thing taken, and its value to the captor. There are many captures made at sea which never become prizes; the term prize is therefore applied to whatever valuable comes into our possession by our own efforts.

Our inheritances are become a prize for disputation.

Burke.

## CARE, SOLICITUDE, ANXIETY.

CARE, in Latin cura, comes probably from the Greek kvos, power, because whoever has power has a weight of care. SOLICITUDE, from solicitous, in Latin solicitus, signifies the property of soliciting or pressing. ANXIETY, from $a n x$ ious, in Latin anxius and ango, in Greek $a \gamma \chi \omega$, Hebrew hanak, to suffocate or torment, signifies a state of extreme suffering.

These terms express the application of the mind to any object. Care is the most indefinite of the three; it may be accompanied with pain or not, according to the
nature of the object or the intensity of the application: solicioude and anxiety are accompanied with a positive degree of pain, the latter still more than the former. When care is employed ln the discharge of any office, it may be without any feeling, but it is always accompanied with active excrtions, as the care which a subordinate takes of a child. Solicitude and anxiety lie altogether in the mind, unaccompanied with any other action: solicitude has desire, mixed with fear; anxiety has distress for the present, mixed with fear for the future.
I think myself indebted to you beyond all expression of gratitude for your care of my dear mother.

Jounson.
Can your aolicitude alter the course or unravel the intricacy of human eveots? Blain. The statesman, lawyer, merchant, man of trade, Pants for the refuge of some rural shade, Where, all lis long anaieties forgot, Amid the charms of a aequester'd spot He may possess the joya be thinks he sees.

Cowper.
Care is inseparable from the business of life; there is nothing which is done but what requires care for it to be well done: solicitude and anxiety are produced by the events and circumstances of life, with this difference, that, as solicitude has so much of desire in it, it is more under our control or may be more easily restrained than anxiety, which is forced upon us.
It was long aince observed by Horace that no ahip could leave care behind.

Jounson.
He kept them many months by him, and a few years before he died he ahowed me oae of them, with a great anlicitude to render them as perfect as might be.

Johnson.
It is possille the anxiety from this last circumstance alone might have brought on a relapse, had I not been supplied by a traveller, who stopped to take a cursory refreshmeat.

Goldsmitr.
Care by its intensity and duration, and anxiety by its violence, may produce injurious effects; as worn out with care, overwhelmed with anxiety.

But his face
Deep scars of thunder had intrench'd, and care
Sat on his faded cheek.
Milton.
The story of a man who grew gray in the space of one night's anxiety is very famous.

Spectator.
Solicitude is awakened only by ordinary events, and never rises to excess:
there may be a solicitude to please, or a tender solicitude for the health of a person.
I am very sincerely solicitous for the preservation or curing of Mr. Langton's sight.

Johnson.
CARE, CONCERN, REGARD.
CARE (v. Care, solicitude). CONCERN (v. Affair) and REGARD, from re and gard or ward, and the German währen, to see, signifying to look back upon or look at attentively, are nearly allied to each other in denoting the application of the mind to any object.

Care, as in the former article, is either coupled with active excrtions or is employed in the right doing of things; we take care to do a thing, or we bestow care upon a thing: concern and regard both lie in the mind, but in the former case the feelings as well as the thoughts, and in the latter case the thoughts only, have a part. Concern is particularly applied to that which awakens a painful interest in the mind, as to express or show a concern for another's troubles or distress; regard is applied to that which one values sufficiently to bestow one's thoughts upon it.

If a man can be supposed to make no provision for death in war, what can he that state that would have awakened him to the care of futurity?

Jornson.
I strove a thousand ways to lessen her care, and even forgot my own pain in a concern for hers.

Goldemita.
Slander meets no regard from noble minds; Only the hase believe what the base only utter.

Bellez.
Care and concern are also used to denote the object of caring or concerning, but rogard is only employed for the action of regarding. The care is that which requires care to be bestowed upon it; concorn is that in which one is concerned, or has a share or interest.
1 England and Ireland may flourish together. The world is large enough for ns both. Let it be onr care not to make ourselves too little for it.

Burke.
Dur country's welfare is our first concern.
Havard.

## CARE, CHARGE, MANAGEMENT.

CARE (v. Care, solicitude). CHARGE, in French charge, a burden, in Armoric
and Bretan carg, is probably connected with cargo and carry. It is figuratively employed in the sense of a burden. MANAGEMENT, in French ménagement, from ménager and mener, to lead, and the Latin manus, a band, signifies direction.

Care will include both charge and management; but, in the strict sense, it comprehends personal labor: charge involves responsibility: management includes regulation and order. A gardener has the care of a garden; a nurse has the charge of children ; a steward has the management of a farm: we must always act in order to take care; we must look in order to take charge; we must always think in order to manage. Care is employed generally in all matters, high and low, which require mental application or active exertion; charge in matters of trust and confidence; management in matters of business and experience: the servant has the care of the cattle; an instructor has the charge of youth; a clerk has the management of a business.
Care's a father's right-a pleasing right,
In which he labors with a home-felt joy.
Shitrex.
I can never believe that the repugnance with which Tiberius took the charge of the government upon him was wholly feigned.
cumberland.
The woman, to whom her hushand left the whole management of her lodgings, and who persisted in her purpose, soon found an opportunity to put it into execution. HawEeswonth.

## Careful, cautious, provident.

CAREFUL, or full of care, that is, hav. ing care, is the general term. CAUTIOUS, that is, having caution, and PROVIDENT, that is, literally foreseeing, are modes of the careful. To be cautious is to be careful in guarding against danger; to be provident is to be careful in preventing straits and difficulties. One is careful either in doing or in omitting to do: one is cautious in abstaining from doing, as to be careful in writing, or in the disposition of things; to be cautious not to offend, not to say anything.
The Churchman, when he rehearses it, may very justly say, This formulary of Athanasius so exactly expresses what 1 think of the Trinity, that I willingly adopt it as to me a proper declaration of my Christian faith; that faith by which I hope to live, if $I$ be but carefal to keep it whole and undefiled.

Naies.

Those in authority should be very sautious how they give in to such schemes as, under the plausible pretense of pruning our vine, and reforming thlngs in their own nature indifferent and alterable, would by degrees overturn our whole establisliment.

Randolph.
When the terms careful and caulious are applied to what is to be avoided, the former is used in ordinary cases, where the difficulty of avoiding the evil is not great; the latter on extraordinary occagions, where the danger of falling into the evil is great.
We must he careful, since we are called by the name of Christ, that we do not profnuc that holy name.

Comben.
So cautious do the compilers of our Liturgy appear to have been of adopting anything on false grounds, that it (the Athanasian Creed) is only admitted as what is "commonly called the Creed of St. Athanasius."

Nares.
The term careful is applied for the most part to present matters, but provident only to that which is future. One is careful of his money, or his books, but provident toward a time of need.

If writiugs are thus durable, and may pass from age to age thronghout the whole course of time, how careful should an author be of not committing anything to print that may corrupt posterity and poison the minds of men with vice and error:

Amdison.
That sense (common sense), like a wise architect, hath built up the fabric of states, but, like a providsnt proprietor, to preserve the structure from profanution and ruin, hath solemnly and forever consecrated the commonwealth and ull that offlciate in it.

Bunfe.
These words are all cmployed to denote a habit of the mind or a characteristic of the person with a similar distinction, except that caution, being properly a virtue of the occasion, becomes excessive if it be always employed, whether it be necessary or nut.

There's not that work
Of careful nature, or of cunning art, How strong, how benuteous, or how rich it be, But falls in time to ruin.

Suarspeate.
The strong report of Arthur's death has worse Yifeet on them than on the common sort: The vulgar only shrke their cautious heads, or whisper in the ear, wisely suspicions.

Cibaea.
Blest above men if he perceives and feels
The blessings he is heir to: Hel to whom His provident forefathers have bequeathed
In this fair district of their native isle
a free inheritance.
Cumbealiand.

## TO CARESS, FONDLE.

Boris these terms mark a species of codearment. CARESS, like cherish, and the French chérir and cher, comes from the Latin carus, dear, signifying the expression of a tender sentiment. FONDLE, from ford, is a frequentative verb, signifying to become fond of, or express one's fondness for.

We caress by words or actions; we fondle by actious only: caresses are not always unsuitable; but fondling, which is the extreme of caressing, is not less unfit for the one who receives than for the one who gives : animals caress each other, as the natural mode of indicating their affection; fondling, which is the expression of perverted feeling, is peculiar to human beings, who alone abuse the facnlties with which they are endowed.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { He, she knew, would intermix } \\
& \text { Grateful digressions and some high dispute } \\
& \text { With conjugal earesses. } \\
& \text { He strok'd her cheek to still her fear, } \\
& \text { And talk'd of sins en eavalier; } \\
& \text { Each time enjoin'd her penance mild, } \\
& \text { And fondled on her like a ehild. } \\
& \text { GARNAGE, SLAUGIITER, MASSACRE, } \\
& \text { BUTCHERY. }
\end{aligned}
$$

CARNAGE, from the Latin caro, carnis, flesh, implies properly a collection of dead flesh; that is, the reducing to the state of dead flesh. SLAUGHTER, from slay, is the act of taking away life. MAS. SACRE, in French massacre, comes from the Latin mactare, to kill for sacrifice. BUTCHERY, from to butcher, signifies the act of butchering: in French boucherie, from bouche, the mouth, it signifies the killing for food.

Carnage respects the number of dead bodies made; it may be said either of men or animals, but more commonly of the former: slaughter respects the act of taking away life, and the circumstances of the agent: massacre and butchery respect the circumstances of the objects who are the sufferers of the action; the latter three are said of human beings only. Carnage is the consequence of any impetuous attack from a powerful enemy; soldiers who get into a besieged town, or a wolf that breaks into a sheepfold, commonly make a dreadful carnage: slaugh$t e r$ is the consequence of warfare; in bat-
tles the slaughter will be very considerable where both parties defend themselves pertinaciously: a massacre is the consequence of secret and personal resentment between bodies of people; it is always a stain upon the nation by whom it is practised, as it cannot be effected without a violent breach of confideace, and a direct act of treachery; of this description was the massacre of the Danes by the original Britons: butchery is the general accom-: paniment of a massacre; defenceless wom-en and children are commonly butchered by the savage furies who are most active in this work of blood.
The carnage Juno from the skics survey'd, And, tonch'd with grief, bespoke the blue-cy'd maid.

Pope.
Yet. yet a little, and destructive alaughter Shail rage around, and mar this benuteous prospect.

Rowe.
Our groaning country bled at.every vein
When murders, rapes, and massacres prevail'd.
Rowe.
Let us be sacrificers, but not butchers.
Sṭarspeare.

## carriage, gait, walk.

CARRIAGE, from the verb to carry (v. To bear, carry), signifies the act of carrying in general, but here that of carrying the body. GAIT, from go, signifies the manner of going. WALK signifies the manner of walking.

Carriage is here the most general term; it respects the manner of carrying the body, whether in a state of motion or rest: gait is the mode of carrying the limbs and body whenever we move: walk is the manner of carrying the body when we move forward to walk. A person's carriage is somewhat natural to him; it is often an indication of character, but admits of great change by education; we may always distinguish a man as high or low, either in mind or station, by his carriage: gait is artificial; we may contract a certaingait by habit; the gait is therefore Jten taken for a bad habit of going, as when a person has a limping gait, or an unsteady gait: walk is less definite than either, as it is applicable to the ordinary movements of men; there is a good, a bad, or an indifferent walk; but it is not a matter of indifference which of these kinds of walk.we have; it is the great art of the dancing-master to give a good walk.

Upon her nearer approach to Hercules ahe atepped hefore the other lady, who came forward with a regular composed carriage. Addibon Lifeless her gait, and alow, with seeming pain She dragg'd her loit'ring limbs along the plain.

Shenstone.
In length of train descends her aweeping gown, And ly her graceful walk the queen of love is known.
dryden,

## Case, cause.

CASE, in Latin casus, from cado, to fall, cbance, bappen, signifies the thing falling out. CAUSE, in French cause, Latin cau$s a$, is probably changed from case, and the Latin casus.

The case is matter of fact; the cause is matter of question: a case involves circunostances and consequences; a cause involves reasons and arguments: a case is something to be learned; a cause is something to be decided. A case needs only to be stated; a cause must be defended: a cause may include cases, but not vice versa: in all causes that are to be tried, there are many legal cases that must be cited: whaever is interested in the cause of humanity will not be heedless of those cases of distress which are perpetually presenting themselves.
There is a double praise due to virtue when it is lodged in a body that seems to have been prepared for the reception of vice: in many such cases the soul and body do not seem to be fellows.

ADDIson.
I was myself an advocate so long, that I never mind what advocates say, but what they prove, and I can only examine proofs in causes brought before me.

Sir W. Jones.

## to cast, throw, hurl.

CAST, in Danish kaste, Armoric cace, to throw, W elsh kothi, to throw. THROW, in Saxon thrawan, is most probably a variation of thrust, in Latin trudo, Chaldee terad, to thrust repeatedly. HURL, like the word whirl, comes from the Saxou hirfiven, hiveorfian, German, etc., wirbel, Teutonic wirvel, Danish hervel, hvirvler, Latin verto, gyro, which are all derived from the Hebrew orgal, round, signifying to turn round.

These terms all express the idea of sending one object from another. To cast is often a negative act, to throw is always positive. We cast off clothes by simply ceasing to wear them, but we throw off clothes by removing them from the person with au actual effort. Hence
the word cast is most aptly applied when the manner of the action is left undefined, and the word throw when it is intended to bs expressly defined; as to cast anchor, which may either be done by simply letting it down, or by sending it forth from one with force: so to cast seed into the ground may be simply to let it fall in, or to cast anything into a box; but to throw anything into the sea, or to throw seed into the ground, implies a specific act done in a specific manner.

They cast the lots into the urn, and, having made supplication to the gods to direct them, they drew them out.

Pottee.
While thro' the neighb'ring flelds the sower stalks With measur'd atep, end liberal throws the grain Into the felthfinl bosom of the ground. Teomgon.

For the same reason casting is appliad to what is done by a process of nature, as animals cast their young, or cast their coats, or to what is acted on by unconsoious agents; as a ship or a person is cast on a shore.

For, ere the beech and elm heve oast their leaf Declduous, when now November dark
Ghecks vegetation in the torpid plant
Expos'd to his cold breath, the tesk begins.
Cowper.
Throwing is not merely an act of direct purpose, but frequently of a violent or offensive purpose; as to throw stones or dust at a person, to throw down the gauntlet.

0 war, tholl son of hell 1 Thom angry heavens do make their minister, Throw in the frozen hogoms of our part Hot coels of vengeance !

Shakapeare.
So to cast a glance may be simply to direct the eye to an object, but to throw an angry look is the result of anger.

## As far as I could cast my eyes

Upon the sea, something methought did rise Like hluish mists.

Dryden.
How far the little candle throws his beams, So ahines a good deed in a naughty world.

Shakgpeare.
The word cast, from the generality of its meaning, is properly employed in the higher style of writing, and in reference to higher subjects: when throw is used in respect to any but familiar subjects, it is taken figuratively; es to throw a veil over a matter, to throza light upon a subject.

Happy the mortal who has traced effects To their first cause, cast fear beneath his feet, And death, and roaring hell's voracious fires. Cowper, after Virgit
Of towering talents and terrestrial aima Mathinks I see, as thronon from her high aphere The glorious fiagments of a aoul immortal.

Youne.
When applied to similer objects, they preserve the same distinction; throwing requires a greater effort or more violence then casting, as to cast away prejudices, to throw off hebits, etc.
Yon see, air, that, in thia enlightened age, I an hold enongh to confess that, instead of casting away all our old prejudices, we cherish them to a very considerable degree.

Burke.
We should uncover our nakedneas by throwing off that Christian religion which has hitherto heen our houst and conifort.

Buber.
To hurl is a violent species of throwing, employed only on extreordinary occasions. Somatimes it denotes the vehemenoe of the agent:

## And oft the awain

On some, impetient, seizing, hurls them in.
Thomson.
but still oftener the magnitude of the object, or the extremity of the occasion. The giants, who made war against heav. en, are feigned to have been hurled by the thunderbolts of Jupiter down to the earth.

Wreath my head
With flaming meteors, load my arme with thunder,
Which, as I nimbly cut my cloudy way,
I'll hurl on this ungrateful earth.
Tats.

## CAST, TURN, DESCRIPTION.

CAST, from the verb to cast (v. To cast), signifies that which is cast, and here, by an extension of the sense, the form in wbich it is cast. TURN, from the verb to turn, signifies also the act of turning, or the manner of being turned. DESCRIPTION signifies the act of describ. ing, or the thing which is to be described.

What is cast is artificiel; what turns is natural: the former is the act of some foreign agent ; the latter is the act of the subject itself: bence cast, as applicable to persons, respects that which they are made by circumstances; turn that which they are by themselves: thus there are religious casts in India, that is, men cast in a certain form of religion; and men of a particular moral cast, that is, such
as are cast in a particular mould as respects their thinking and acting: so in like manner men of a particular turn; that is, as respects their inclinations and tastes.

My mind is of such a particulsr cast, that the falling of a shower of rain, or tbe whistling of the wind at such a time (the night season), is apt to fill my thoughts with something awful and solemn.

Addison.
There is a very odd turn of thought required for this sort of writing (the fairy way of writing, as Dryden calls it); and it is impossible for a poet to succeed in it who has not a particular cast of fancy.

Addison.
The cast is that which marks a man to others; the turn is that which may be known only to a man's self; the description is that by which he is described or made known to otbers.

Christian statesmen think that those do not believe Christianity who do not care it should be preached to the poor. Brit, as they know that charity is not confined to any deseription, they are not deprived of a due and anxious sensation of pity to the distresses of the miscrable great.

Buree.

## CAUSE, REASON, MOTIVE.

CAUSE (v. Case) is supposed to signify originally the same as case; it means, however, now, by distinction, the case or thing happening before another as its cause. REASON, in French raison, Latin ratio, from ratus, participle of reor, to think, signifies the thing thought, estimated, or valued in the mind. MOTIVE, in French motif, from the Latin motus, participle of moveo, to move, signifies the thing that brings into action.

Cause respects the order and connection of things; reason the movements and operations of the mind; motives the movements of the mind and body. Cause is properly the generic term; reason and motive are specific: every reason or motive is a cause, but every cause is not a treason or motivc. Cause is said of all inanimate objects; reason and motive of rational agents: wbatever happens in the world happens from some cause mediate or immediate; the primary or first cause of all is God: whatever opinions men hold, they ought to be able to assign a substantial reason for them; and for whatever they do, they ought to have a bufficient motive,

The wise and learned among the very heathen themselves have all acknowledged some first causs, whereupon originally the being of all things dependeth: neither have they otluerwise spoken of that cause than as an agent which, knowing what and why it worketh, observeth in working an exact law.

Ноокен.
If we commemorate any mystery of our redemption or article of our faith, we ought to confirm our belief of it by considering all those rea. sons upon which it is built.

Nelson.
As the cause gives birth to the effect, so does the reason give birth to the conclusion, and the motive gives birth to the action. Between cause and effect there is a necessary connection: whatever in the natural world is capable of giving birth to another thing is an adequate cause; but in the moral world there is not a necessary connection between reasons and their results, or motives and their actions; the state of the agent's mind is not always such as to be acted upon according to the nature of things: every adequate reason will not he followed by its natural conclusion, for every man will not believe who has reasons to believe, nor yield to the reasons that would lead to a right belief; and every motive will not be accompanied with its corresponding action, for every man will not act who has a motive for acting, nor act in the manner in which his motives ought to dictate.

Cut off the causes, and the effects will cease, And all the moving madness fall to peace.

Dayden.
Good reasons must of force give way to better.
Shamspeage.
Every principle that is a motive to good actions ought to be encouraged.

ADDISON.

## to CaUSE, OCCASION, CREATE.

To CAUSE, from the substantive causs (v. Case), naturally signifies to be the cause of. OCCASION, from the noun occasion, signifies to be the occasion of. CREATE, in Latin creatus, participle of creo, comes from the Greek $\kappa \rho \varepsilon \omega$, to command, and кєрaц $\omega$, to perform.

What is caused seems to follow naturally; what is occasioned follows incidentally, or wbat occasions may be incidental, but necessary: what is created receives its existence arbitrarily. A wound causes pain; accidents occasion delay; busy. bodies create mischief. The misfortunes of children cause great affliction to their
parents; business occasions a person's late attendance at a place; disputes and misunderstandings create animosity and ill-will. The cause of a person's misfortunes may often be traced to his own misconduct: the improper behavior of one person may occasion another to ask for an explanation: jealousies are createal in the minds of relatives by an unnecessary reserve and distance.

## Scarcely an ill to human life belongs

But what our follies cause, or mutual wrongs. Jenyns.
Often have the terrors of conscience occasionsd inward paroxysms, or violent agitations of the mind.

Blain.
As long as the powers or abilities which are ascribed to others are exerted in a sphere of action remote from ours, and not hrought into comnpetition with talents of the same kind to which we have pretensions, they create no jealonsy.

Blair,

## CAUTIOUS, WARY, CIRCUMSPECT.

OAUTIOUS (v. Careful), and WARY, from beware, bave both the original meaning of guarding against: CIRCUMSPECT, from circumspicio, to look about, significs literally looking on all sides. The idea of using great care for the preventing of evil is common to these terms, but they vary in the degrec and object of the care. Cautious expresses loss than wary: we must be cautious on all occasions where there is danger, but we must be wary where there is great danger. A tradosman must be cautious in his dealings with all men, but he must be wary when he has to deal with designing men.

Flush'd by the spirit of the genial year,
Be greatly cautious of your sliding hearts.
TMOMSON.
Let not that wary cantion, which is the fruit of experience, degenerate into craft. Brain.

Cautious and wary are used in reference to practical matters, or the common matters of business, where the senses or bodily powers are more exercised than the mind: circumspect is used in reference to matters of theory or contemplation, when the mind is principally employed. A traveller must be cautious in passing along a road that is not familiar to him ; he must be wary in passing over slippery and dangerous places. A man must be circumspect when he transacts
business of particular importance and delicacy. Hence it is that cautious and wary may be said of the brute creation; circumspect only of rational beings.
With cautious step he nearer drew,
By the thick shade conceal'd from view. Gax.
Tis not from cocks thy fate I dread, But let thy ever-wory tread Avoid yon well.

Gay
No pious mari can be so circumspect in the care of his conscience as the covetous man is in, that of his pocket.

Steele.

## to Cease, leave off, discontinue.

CEASE, in French cesser, Latin cesso, from cessi, perfect of cedo, to yicld, signifies to give up, or put an end to. LEAVE is io Saxon helifan, to remain, in Swed. ish lifwa, low German leven, with which the Latin linquo, liqui, Greek $\lambda_{\varepsilon \iota \pi} \omega$, to leave, are connected. DISCONTINUE, with the privative dis, expresses the opposite of contrnue.

To cease is neuter; to leave off and discontinue are active: we cease from doing a tbing; we leave off or discontinue a thing. Cease is used either for particu lar actions or general habits: leave off more usually and properly for particular actions; discontinue for general habits. A restless spoiled child never ceases crying until it has obtained what it wants; it is a mark of impatience not to cease lamenting when one is in pain. A laborer leaves off his work at any given bour. A delicate person discontinues his visits when they are found not to be agreeable. It should be our first endeavor to cease to do evil. It is never good to leave off working while there is anything to do, and time to do it in. The discontinuing a good practice without adequate grounds evinces great instability of character.

A successful anthor is equally in danger of the diminntion of his fame, whether he continnes or ceraes to write.

Johncon.
As barsh and irregular sonnd is not harmony, so neither is banging a cushion orstory ; therefore, in my humble opinion, a certain divine of the first order would do well to leave this off.

Swift
I would cheerfully have borne the whole ex. pense of it, if my private establishment of native readers and writers, which I cannot with convenience discontinue at present, did not require more than half of the monthly expense which ths completion of a Digest would in my opinion demand.

Sin W. Jones.

TO CELEBRATE, COMMEMORATE.
CELEBRATE, in Latin celebratus, participle of celebro, from celebris, signifies to make celebrated, COMMEMORATE, in Latin commemoratus, participle of com memoro, compounded of com or cum and memoro, to keep in mind, siguifies to keep in the memory of a number.

Comenorate is a species of celebraing; we always commemorate when we selebrate, but not vice vera. Everything is celebrated which is distinguished by any marks of attention, without regard to the time of the event, whether present or past; but nothing is commemoratcd but what has been past. A marriage or a birthday is celebrated; the anniversary of any national event is commemorated. Celebrating is not limited to any species of events or circumstances; whatever interests any number of persons is celebrated: commemarating is confined to whatever is thought of sufficient importance to be borne in mind, whether of a public or private nature. The election of a favorite member is celebrated by those who have contributed to his success: a remarkable preservation, whether national or individual, sometimes demands some signal act of commemoration.

The Olympian games were celebrated once in flve years.

Potter.
These great works she was not backward to commenorate. Most of her erections bore, mutatis mutumdir, the same inscription; and perhaps there is 110 English title so frequently and so copiously recorded in stone and marble as the Countess of Pembroke.

Whitaker.
Celebrating is a festive as well as social act; it may be sometimes serious, but it is mostly mingled with more or less of gayety and mirth: commemorating is a solemn act; it may be sometimes iestive and social, but it is always mingled with what is serious, and may be altogether solitary; it is suited to the ocsasion, and calculated to revive in the mind suitable impressions of what is past. The birthday of our sovereign is always celebrated by his people with such marks of honor and congratulation as are due from subjects to a prince: the providential escape of our nation from destruction by the Gunpowder Plot is annually commemorated by a public act
of devotion, as also by popular demon strations of joy. The Jews celebrate their feast of the Passover: as Christians, we commemorate the sufferings and death of our Saviour, by partaking of the Lord's Supper.

It faded at the crowing of the cock; Some say, that ever 'gainst that season comes, Wherein onr Savionr's birth is celebrated, The bird of dawning singeth all night long.

Shakspeare,
Though the virtue of the legal sacrifice was now ceased, yet the reason why that time was appointed for it still continned, there being as much reason why Christ's death should be commemoratbd by our Christian sacrifice, as there was that it should be foreshown and typified by the legal, about the time that it happened.

Beveridge.

## CELESTIAL, HEAVENLY.

CELESTIAL and HEAVENLY derive their difference in signification from their different origin : they both literally im. ply belonging to heaven; but the former, from the Latin coelum, signifies belonging to the heaven of heathens; the latter, which has its origin among believers in the true God, has acquired a superior sense, in regard to heaven as the habitation of the Almighty. This distinction is pretty faithfully observed in their application : celestial is applied mostly in the natural sense of the heavens; heavenly is employed more commonly in a spiritual sense. Hence we speak of the celestial globe as distinguished from the terrestrial; of the celestial bodies; of Olympus, as the celestial abode of Jupiter; of the celestial deities.

Twice warn'd by the colestial messenger, The pions prince arose, with hasty fear.

Dhyden.
Unhappy son ! (fair Thetis thus replies, While tears celestial trickle from her eyes).

Pops.
But, on the other hand, of the heavenly habitation, of heaverly joys or bliss, of heavenly spirits, and the like.

But now he seiz'd Briseis' heav'nly charms, And of my valor's prize defrauds my arms.

Popz.
Thus having said, the hero bound his brows
With leafy branches, then perform'd his vows; Adoring first the genins of the place,
Then Earth, the mother of the heavenly race.
Dryden.

TO CENSURE, ANIMADVERT, CRITICISE.
CENSURE, v. To accuse. ANIMADVERT, $v$. Animadversion. CRITICISE, v. Animadversion.

To censure expresses less than to animadvert or criticise; one may always censure when one animadverts or criticises. To censure and animadvert are both personal, the one direct, the other indirect; criticism is directed to things, and not to persona only. Censuring consists in finding some fault, real or supposed: it refers mostly to the conduct of individuals. Animadvert consists in suggesting aome error or impropricty; it refers mostly to matters of opinion and diapute; eriticism consiats in miautely examining the intrinaic characteristics and appreciating the merits of each individually or the whole collectively; it refers to matters of science and learning. To censure requires no more than simple assertion; ita justice or propriety often rests on the authority of the individual: animadversions require to be accompanied with reasons; those who animadvert on the praceedings or opiniona of others must state some grounds for their objections. Criticism is altogether argumentative and illnstrative; it takes nothing for granted, it analyzes and decomposes, it compares and combines, it asserts and supports the assertions. The office of the censur$e r$ is the easiest and least honorable of the three; it may be assumed by ignorance and impertinence, it may be performed for the purpose of indulging an angry or imperious temper. The task of animadverting is delicate; it may be resorted to for the indulgence of an overweening self-conceit. The office of a critic is both arduous and honorable; it cannot be filled by any one incompetent for the charge without exposing his arrogance and folly to merited contempt.
Many an anthor has been dejected at the censure of one whom he has looked upon as an idiot.

AdDison.
1 wish, sir, you would do us the favor to animadvert frequently upon the false taste the town is in, with relation to the plays as well as operas.

Steele.
It is ridiculous for any man to criticise on the works of another who has not distinguished himself by his own performances.

Addison.

TO CENSURE, CARP, CAVIL.
CENSURE, v. To aecuse. CARP, in Latin carpo, signifies to pluck. CAVIL, in French caviller, Latin cavillor, from cavilla, a taunt, and cavus, hollow, signifies to be unsound or uesubstantial in speech.

To censure respects positive errors; to carp and cavil have regard to what is trivial or imaginary: the former is employed for errors in persons; the latter for supposed defects in things. Censures are frequently necessary from those who have the authority to use them; a good father will censure his children when their conduct is censurable. Carping and cavilling are resorted to only to indulge ill-nature or self-conceit: whoever owes another a grudge will be most diapoaed to carp at all he does, in order to lessen him in the eateem of others: those who contend more for victory than truth will be apt to cavil when they are at a loss for fair argument: party politicians carp at the measures of administration; infidela cavil at the evidences of Christianity, because they are determined to disbelieve.
From a consciousness of his own integrity, a
man assumes force enough to despise the little
censuros of ignorance and malice. Budgel.
It is always thus with pedarts ; they will ever be carping it a gentleman or man of honor puts pen to paper.

Steele.
Envy and cavil are the natural fruits of laziness and ignorance, which was probably the resson that in the heathen mythology Momins is said to be the son of Nox and Sommus, of darkness and slece.

ADDISON.
CERTAIN, SURE, SECURE.
CERTAIN, in French certain, Latin certus, comea from cerno, to perceive, because what we see or perceive ia supposed to be put beyond doubt. SURE and SECURE are variations of the aame word, in French sur, German sicher, low German seker, etc., Latin securus; this is compounded of se (sine), a part, and cura, sigaifylng without care, requiring no care.

Certain and sure have regard to a person's convictions; secure to his interests or condition: one is certain from actual knowledge or from a belief in others; one is stre from a reliance upon othera; one ia secure when free from danger.

We can he certain of nothing future but death; we may be sure that God will fulfil his promises in his own way; we may be secure against any loss or mischief if we use proper precautions.
He wrote them with the certainty of their being opposed, sifted, examined, and reviled.

Goznsmite.
It is very certain that a man of sound reason cannot forbear cloaing with religion upon an impartial examination of it.

ADdison.
When tbese everlasting doora are thrown open, we may be sure that the pleasures and beanties of this place will inflnitely transcend our present hopes and expectations, and that the glorious appearance of the throne of God will rise infinitely beyond whatever we are able to conccive of it.

Addison.
I look upon our situation as perfectly secure; they pay us great respect, and take the utmost pains that we shall not be imposed upon.

BRydone.
In respect to things the distinction is similar: facts, principles, and rules are certain, which are certainly known and admitted; rules, methods, guides, etc., are sure, which guard against error, and may be depended upon; a place may be secure which scrves to secure or preserve with certainty from mischief or danger.

If the barriers of law should be broken down upon ideas of convenience, even of public convenience, we shall no longer have anything certain among us.

Although there is nothing more lovely than virtue, and the practice of it is the surest way to solid happiness, even in this life, yet titlea, estates, and fantastical pleasures are more ardently sought after by most men than the natural gratifications of a reasonable mind.

ADD1son.
An honorable and fair profit is the best security against avarice and rapacity. Burke.

## CESSATION, STOP, REST, INTERMISSION.

CESSATION, from the verb to cease, marks the condition of leaving off. STOP, from to stop, marks that of being stopped or prevented from going on. REST, from to rest, marks the state of being quiet: and INTERMISSION, from intermit, marks that of ceasing occasionally.

To cease respects the course of things; Whatever does not go on has ceased; things cease of themselves: stop respects somc external action or influence; nothing stops but what is supposed to be stopped or bindered by another: rest is a
species of cessation that regards labor or exertion; whatever does not move or ex. ert itself is at rest: intermission is a species of cessation only for a time or at certain intervals. That which ceases or stofs is supposed to be at an end; rest or intermission supposes a renewal. A cessation of bostilities is at all times desirable: to put a stop to evil practices is sometimes the most difficult and dangerous of all undertakings: rest after fatigue is indispensahle, for labor without intermission exhausts the frame. The rain ceases, a person or a ball stops running, the laborer rests from his toil, a fever is intermittent. There is nothing in the world which does not cease to exist at one period or another: death stops every one sooner or later in his career: whoever is vexed with the cares of getting riches will find no rest for his mind or body; he will labor withont intermission oftentimes only to heap troubles on himself.
Who then would court the pomp of guilty power, When the mind sickens at the weary show, And fies to temporary death for ease?
When half our life's cessation of onr being.
STEELE.
In all those motinns and operations which are incessantly going on throughout nature there ia no $s t o p$ nor interruption. Blair.

The refreahing rest and peaceful night are tne portion of him only who lies down weary with honest labor.

Johnson.
Whether the time of intermission is spent in company or in solitude, in necessary business or involuntary levities, the understanding is equally abstracted from the object of inquiry. Jorrnson.

## Chain, fetter, Band, shackle.

CHAIN, in French chaine, Latin catena, probably contracted from captena and ca. pio, signifies that which takes or bolds. FETTER, in German fessel, comes from fassen, to lay hold of. BAND, from bind, signifies that which binds. SHACKLE, in Saxon scacul, signifies that which makes a creature shake or move irregularly by confining the legs.

All these terms designate the instrument by which animals or men are confined. Chain is general and indefinite; all the rest are species of chains: but there are many chains which do not come under the other names; a chain is indefinite as to its make; it is made generally of iron rings, but of different sizes and
shapes: fetters are larger, they consist of many stout chains: bands are in general anything which confines the body or the limbs; they may he either chains or even cords: shackle is thst species of chain which goes on the legs to confine them; malefactors of the worst order have fet ters on different parts of their bodies, and hackles on their legs.

These terms may all be used figuratively. The substantive chain is applied generally to whstever confines like a chain, and the verb to chain signifies to confine as with a chain: thus the mind is chained to rules, according to the opinions of the freethinkers, when men adhere atrictly to rule and order: the noun fetter is seldom used except in the proper sense, but the verb to fetter signifies to control or prevent the proper exercise of the mind, as to be fettered by systems. Band in the figurative sense is applied, particularly in poetry, to everything which is supposed to serve the purpose of a band; thus love is said to have its silken bands. Shackle, whether ss a substantive or a verb, retains the idea of impeding the progress of a person, not in his body only, but slso in his mind and in his moral conduct; thus a man who commences life with a borrowed capital is shackled in his commercial concerns by the interest he has to pay, and the obligations he bas to discharge.
Almighty wisdom never acts in vain, Nor shall the sonl, on which it has bestow'd Such powers, e'er perish like an earthly clod: But purg'd at length from foul corruption's stain, Freed from her prison, and nnbonnd her chain, She shall her native strength and native skies regain.

Jenyns.
Legislatures have no rules to bind them but the great principles of justice and equity. These they are bound to obey and follow; and rather to enlarge and enlighten law by the liberality of legislative reason, than to fetter their higher capacity by the narrow constructions of subordinate artificial justice.

Burke.
Break his bands of sleep asunder, And rouse him like a rattling peal of thunder. Dryden.
It is the freedom of the spirit that gives worth and life to the performance. But a servant commonly is less free in mind than condition; his very will seems to be in bonds and shackles.

Socte.
CHANCE, FORTUNE, TATE.
CHANCE ( $v$. Accident) is herc considered ss the cause of what falls out. FORT.

UNE, in French fortune, Latin fortuna, from fors, chance. FATE, in Latin fatum, from fatum, participle of for, to spesk or decree, signifies thst which is decreed, or the power of decreeing.

These terms have served at all times as cloaks for human ignorance; snd before mankind were favored by the light of Divine Revelation they had an imag. inary importance, which has now happily vanished. Believers in Divine Providence no longer conceive the events of the world ss left to themselves, or as under the control of any unintelligent or unconscious agent, but ascribe the whole to an overruling mind, which, though invisible to the bodily eye, is clearly to be traced by the intellectual eye wherever we turn ourselves. In conformity, however, to the preconceived notions attached to these words, we now employ them in regard to the agency of secondary causes. But how far a Christian may use them, without disparagement to the majesty of the Divine Being, it is not so much my business to inquire, as to define their ordinary acceptstion. In this ordinsry sensc chance is the generic, fortune and fate are specific terms: chance applies to all things, personsl or otherwise; fortune snd fate are mostly said of that which is personal. Chance neither forms, orders, nor designs: neither knowledge nor intention is attributed to it; its events are uncertain and vsriable: fortune forms plans snd designs, but without choice; we attribute to it an intention without discernment; it is said to be blind: fate forms plans and chains of causes; intention, knowledge, and power are attributed to it; its views are fixed, its results decisive. A person goes as chance directs bim when he has no express object to determine his choice one way or other; bis fortune favors him if without any expectstion he gets the thing he wishes; his fate wills it if be reaches the desired point contrary to what he intended. Men's success in their undertakings depends oftener on chance than on their ability; we are ever ready to sscribe to ourselves what we owe to our good fortune; it is the fate of some men to fail in everytbing they undertake. When speaking of trivial matters this language is unquestionably inpocent ${ }_{n}$ and any objection to their use
must spring from an over-scrupulious conscience. If I suffier my horse to direct me in the road I take to London, I may fairly attribnte it to chance if I take the right instead of the left; and if in consequence I meet with an agreeable companion by the way, I shall not hesitate to call it my good fortune; and if, in spite of any previous intention to the contrary, I should be led to take the same road repeatedly, and as often meet with an agreeable companion, I sball immediately say that it is my fate to meet with an agreeable companion whenever I go to London.

Some there are who utterly proscribe the name of chance as a word of impious and profate signification: and indeed if it be taken by ns in that sense in which it was used by the heathens, so as to make anything casual in respect of God biniself, their exception ought to be admitted. But to say a thing is a chance or casmalty as it relates to second canses is not profaneness, but a great truth.

South.
Chance aids their daring with unhop'd success.
Dryden.
We should learn that none but intellectual possessions are what we can properly call our own. All things from without are but borrowed. What Fortune gives us is not ours, and whatever she gives she can take away.

Steele.
Since fute divides then, since I must lose thee, For pity's sake, for love's, oh ! suffer me, Thus languishitig, thus dying, to approach thee, And sigh my last adieu upon thy bosom. Trapip.

## Chance, probabillity.

CHANCE, v. Accident, chance. PROBABILITY, in French probabilitée, Latiò probabilitas, from probabilis and probo, to prove, signifies the quality of being able to be proved or made good.

These terms are both employed in forming an estimate of future events; but the chance is either for or against, the probability is always for a thing. Chance is but a degree of probability; there may in this latter case be a chance where there is no probability. A chance affords a possibility; many chances are requisite to constitute a probability. What has been once may, under similar circumstances, be again; for that there is a chance; what has fallen to one man may fall to another; so far he has a chance in his iavor; but in all the chances of life there will be no probability of success where a man does not unite iadustry with integ. rity. Chance cannot be calculated upon; it is apt to produce disappointment; prob.
ability justifies hope; it is sanctioned by experience.
Thus equal deaths are dealt with equal chance, By turn's they quit their ground, by turns advance.

Detden.
"There never appear,"'says Swift, " more thar five or six men of genins in an age, but if they were nnited, the world could not stand before them." It is happy, therefore, for mankind that of this union there is no probubutity. Jousson.

## CHANCE, HAZARD.

CHANCE, $v$ : Aceident, chance. HAZ. ARD comes from the Oriental zar and tzar, signifying anything bearing an impression, particularly the dice used in chance games, called by the Italians zara, and by the Spaniards $\alpha z a r$.

Botlo these terms are employed to mark the course of future events, which is not discernible by the human eye. With the Deity there is neither chance nor hazard; his plans are the result of omniscience: but the designs and actions of men are all dependent on chance or hazard. Ohance thay be favorable or unfavorable, more commonly the former: hazard is always unfavorable; it is properly a species of chance. There is a chance either of gaining of losing: there is a hazard of losing. In most speenlations the chance of succeeding scarcely outweighs the hazard of losing.
Against ill chances men are ever merry, But heaviness foreruns the good event.

## Shakgpeare.

Thongh wit and learning are certain and habitnal perfections of the mind, yet the declaration of them, which alone brings the repnte, is subject to a thousand hazards.

SoUTH,

## TO CHANGE, ALTER, VARY.

CHANGE, in French changer, is probably detived from the middle Latin canbio, to exchange, signifying to take one thing for another. ALTER, from the Latin alter, another, signifies to make a thing otherwise. VARY, in Latin vario, to make various, comes in all probability from varus, a spot or speckle, which destroys unlformity of appearance in any surface.

We change a thing by putting anotber in its place; we alter a thing by making it different from what it was before; we vary it by altering it in different manners and at different times. We change our clothes whenever we put on others: the
tailor alters clothes which are found not to fit; and he varies the fashion of making them whenever he makes new. A man changes his habits, alters his conduct, and varits his manner of speaking and thinking, according to circumstances. A thing is changed without altering its kind; it is allered without destroying its identity ; and it is varied without destroying the similarity. We change our habitation, but it still remains a habitation; we alter our house, but it still remains the same house; we vary the manner of painting and decoration, but it may strongly resemble the manuer in which it has been before executed.

The general remedy of those who are nneasy without knowing the cause is change of place.

JOHNSON.
All things are but alter'd, nothing dies:
And here and there th' nnbodied spirit flies : By time, or force, or sickness, dispossess'd, And lodges, where it lights, in man or beast.

DREDEN.
In every work of the imagination, the disposition of parts, the insertion of incidents, and use of decorations, may be varied a thousand ways with equal propriety.

Johnson.

## TO CHANGE, EXCHANGE, BARTER, substitute.

CHANGE, v. To change, alter. EXCHANGE is compounded of $e$ or $e x$ and change, signifying to change in the place of another. BARTER is supposed to come from the French barater, a sea-term for indemnification, and also for circumvention; hence it has dorived the meaning of a mercenary exchange. SUBSTITUTE, in French substitut, Latin substitutus, from sub and statuo, signifies to place one thing in the room of another.

The idea of putting one person or thing in the place of another is common to all these terms, which varies in the manner and the object. Change is the generic, the rest are specific terms: whatever s exchanged, bartered, or substituted, is changed, but not vice versa. To change in respect to persons is to take one for another, without regard to whether they are alike or different, as a king changes his ministers; any person may change his servants: to exchange is to take one person in return for another who is in like condition, as prisoners are exchanged in time of war.
"Ah, sir," said the dervise, " house that changes its inhabitants so often, snd receives such a perpetnal succession of guests, is not a palace, but a caravansary."

Spectatoa.
Remain thou here
While sense can keep it on ! And sweetest, fairest,
As I my poor self did exchange for yon
To your so infinite loss, so in our triffes
I still do win. For my sake wear this.
Sharspeare.
In respect to things, to change is to take anything new or fresh, whether alike or different. Clothes may be changed, or books may be changed, or things may be changed for others quite different; to exchange is to take one thing for another, that is, eitber of the same kind or equiv. alent in value, as to exchange one commodity for another, one house, or one piece of land, for another. To change may often be the result of caprice, but to exchange is always an act either of diseretion or necessity.
I can add colors to the chameleon, Change shapes with Proteus for advantage.

Shakspeare.
Our English merchant converts the tin of his own conntry into gold, and eachuanges its wool for rubies.

Aodison.
To barter is a species of exchanging, namely, the giving of any commodity for others of the same or a different kind; it is confined properly to what passes by way of commerce, as, in dealing with savages, to barter toys or knives for provisions.
Men must have made some considerable progress toward civilization before they acquired the idea of property, so as to be acquainted with the most simple of all contracts, that of exclanging by barter one rude eommodity for another.

Roblertson.
To substitute is to put one person in the place of another for the purpose of doing any service or filling any office, as to substitute one for another who has been drawn for the militia.
Bard. But who is it like should lead his forces hither?
Hast. Phe Duke of Lancaster and Westmoreland:
Against the Welsh himself and Harry Monmouth : But who is substituted 'gainst the French I have no eertain notice.

Shakspeare.
In the moral application these terms bear the same analogy to each other, with this difference, that the word barter is taken in a bad sense. A person

## CHANGEABLE

changes his opinions; but a proneness to such changes evinces a want of firmness in the character, A good king at his death exchanges a temporal for an eternal crown. The mercenary trader barters his conscience for paltry pelf. Men of dogmatical tempers substitute assertion for proof, and abuse for argument.

Those who beyond sea go will sadly find They change their climate only, not their mind. Creech.
If the great end of being can be lost, And thus perverted to the wurst uf crimes, Let us shake off deprav'd humanity, Exchange conditions with the savage brute, And for his blameless instinct barter reason.

Havard.
Let never insulted beauty admit a second time into her presence the wretch who has once attompted to ridicule religion, and to subatitute other aids to human frailty. Hawkesworth.

## CHANGE, VARIATION, VICISSITUDE.

CHANGE, v. To change, alter. VARIATION, v. To change, alter. VICISSITUDE, in French vicissitude, Latin vicissitudo, from vicissim, by turns, signifies changing alternately.

Change is, both to vicissitude and variation, as the genus to the species. Every variation or vicissitude is a change, but every change is not a variation or vicissitude. Change consists simply in ceasing to be the same: variation consists in being different at different times; vicissitude in being alternately or reciprocally different and the same. All created things are liable to change; old things pass away, all things become new : the humors of men, like the elements, are exposed to perpetual variations: human affairs, like the seasons, are subject to frequent vicissitudes. Changes in societies or families are seldom attended with any good effect. Variations in the state of the atmosphere are indicated by the barometer or thermometer. Vicissitudes of a painful nature are less dangerous than those which elevate men to an unusual state of grandeur. By the former they are brought to a scnse of themselves; by the latter they are carried beyond themselves.

[^22]beart, in a small tube made after the manner of a weather-glass; but that, instead of acquainting him with the variations of the atmosphere, it showed him the qualities of those persons who entered the room where it stood.

Addison.
Vicisitude wheels round the motley crowd:
The rich grow poor, the poor become purse-prond.

## Changeable, mutable, Variable, inconstant, Fickle, Versatile.

CHANGEABLE, ready to change, $v$. To changc, alter. MU'TABLE, from the Latin muto, to change, is the same as changeable. VARIABLE, liable to vary, v. To change. INCONSTANT, compounded of the privative in and constant, in Latin constans or con and sto, to stand together or remain the same, signifies not remaining the same for any long continuance. FICKLE is most probably changed from the Latin facilis, easy. VERSATILE, in Latin versatilis, from verto, to turn; signifies easy to be turned.

Changeable is said of persons or things; mutable is said of things only: human beings are changeable, buman affairs are mutable.

I have no taste
Of popular applanse, the noisy praise
Of giddy crowds as changeable as the winds.
Driden.
Witl respect to the other alterations which the Saxon language appears to have undergone, we have no need to inquire minutely how far they have procceded from the natural mutability of human speech, especially among an unlearned people.

TYBWHITT,
Changeable respeets the sentiments and opinions of the mind; variable, the state of the feelings; inconstant, the affections; fickle, the inclinations and attachments; versatile, the application of the talents. A changeable person rejects what he has once embraced in order to take up something new; a variable person likes and dislikes alternately the same thing; an inconstant person likes nothing long; a fickle person likes many things successively or at the same time; a versatile person has a talent for whatever he likes. Changeableness arises from a want of fixed principles; variableness from a predominance of humor ; inconstancy from a selfish and unfeeling temper; fickleness from a lightness of mind; versatility from a flexibility of mind. Men are the most changeable and inconstant; women are

## CHARM

the most variable and fickle: the former offend from an indifference for objects in general, or a diminished attachment for any object in particular; the latter from an excessive warmth of feeling that is easily biassed, and ready to seize new objects. People who are shangeable in their views and plans are particularly unfit for the government of a state; those who are variable in their humors are unsuitable as masters; people of an inconstant character ought to be shunned as lovers; those of a fickle disposition ought not to be chosen as friends.

With God there is no vurialleners, with man there is no stability. Hence he is changeable in his designs, flekle in his friendships, fluctuating io his whole eharacter.

Blala.
The dew, the blossoms of the tree,
With charms inconstunt shine;
Their charms were his, but, woe to me,
Their constaney was mine. Golosmith.
Changeable, variable, inconstant, and fickle, as applied to persons, are taken in the bad sense; but versatility is a natural gift, which may be employed advantageously.

Lord North was a man of admirable parts ; of general knowledge, of a ver'sutile understanding, fitted for every sort of business, of influite wit and pleasantry, and of a delightful tenper.
bune.

## CHARACTER, LETTER.

CHARACTER comes from the Greek $\chi^{\alpha} \alpha^{\alpha} \pi \eta \rho$, signifying an impression or mark, from $\chi a \rho a \sigma \sigma \omega$, to imprint or stamp. LETTER, in French lettre, Latin litera, is probably contracted from legitera, signifying what is lcgible.

Character is to letter as the genus to the species: every letter is a character; but every character is not a letter. Character is any written or printed mark that serves to designate something; a letter is a species of character which is the constituent part of a word. Short-hand and hieroglyphics consist of characters, but not of letters. Character is employed figuratively, but letter is not. A grateful person has the favors which are conferred upon him written in indelible characters upon his heart.

A disdainful, a subtle, and a suspicions temper is displayed in charcucters that are almost universally understood.

Haweegwonta.

## CHARACTER, REPUTATION.

From the natural sense of a stamp or mark, CHARACTER ( $v$. Character, letter) is figuratively employed for the moral mark which distinguishes one man from another. REPUTATION, from the French réputer, Latin reputo, to think, signifies what is thought of a person.

Character lies in the man; it is the mark of what he is; it shows itself on all occasions: reputation depends upon others; it is what they think of him. A character is given particularly: a reputation is formed generally. Individuals give a character of another from personal knowledge: public opinion constitutes the reputation. Character has always some foundation; it is a positive description of something: reputation has more of conjecture in it; its source is bearsay. It is possible for a man to have a fair reputation who has not in reality a good character; although men of really good character are not likely to have a bad reputation.
Let a man think what multitudes of those among whom he dwells are totally ignorant of his name and character; how many inagine themselves too much occupied with their own wants and pursnits to pay him the least attention; and where his seputation is in any degree spread, how often it has been attacked, and how many rivals are daily rising to abate it. Blarr.

TO CHARM, ENCHANT, FASCINATE, ENRAPTURE, CAPTIVATE.
CHARM, v. Attractions. ENCHANT is compounded of en and chant, signifying to act upon as by the power of chanting or music. FASCINATE, in Latin fascino, Greek $\beta$ arrat $\nu \omega$, signified originally among the ancients a species of witchcraft, performed by the eyes or the tongue. ENRAPTURE, compounded of en and rapture, signifies to put into a rapture: and rapture, from the Latin rapio, to seize or carry away, signifies the state of being carried away; whence to enrapture signifies to put into that state. CAPTIVATE, in Latin captivatus, participle of captivo, from capio, to take, signifies to take, as it were, prisoner.

To charm expresses a less powerful effect than to enchant; a charm is simply a magical verse used by magicians and sorcerers; incantation or enchantment
is the use not only of verses, but of any mysterious ceremonies, to produce a given effect. To charm and enchant in this sense denote an operation by means of words or motions; to fascinate denotes an operation by means of the eyes or tongue: the two former are less powerful aets than the latter: the superstitious have always had recourse to charms or enchantments, for the purpose of allaying the passions of love or hatred; the Greeks believed that the malignant influence passed by fascination from the eyes or tongues of envious persons, which infected the ambient air, and through that medium penetrated and corrupted the bodies of animals and other things. Charms and enchantments are performed by persons; fascinations are performed by animals: the former have always some supposed good in view; the latter have always a mischievous tendency : there are persons who pretend to charm away the toothache, or other pains of the body: some serpents are said to have a fascinating power in their eyes, by which they can kill the animals on which they have fixed them.

Then no planets strike,
No fairy takes, nor witoh hath power to oharm.
Sharapeaze.
Whe'r thou beest he or no,
Or some enchanted trifie to abuse me, As late I have been, I do not know.

Shateprabe.
One would think there was some kind of fascination in the eyes of a large circle of people when darting altogether upon one person.

Addigon.
To charm, enchant, and fascinate, are taken in the improper sense to denote moral as well as natural operations; en. rapture and captivate have a moral application only, in reference to those things which act more on the imagination or the moral feelings than on the senses. To charm in this case is to act as a charm; to enchant to act by enchantment; and to fascinate to act by the power of fascination; all which, as in the former casc, denote a secret or involuntary influence. To enrapture and captivate, on the other hand, denote a direct but irresistible influence. To charm, enchant, and enrapture, when applied to the same objects, rise in their sense: to enchant expresses a stronger effect than to charm, and to
enrapture than to enchant. Music ordinarily charms, delightful music charms a delicate ear: the finest music only is calculated to enrapture, or the finest ears to be enraptured.
Music has charms to soothe the savage breast. Congreve.
He play'd so sweetly, and so sweetly sung, That on each note th' enr'aptur' $d$ andience bung. Sir W. Jonms.

Beauty or fine scenery may in the same manner charm, enchant, or enrapture, according to the circumstances of the case.
So fair a landscape charm'd the wond'ring knigh
Gimbert Weat
Trust not too much to that enchanting face;
Beauty's a oharm, but soon the oharm will pas
Drydien
To fascinate and captivate are, accord ing to their original import, oftener used in a bad sense than a good one: w6 may sometimes speak indifferently of faseinating manners or a captivating address; but for the most part what fascinates and captivates acts on the passions to the injury of the understanding: a bad woman may have more power to fascinate than a modest woman ; and flowery language may captivate when plain speech would not be heeded.

Wonderful like is the case of boldness in civil business. What first? Boldness. What aecond and third? Boldness. And yet boldness is the child of ignorance and baseness, far inferior to other parts; but nevertheless it doth fascinats and bind hand and foot those that are either shallow in judgment or weak in courage.

Bacon.
Her form the patriot's robe conceal'd; With atudied blandishments she bow'd, And drew the captivated crowd. Moose.

## TO CHABTEN, TO CHASTISE.

CHASTEN, CHASTISE, both come through the French chdtier, from the Latin castigo, which is compounded of castus and $a g o$, to make pure.

Chasten has most regard to the end, chastise to the means; the former is an act of the Deity, the latter a human action: God chastens his faithful people, to cleanse them from their transgressions; parents chastise their children, to prevent the repetition of faults: afflictions are the means which God adopts for chastering those whom he wishes to make more
obedient to his will; stripes are the meaos by which offenders are chastised.

By repairing sometimes to the house of mourning, you would chasten the looseness of fancy.

Blaia.
Bad characters are dispersed abroad with profusion; I hope for example's sake, and (as punishmeuts are designed by the civil power) more for the delivering the innocent than the chastising the guilty.

Hughes.

## CHASTITY, CONTINENCE.

CHASTITY, in French chastitć, Latin castitas, coloes from castus, pure, and the Hebrew kedish, sacred. CONTINENCE, in French continence, Latin continentia, from continens and contineo, signifies the act of keeping one's self within bounds.

These two terms are equally employed in relation to the pleasures of sense : both are virtues, but sufficiently distinct iu their characteristics.

Chastity prescribes rules for the indulgence of these pleasures; continence altogether interdicts their use. Chastity extends its views to whatever may bear the smallest relation to the object which it proposes to regulate; it controls the thoughts, words, looks, attitudes, food, dress, company, and, in short, the whole mode of liviog: contincnce simply confines itself to the privation of the pleasures themselves: it is possible, therefore, to be chaste without being continent, and continent without being chastc. Chastity is suited to all timos, ages, and conditions; continence belongs only to a state of celibacy: the Christian religion enjoins chastity as a positive duty on all its followers ; the Romish religion enjoins continence on its clerical members : old age renders men continent, although it seldom makes them chaste.

It fails me here to write of chastity, That fairest virtue, far above the rest. Spenser.
When Pythagoras enjoined on his disciples an abstinence from beans, it has been thought by some an injunetion only of continemey.

Brownets Vidgar Errors.
TO CHEAT, DEFRAUD, TRICK.
CHEAT, in Saxon cetta, is in all prob-ability connected with the Latin captum, and capio, to take, that is, to take in. DEFRAUD, from de and fraud, is either to practise fraud or get from a person
by fraud. TRICK is in French tricher, and Germau betrügen, to deceive or get the better of one.

These terms convey the idea of practising deception, but in different ways. One cheats by direct and gross falsehood or artifice ; one defrauds by a sctṭled plan or contrivance; one tricks by a sudden invention. Chating and tricking are resorted to in the common dealings of men; both may be equally low in their ends, but not equally base in their means. Tricking requires ingenuity, which is not wanted in the practice of cheating. Defrauding applies to the more serious concerns of life, and for the most part involves a breach of confidence, as to defraud one's creditors.
I used often to laugh at your honest, simple neighbor Flamborough, and one way or another generally cheated him once a year. Goldsmith.

The statute nentions only fraudulent gifts to third persons, and procuring them to be seized by sham process in order to defraud creditors.

Blackstone.
He who has the clasacter of a erafty, tricking man is entirely deprived of a principal instrument of business, trust, whence be will find nothing succeed to his wish.

Bacon.
Cheating has respect to the delusion practised on the person, and may therefore be applied to whatever produces the delusion. Defrauding respects the thing wrongfully got, and may thercfore be applied to persons, animals, or things, which may suffer from fraud: as to defraud the state, the revenue, or animals of their food. Tricking properly passes only between men in their dealings with each other.
If e'er ambition did my fancy cheat With any wish so mean as to be great, Continue, Heav'n, still from me to remove The humble blessings of that life I love.

## Cowley.

Thou, varlet, dost thy master's gains devour, Thou milk'st his ewes, and often twice an hour ; Of grass and fodder thou defraud'st the dams, And of the mother's dugs the starving lambs.

Dryden.

## TO CHECK, CURB, CONTROL.

All these terms express a species of restraining. CHECK and CURB derive their meaning from natural objects. To check, in French échec, and German schach, chess, in reference to the movement in the game of chess, by which the

## CHECK

king is prevented moving, implies generally to impede the course. Curb, from the ourb in the horse's bridle, which serves to keep him in, signifies to act as a curb. To check is properly applied to bodies in motion, but curb may be applied to those which are at rest or in motion: a horse with a tender mouth is easily checked with a touch of the bridle; a young horse requires to be curbed.
Abrupt and horrid as the tempest roars, Thunder and lightning flash upon the shores, Till he that rides the whirlwind checks the rein; Then all the world of waters sleeps again. Cowper.
To check and to curb have also a moral application; to CONTROL, contracted from counter-roll, or to keep one roll or account against another, has only a noral application. To check is, as before, an act of much less restraint than to curb. Every feeling, however good, may sometimes require to be checked; the passions, or will, require to be curbed.

[^23]To check is applied to individual acts, frequently to the act or circhmstance of the moment, as to check the forwardness of youth : to curb and control to the general conduct; the former in respect to bodies of men as well as individuals; the latter in respect to individuals, as to curb a people by laws, to control youth until they are enabled to act for themselves.
The apring-time of our years
Is soon dishonored and defiled in most
By budding ills, that ask a prudent hand
To check them.
The point of honor has been deem'd of use
To teach good manners, and to curb abuse.
Cowper.
His horse, as he had caught his master's mood, Snorting and starting into sudden rage Unbidden, and not now to be controll' ${ }^{\text {d, }}$ Rushed to the cliff.

Cowper.
The act of checking is applied to one's self; a person may check himself when he is going to speak: to curb and control are properly applied to the acte of others.

The sun
(As if the ann conld envy) check' $d$ his beam, Denied his wonted fire.

Youno.

Solon the next, who built his commonweal On Equity's wide base ; by tender laws
A. lively people curbing.

Теомам
TO CHECK, CHIDE, REPRIMAND, REPROVE, REBUKE.
CHECK, v. To check, curb. CHIDE is in Saxon cidan, probably connected with cyldan, to scold. REPRIMAND is compounded of the privative repri, for retro, backward, and mando, to approve, i.e., the contrary of approving. REPROVE, in French réprouver, Latin reprobo, is compounded of the privative syllable re and probo, signifying to find the contrary of good, that is, to find bad, to blame. REBUKE is compounded of re and buke, in French bouche, the mouth, signifying to stop the mouth.

The idea of expressing one's disapprobation of a person's conduct is common to all these terms. A person is checked that he may not continue to do what is offensive; he is chidden for what he has done, that he may not repeat it: impertinent and forward people require to be checked, that they may not hecome intolerable; thoughtless people are chidden when they give burtful proofs of their carelessness. People are checked hy actions and looks, as well as words; they are chidden by words only: a timid person is easily checked; the want even of due encouragement will serve to damp his resolution: the young are perpetually falling into irregularities which require to be chidden.

## But if a clam'rous vile pleheian rose, <br> Him with reproof he check'd, or tam'd with blows. <br> Pope.

His house was known to all the ragrant train ; He chid their wanderings, but reliev'd their pain. Goldamith.
To chide marks a stronger degree of displeasure than reprimand, and reprimand than reprove or rebuke; a person may chide or reprimand in anger, he reproves and rebukes with coolness: great offences call forth chidings; omissions or mistakes occasion or require a reprimand: irregularities of conduct give rise to reproof; and improprieties of behavior demand rebuke. Chiding and reprimanding are employed for offences against the individual, and in cases where the greatest disparity exists in the station of the
parties ; a child is chid by his parent; a servant is reprimanded by hia master. Reproving and rebuking have less to do with the relation or station of the parties than with the nature of the offence: wisdom, age, and experience, or a spiritual mission, give authority to reprove or rebuke thoae whose conduct has violated any law, human or divine: the prophet Nathan reproved King David for his heinous offences against his Maker; our Saviour rebuked Peter for his presumptuous mode of speech.

This sort of language was very severely reprimanded by the censor, who told the criminal "that he spoke in contempt of the court."

Addison and Steele.
He who endeavors only the happiness of him whom he raproves will always have the satisfaction of either obtaining or deserving kindness.

Johnson.
With all the inflrmities of his disciples he calmly bore; and his rebukes were mild when their provocations were great.

Blaif.

## TO CHECK, STOP.

CHECK, as before (v. To check, curb), signifies to impede the course of a body in motion, that ia, to cause it to move slowly; to STOP (v. Cessation) is to canse it not to move at all: the growth of a plant is cheched when it does not grow so fast as usual; ita growth is stopped when it ceases altogether to grow: the water of a river is stopped by a dam; the rapidity of its course is checked by the intervention of rocks and sands.

When now November dark
Checks vegetation in the torpid plant Exposed to his cold breath, the task begins. Cowpen.
Embosom'd in the deep where Holland lies, Methinks her patient sons before me stand, Whare the broad ocesn leans against the land, And, sednlons to atop the coming tide, Lift the tall rampire's artificial pride. Goldsmith.
These words admit of a similar distinction when applied to the conduct or condition of men and things: if an evil be checked, it is dimisished in extent; if it be atopped, it is altogether put an end to; so a person may be checked in his career, or stopped in his career, with the like distinction.

Shall neither the sdmonitions which yon receive from the visible inconstancy of the world, nor the declarstions of the Divine displeasure, be sufficient to check your thoughtless csreer?

Blair.

I'm very sorry for thy friend; 'tis the duke's pleasure,
Whose disposition all tha world well knows Will not be rubb'd nor sfopp'd. SIAAKSPEARE.

TO CHEER, ENCOURAGE, COMFORT.
CHEER, v. To animate. ENCOURAGE, compounded of en and courage, signifiea to inapire with courage. COMFORT is componnded of com or cum, and fortis, strong, signifying to invigorate or strengthen.

To cheer regards the spirita; to encour age the resolution: the aad require to be cheered; the timid to be encouraged. Mirthful company is suited to cheer those who labor under any depression; the prospect of success encourages those who have any object to obtain.
The creation is a perpetnal fcast to a good man ;
everything he sees cheere and delights him. Andison.
Complaisance produces good-nature and mutnal benevolence, encourages the timorous, sootlies the turbulent, hamsnizes the ficree, and distinguishes a society of civilized persons from [a company of] savages.

Addison.
To cheer and comfort have both regard to the spirita, but the latter differs in degree and manner: to cheer expresses more than to comfort; the former signifying to produce a lively sentiment, the latter to lessen or remove a painful one: we are cheered in the moments of despondency, whether from real or imaginary causes; we are comforted in the hour of distress.

Appland us when we ran, console us when we fall, chabr us when we recover. Berke.

Sleep seldom visits sorrow.
When it does, it is a comforter. Shagspearb
Cheering may be effected either by the direct effort of others or by anything passing outward or inward; a diacourse or voice cheers, a prospect or a reflection cheers: comforting is often properly effected by external objects, whether personal or otherwise. Cheering is purely a mental operation, but comforting may act on the body as well as on the mind.
Thongh the whole creation frowns opon him, and all nature looks black abont him, he has his light snd support witbin, that are able to chesr his mind, snd bear him up in the midst of all those horrors which encompass him. Addison.

There are writers of great distinction who have made it an srgument for Providence that the whole earth is covered with greea, rather than with any other color, as being snch a righe
mixture of light and ahade that comforts and atrengthens the eye, instcad of weakening or grieving it. Adifison.

CHEERFUL, MERRY, SPRIGHTLY, GAY.
CIIEERFUL signifies full of cheer, or of that which cheers ( $v$. To animate). MERRY, in Saxon merig, is probably connected with the word mare, and the Latin meretrix, a strumpet. SPRIGHTLY is contracted from spiritedly. GAY is connected with joy and joeund, from the Latin jocus.

Cheerful marks an unruffled flow of spirits ; with mirth there is more of tumult and noise; with sprightliness there is more huoyaney; gayety comprebends mirth and indulgence. A cheerful person smiles ; a merry person laughs; a sprightly person dances; a gay person takes his pleasure. The cheerful countewance is permanently so; it marks the contentment of the heart, and its freedom from pain: the merry face will often look sad; a trifle will turn mirth into sorrow: the sprightliness of youth is often sneceeded by the listlessness of bodily infirmity, or the gloom of despondency : gayety is as transitory as the pleasures upon which it subsists; it is often followed by sullenness and discontent. Cheerfulness is a hahitual state of the mind; mirth is an occasional elevation of the spirits ; sprightliness lies in the temperature and flow of the blood; gayety depends altogether on external circumstances. Religion is the hest promoter of cheerfulness; it makes its possessor pleased witl himself and all around him; company and wine are but too often the only promoters of mirth; youth and health will naturally be attended with sprightliness; a succession of pleasures, an exemption from care, and the banishment of thought, will keep gayety alive.

I have always preferred cheerfulness to mirth: the latter I consider as an act, the former as a habit of the mind, Mfirth is short and transient; oheerfulness fixed and perinanent. ADDison.

Mankind may be divided into the merry and the serions, who hoth of them make a very good figure in the species so long as they keep their respective humors from degenerating into the neighboring extreme. ADDISON.
But Venns, anxions for her son's affairs, Now coungels tries, and new designs prepares, That Cupid ahould assume the sbape and face Of aweet Ascanhus, and the sprightly grace.

DRYDEN.

To kinder skies, where gentler manners reign, I turn : and France displays her bright domain. Gay, fprightly land of mirth and social ease, Pleas'd with thyself, whom all the world can please.

Golibsith.
Sprightliness and mirth are seldom employed but in the proper sense as respects persons; but cheerful and gay are extended to different objects which affect the senses or the mind: cheerful objects are such as cheer the spirits; gay objects please or delight the senses; as a cheerful prospect, a cheerful room, gay attire, a gay scene, gay colors, etc.

## 'Twere wiser far

For me, enamored of sequestered scenes And charmed with rural beauty, to repose Where chance may throw me, beneath elm or vine;
Or, when rongh winter rages, on the soft And sheltered sofa, while the nitrous air Feeds a blue fiame, and makes a cheer ful hearth. Cowper.
Say, gentle damsel, may I ask, mublamed, How this gay isle and splendid seats are named?

Sin W. Joneg.

## CHIEF, PRINCIPAL, MAIN.

CHIEF, in French chef, from the Latin caput, the head, signifies belonging to the uppermost part. PRINCIPAL, in French principal, Latin principalis, comes from princeps, a chief or prince, signifying belonging to a prince. MAIN, from the Latin magnus, signifies to a great degree.

Chief respects order and rank; principal has regard to importance and respectability; main to degree or quantity. We speak of a chief clerk; a commander in chief; the chief person in a city: but the principal people in a city; the principal circumstances in a narrative, and the main object. The chief cities, as mentioned by geographers, are those which are classed in the first rank; the primeipal cities generally include those which are the most considerable for wealth and population; these, however, are not always technically comprehended under the name of chief cities: the main end of men's exertions is the acquirement of wealth.
If his What is man, onief good and market of his time Be but to sleep and feed? A beast, no more !

Shakspeare.
The right which one man has to the actions of anotber is generally borrowed, or derived from one or both of these two great originals, produce
sion or possession, which two are certainly the principal and most undoubted rights that take place in the world.

Soutn.
To the accidental or adventitious parts of Paradlse Lost some alight exceptions may be made; but the main fabric is immovably sapperted.

Joinson.

## CHIEF, LEADER, CHIEFTAIN, HEAD.

CHIEF and CHIEPTAIN signify him who is chief (v. Chief). LEADER, from to lead, and HEAD, from the head, sufficiently designate their own signification.

Chief respects precedency in civil matters; leader regards the direction of enterprises: chieftain is a species of leader; and head is the superior in general concerns. Among savages the chief of every tribe is a despotic prince within his own district, acting or directing in particular cases. Factions and parties in a atate, like savage tribes, must have their leaders, to whom they are blindly devoted, and by whom they are instigated to every desperate proceeding. Robbers have their chieftains, who plan and direct everything, having an unlimited power over the band. The heads of families were, in the primitive ages, the chiefs, who in conjunction regulated the affairs of state. Chiefs have a permanent power, which may descend, by inheritance, to branches of the same families: leaders and chieftains have a deputed power with which they are invested, as the time and occasion require : heads have a natural power springing ont of the nature of their birth, raok, talents, and situation; it is not hereditary, but successive. Chiefs ought to bave superiority of birth combined with talents for ruling; leaders and chieftains require a bold and enterprising spirit; heads should have talents for directing.
No chief like thee, Menestheus, Greece could yield́,
To marshal armies in lhe dnsty field. Pope.
When you separate the common sort of men from thoir proper chieftain, I ne longer know that venerable olject called the poople in snch a disbanded race of descrters and vagabonds.

Burke.
Savage alleged that he was then dependent upon the Lerd Tyrconnel, whe was an implicit follower of the ministry ; and, being enjoined by him, not without menaces, to write in praise of bis leader, he had net sufficient resolution to sacrifice the pleasure of affinence to that of integrity.

Johnaon.

As each is more able to distingulsh hlmself as the head of a party, he will less readily be mads a follower or associate.

Johnson.

## CHILDISH, INFANTINE.

CHILDISH is in the manner of a chill. INFANTINE is in the manner of an infarit.

What children do is frequently simple or foolish; what infants do is commonly pretty and engaging; therefore childish is taken in the bad, and infantine in the good sense. Childish manners are very offensive in those who bave ceased according to their years to be children; the infantine actions of some children evince a simplicity of character.
It may frequently be remarked of the studious and speculative, that they are proud of trifles, and that their amuenuents seem frivolous and childish.

Johnaon.
The lay records the labors and the praise,
And all th' inmortal acts of Hercules:
First how the mighty babe, when swath'd in bands,
The serpents strangled with his infunt hands.
Dryden.

## CHILL, COLD.

CHILL and COLD are but variations of the same word, in German kalt, ete.

Chill expresses less than cold; that is to say, it expresses a degree of cold. The weather is often chilly in summer; but it is cold in winter. We speak of taking the chill off water when the cold is in part removed; and of a chill running through the frame when the cold beging to penetrate the frame that is in a state of warmth.

When men once reach their autumn, fickle joys Fall off apace, as yellow leaves from trees; Till, left quite naked of their happiness, In the chill hlasts of winter they expire.

Toung.
Thus ease after torment is pleasnre for a time, and we are very agreeably recruited when the body, chilled with the weather, is gradually recovering its natural tepidity; but the joy ceases when we have forgot the cold.

Johnson.

## TO CHOOSE, PREFER.

CHOOSE, in Freach choisir, German keisen, from the French cher, Celtic choe, dear or good, signifies to hold good. PREFER, in French préférer, Latin prafero, compounded of proe and fero, to take before, signifies to take one thing rather than another.

To choose is to prefer as the genus to the species: we always choose in preforring, but we do not always prefer in choosing. To choose is to take one thing from among others; to prefer is to take one thing before or rather than another. We sometimes choose from the bare necessity of choosing; but we never prefer without making a positive and voluntary choice.

Judgment was wearied with the perplexity of choice where there was no motive for preferonce.

JOHNSON.
When we choose from a specific motive, the acts of choosing and preferring differ in the nature of the motive. The former is absolute, the latter relative. We choose a thing for what it is, or what we esteem it to be of itself; we prefer a thing for what it has, or what we suppose it has, superior to another. Utility or convenience are grounds for choosing; comparative merit occasions the preference: we choose something that is good, and are contented with it until we see something better which we prejer. We calculate and pause in choosing; we decide in preferring; the judgment determines in making the choice; the will or the affections determine in giving the preference. We choose things from an estimate of their merits or their fitness for the purpose proposed; we prefer them from their accordance with our tastes, habits, and pursuits. Books are chosen by those who wish to read; romances and works of fiction are preferred hy general readers; learned works by the scholar. One who wants instruction chooses a master, but he will mostly prefer a teacher whom he knows to a perfect stranger. Our choice is good or bad according to our knowledge; our preference is just or unjust according as it is sanctioned by reason or otherwise. Our choice may be directed by our own experience or that of others; our preference must be guided by our own feelings. We make our choise; we give our preference: the first is the settled purpose of the mind, it fixes on the object; the latter is the inclining of the will, it yields to the object.

Choosing must be employed in all the impartant concerns of life; preferring is
admissible in subordinate matters only. There is but one thing that is right, and that ought to be chosen when it is discov. ered: there are many indifferent things that may suit our tastes and inclinations; these we are at liberty to prefer. But to prefer what we ought not to choose is to make our reason bend to our will. The path of life should be chosen; but the path to be taken in a walk may be preferred. It is advisable for a youth in the choice of a profession to consult what he prefers, as he bas the greatest chance of succeeding when he can combine his pleasure with his duty. A friend should be chosen: a companion may be preferred. A wife should be chosen; but unfortunately lovers are most apt to give a preference in ${ }^{\text {a }}$ matter where a good or bad choice may determine one's happiness or misery for life. A wise prince is careful in the choice of his ministers; but a weak prince has mostly favorites whom be prefers.
There is nothing of so great importance to us as the good qualities of one to whom we join ourselves for life. When the choice is left to friends, the chief point under consideration is an estate; where the parties ehoobe for themselves, their thoughts turn most upon the person. Adolson.

When a man has a mind to venture his money in a lottery, every figure of it appears equally alluring ; and no manner of reason can be given why a man should prefer one to the other before the lottery is drawn.

ADDISON.

## TO CHOOSE, PICK, SELECT.

To CHOOSE ( $v$. To choose, prefer) is here, as in the foregoing article, a general and indefinite term, signifying to take one out of two or more. To PICK, from the proper sense of taking anything up with a beak or a pointed thing, is employed to signify the taking things one by one; and SELECT, in Latin selectus, from seligo, or se, apart, and lego, to gather, signifies properly to set apart. We may choose whatever comes in our way without regard to the number of the objects to be chosen from, but we pick or select out of a number only; as to pick or select books from a library: we may pick one or many out of a number, but we mostly select a number. Choosing is not always an act of particular design or discrimination ; but to pick and select signify to choose with care, the latter with still
greater care than the former. What is picked and selected is always the best of its kind; but the former is commonly something of a physical nature, the latter of a moral or intellectual description. Soldiers are sometimes picked to form a particular regiment; pieces are selected in prose or verse for general purposes.

My friend Sir Roger, being a good charchman, has beautificd the inside of his church with sevaral texts of his own choosing.

Addison.
I know by several experiments, that those little animals (the ants) take great care to provide themselves with wheat when they can find it, and always pick out the best.

ADDISON.
The chief advantage which these fictions have over real life is, that their anthors are at liberty, thongh not to invent, yet to select objects.

Jobnson.

## TO CHOOSE, ELECT.

CH00SE, $v$. To choose, prefer. ELECT, in Latin electus, participle of eligo, is compounded of $e$ and lego, signifying to gather or take out from.

Both these terms are employed in regard to persons appointed to an office; the former in a general, the latter in a particular sense. Choosing is the act either of one man or of many; election is always that of a number; it is performed by the concurrence of many voices. A prince chooses his ministers; the constituents elect members of parliament. A person is chosen to serve the office of sheriff; he is elected by the corporation to be mayor. Choosing is an act of authority; it binds the person chosen: election is a voluntary act; the elected has the power of refusal. People are obliged to serve in some offices when they are chosen, although they would gladly be exempt. The circumstance of being elected is an honor after which they eagerly aspire; and for the attainment of which they risk their property, and use the most strenuous exertions.

> Wise were the kings who never chose a friend Till with full cups they had unmask'd his soul, And seen the bottom of his deepest thoughts.

Roscommon.
Cornwall elects as many members as all Scotland; but is Cornwall better taken care of than Scotland ? Burke.
To elect may sometimes be extended in its application to persons or things for general purposes, which brings it nearer
to the word choose; but election in this case signifies the choosing one out of two or more specific objects; as where one has several friends and makes his election of ene to be his constant companion, or a person makes his election where he has several alternatives set before him.
He lived toward the favorites with that decen. cy as would not suffer them to censure his master's judgment and election.

Clarennor.

## CIRCLE, SPHERE, ORB, GLOBE.

CIRCLE, in Latin circulus, Greek $\kappa \mathbf{v}$ $\kappa \lambda o s$, in all probability comes from the Hebrew ehoog, a circle. SPHERE, in Latin sphera, Greek $\sigma \phi a \iota \rho a$, from $\sigma \pi \varepsilon \iota \rho \alpha_{2}$ a line, signifies that whieh is contained within a prescribed line. ORB, in Latin orbis, from orbo, to circumscribe with a circle, signifies the thing that is circumscribed. GLOBE, in Latin globus, in all probability comes from the Hebrew gal, a rolled heap.

Rotundity of figure is the common idea expressed by these terms; but the circle is that figure which is represented on \& plane superficies; the others are figures represented by solids. We draw a circle by means of compasses; the sphere is a round body, conceived to be formed according to the rules of geometry by the circumvolution of a circle round about its diameter; hence the whole frame of the world is denomina. ted a sphere. An orb is any body which describes a circle; hence the heavenly bodies are termed orbs: a globe is any solid body, the surface of which is in every part equidistant from the centre; of this description is the terrestrial globe.

A circle may be applied in the improper sense to any round figure which is formed or supposed to be formed by circumscribing a space; simple rotundity constituting a circle: in this manner a circle may be formed by real objects, as persons, or by moral objects, as pleasures. To the idea of circle is annexed that of extent around, in the signification of a sphere, as a sphere of activity, whether applied in the philosophical sense to natural hodies, or in the moral sense to men. Hollowness, as well as rotundity, belongs to an orb: hence we speak of the orb of a wheel. Of a globe, solidity is the peculiar characteristic;
hence any ball, like the ball of the earth, may be represented as a globe.
Might I from Fortuna's bounteous hand receive Each boon, aach blessing in her power to give; E'ell at thie mighty price l'd not be bonnd To tread the same dull circle round and round. The soul requirea enjoyments more sublime, By space unbounded, undestroyed by time.

Jenyns.
Or if some stripes from Providence wa feel, He strikea with pity, and but wounds to heal; Kindly, perhapa, sometimes afflicts us here, To guide our views to a sublimer aphere.

Jenyns.
Thonsends of suns beyond each other blaze, Orbe roll o'er orbs, and glow with mutual raya.

JENTNO.
Thus roaming with advent'rous wing the $g l_{0} b_{s}$, From scane to scene excursive, I behold
In all her workings, beauteous, great, or new,
Fair Nature.
Mallet.

## GIRCUIT, TOUR, ROUND.

GIRCDIT, in French circuit, Latin circuitus, participle of circumeo, signifies either the act of going round, or the extent gone. TOUR is from the French tour, a turn, from the verb tourner, to turn. ROUND marks the track round, or the space gone round.

A circuit is made for a specific end of a serious kind; a tour is always made for plessure; a round, like a circuit, is employed in mattsrs of business, but of a more familiar and ordinary kind. A judge goes his circuit st particular periods of time: gentlemen, in times of peace, consider it as an essential part of their education to make what is termed the grand tour: tradesmen have certain rounds, which they take on certain dsys. We speak of making the circuit of a place; of taking a tour in a given country; or going s particular round. A cirmuit is wide or narrow; a tour and a round is great or little. A circuit is prescribed as to extent; a tour is optional; a round is prescribed or otherwise.
Th' unfledg'd commanders and the martial train First make the circuit of the sandy plain.

Dhyden.
Goldsmith's tour through Europe, we are told, was made for the most part on foot. Jounson.
Tis night! the season when the happy take
Rapose, and only wretches are awake;
Now discontented ghosts begin their rounds,
Haunt ruin'd buildings and nowholesonie grounds.

Otway.
Circuit is seldom used but in a specific sense; tour is seldom employed but in
regard to travelling; round msy be zaken figuratively, aa when we speak of going one's round of plessure.
Savage had projected a perpetual round of innocent pleasure in Wales, of which he suspectad no interruption from pride, ighorance, or brutality.

JOANGON.
to CIRCUMSCRIBE, INCLOSE.
CIRCOMSCRIBE, from the Latin circum, sbout, and scribo, to write, marks simply the surrounding with a line. INCLOSE, from the Latin inclusus, participle of inclaudo, compounded of in and claudo, to shut, marks a species of con. finement.

The extent of any place is drawn out to the eye by a circumscription; its extent is limited to a given point by an inclosure. A garden is circumscribed by any ditch, line, or posts, that serve as its boundaries; it is inclosed by wall or fence. An inclosure may serve to circumscribe; but that which circumscribes is frequently imaginary, and will not sarve to inclose.
Who cen imagine that the existence of a creature is to ha oircuncseribed by tima, whose thoughts are not P ADDISON.
Remember on that happy coast to build,
And with a trench incloss the fruitful fleld.
DRYDEN.

## CLRCUMSTANCE, SITUATION.

CIROUMSTANCE, in Latin circum. stantia, from circum and sta, signifies what stands about a thing, or belongs to it as its accident. SITUATION, in French situation, comes from the Latin situs, and the Hebrew sot, to place, signifying what is placed in a certsin manner.

Circumstance is to situation as a part to a whole; many circumstances constitute a situation: a situation is an aggregate of circumstances. A person is said to be in circumstances of affluence who bas an abundance of everything essential for his comfort; he is in au easy situation when nothing exists to create uneasiness. Circumstance respects that which externally affects us; situation is employed both for the outward circumstances and the in ward feelings. The success of any undertaking depends greatly on the circumstances under which it is begun; the particular situation of a pers
on's mind will give a cast to his words or actions. Circumstances are critical, a situation is dangerous.
As for the ass's behavior in such nice circumtances, whether he would starye sooner than vinlate his neutrality to the two bundles of hay, I shall not presume to determine.

We are not at present in a proper situation to ladge of the councils by which Providence acts. Adpison.

## GIRCUMSTANCE, INCIDENT, FAC'I.

CIRCUMSTANCE (2. Circumstance, situation) is, as before, a general term. INCIDENT, in Latin ineidens, participle of incido, or in and cado, to fall, signifying what falls upon or to another thing, and FACT, in Latin factus, participle of facio, to do, signifying the thing done, are species of circumstances. Incident is what happens; fact is what is done; circumstance is not only what happens and is done, but whatever is or belongs to a thing. To everything are annexed circumstances, either of time, place, age, color, or other collateral appendages, which change its nature. Everything that moves and operates is exposed to incidents; effects are produced, results follow, and changes are brought about ; these are incidents: whatever moves and operates does, and what it produces is done or is the fact: when the artificer performs any work of art, it depends not only on his skill, but on the excellence of his tools, the time he employs, the particular frame of his mind, the place where he works, with a variety of other circumstances, whether he will succeed in producing anything masterly. Newspapers abound with the various ineidents which occur in the animal or the vegetable world, some of which are surprising and singular; they likewise contain a number of facts which serve to present a melancholy picture of human depravity.

You very often hear people, after a story has beea told with some entertaining cireumatances, tell it again with particulars that destroy the jest.

Sterle.
It is to be considered that Providence in its economy regards the whole system of time and tbings together, so that we cannot discover the beautiful connection between incidents which lie widely separate in time.

Addison.
In describing the achievements and institutions of the Spaniards in the New World, I have departed in many instances from the accounts
of preceding historians, and have often related facts which seem to have been unkoown to them.

Roarrtson.
Circumstance is as often employed with regard to the operations or properties of things, in which case it is most analogous to incident and fact : it may then be employed for the whole affair, or any part of it whatever that can be distinctly consideved. Incidents and facts either are circumstances, or have circumstances be. longing to them. A remarkably abundant crop in any particular part of a field is for the agriculturist a singular circumstance or incident; this may be rendered more surprising if associated with unusual sterility in other parts of the same field. A robbery may either be a fact or a circumstanse; its atrocity may be aggravated by the murder of the injured parties, the savageness of the perpetrators, and a variety of circumstances. Circumstance comprehends in its signification whatever may be said or thought of anything; incident carries with it the idea of whatever may befall or be said to befall anything; fact includes in it nothing but what really is or is done. A narrative, therefore, may contain many circumstances and incidents without any fact, when what is related is either fictitious or not positively known to have happened : it is necessary for a novel or play to contain much incident, but not facts, in order to render it interesting; history should contain notbing but facts, as authenticity is its chief merit.

It was another circumstance of the looseness of the present government, that messengers went forward and back ward with all security. Clarendon.
Nothing is little to him that feels it with great sensilility; a mind able to see common incidents in their real state is disposed by very com mon incidents to very serious contemplation.

Jofinson.
The fact of a fall of exports upon the restraining plan, and of a rise upon the taking place of the enlarging plan, is established beyond all contradiction.

Burie.

## CIRCUMSTANTIAL, PARTICULAR, MINUTE.

CIRCUMSTANTIAL, from circumstance, signifies consisting of circumstances. PARTICULAR, in French particulier, from the word particle, signifies

## CIVIL

consisting of particles. MINUTE, in Freach minute, Latin minutus, participle of minuo, to diminish, signifies diminished or reduced to a very small point.

Circumstantial expresses less than particular, and that less than minute. A circumstantial account contains all leading events; a particular account includes every event and movement, however trivial; a minute account omits nothing as to person, time, place, figure, form, and every other trivial circumstance connected with the events. A narrative may be circumstantial, particular, or minute; an inquiry, investigation, or description, may be particular or minute; a detail may be minute. An event or occurrence may be particular, a circumstance or particular may be minute. We may be generally satisfied with a circumstantial account of ordinary events; but whatever interests the feelings cannot be detailed with too much particudarity or minuteness.
Thomson's wide expansion of general views, and his enumeration of ciscumstantial varicties, would have been obstructed and embarrassed by the freqnent intersections of the sense which are the necessary effects of the rhyme. Jomnson,
I am extremely troubled at the return of your deafness; you cannot be ton particutar in the accounts of your health to me.

POPE.
When Pope's letters were published and avowed, as they had relation to recent facts, and persons either then living or not yet forgotten, they may be supposed to have found readers; but as the facts were minute, and the characters little known or little regarded, they awakened no popular kindness or resentment.

Johnson.

## TO CITE, QUOTE.

CITE and QUOTE are both derived from the same Latin verb cito, to move, and the Hebrew sat, to stir up, signifying to put into action.
To cite is employed for persons or things; to quote for things only: authors are cited, passages from their works are quoted: we cite only by authority; we quote for general purposes of convenience. Historians ought to cite their authority in order to strengthen their evidence and inspire confidence ; controversialists must $q$ uote the objectionable passages in those works which they wish to confute: it is prudent to cite no one whose authority is questionable; it is superfluous to quote anything that can be easily perused in the original.

The great work of which Justinian has the credit consists of texts collected from law-books of approved authority; and those texts are digested according to a scientifical analysis; the names of the original authors and the titles of their several books being coustantly cited.

SIR W. Jones,
Let us consider what is truly glorious according to the author I have to-day quoted in the front of my paper.

Steeles.

## TO CITE, SUMMON.

The idea of calling a person authoritatively to appear is common to these terns. CITE (v. To cite, quote) is used in a general sense, SUMMON (v. To call) in a particular and technical sense: a person may be cited to appear before his superior; be is summoned to appear before a court : the station of the individual gives authority to the act of citing; the law itself gives authority to that of summoning. When cite is used in a legal sense, it is mostly employed for witnesses, and summon for every occasion: a person is cited to give evideace; he is summoned to answer a charge. Cite is seldomer used in the legal sense than in that of calling by name, in which general acceptation it is employed with regard to authors, as specified in the precediog article, and in some few other connections: the legal is the ordinary sense of summon; it may, however, be extended in its application to a military summons of a fortified town, or to any call for which there may be occasion; as when we speak of the summons which is given to attend the death-bed of a friend; or figuratively, death is said to summon mortals from this world.

E'en sacial friendship duns his ear,
And cites him to the public sphere. Shenstone.
The sly enchantress summon' $d$ all her train, Alluring Venus, queen of vagrant love, The boon companion Bacchus loud and vain, And tricking Hermes, god of fraudful gain.

West

## CIVIL, POLITE

CIVIL, in French civil, Latin civilis, from civis, a citizen, signifies belonging to or becoming a citizen. POLITE, in French poli, Latin politus, participle of polio, to polish, signifies properly polished.

These two epithets are employed to denote different modes of acting in social intercourse: polite expresses more than civil; it is possible to be civil without
being polite: politeness supposes civility, and something in addition. Civility is confined to no rank, age, condition, or country; all have an opportunity with equad propriety of being civil, but not so with politeness; that requires a certain degree of equality, at least the equality of education; it would be contradictory for masters and servants, rich and poor, learned and nulearned, to be polite to each other. Civility is a Christian duty ; there are times when every man onght to be civil to his neighbor : politeness is rather a voluntary devotion of ourselves to others: among the inferior orders civility is indispensable: an uncivil person in a subordinate station is an obnoxious member of society: among the higher orders politeness is often a substitnte; and, where the form and spirit are combined, it supersedes the necessity of civility: politeness is the swectener of human society; it gives a charm to everything that is said and done. Civility is contented with pleasing when the occasion offers: politeness seeks the opportunity to please ; it prevents the necessity of asking by anticipating the wishes; it is full of delicate attentions, and is an active benevolence in the minor concerns of life. Civil is therefore most properly applied to what passes from and to persons of inferior condition ; as the peasantry are very civil.

We have a young woman who has come to take up her lodgings here, and I doll't belicve she has got any money, by her over-civility.

Goldsmith.
Or it may be applied to the ordinary transactions of life without distinction of rank.

I would not wish to be thought forgetful of civilities.

Johnson.
Polite is applied to those who are in a condition to have good-breeding.

A polite conntry squice shall make you as many bowa in half an hour as would serve a courtier for a week.

ADDISON.
Civility is rather a negative than a positive quality, implying simply the absence of rudeness. Politeness requires positive and peculiar properties of the head and heart, natural and acquired. To be civil, therefore, is the least that any one can be to anothcr if he do not
wish to offend; but politeness, where it is real, is as strong an indication of kindness in the outward behavior as the oc casion calls for.

## He has good-nature,

And I bave good manners;
His sons, too, are civil to me, because
I do not pretend to be wiser than they. Otwar.
The true effect of genuine politen ess seems to be rather ease than pleasure.

Johnson.
The term civil may be applicd figuratively, but politeness is a characteristic of: real persons only.
I beard a mermaid on a dolphin's back, Uttering sueh duleet and harmonious sonnds, That the rude sea grew civil at ber song.

Sharspeare.
Upon first approashes he had an air of reserye, tempered, however, with mueh politeness, for he was a high-bred gentleman. Cumbenland.

## CIVIL, OBLIGING, COMPLAISANT.

CIVIL (v. Civil, polite) is more gencral than OBLIGING, which signifies ready to oblige. One is always civil when one is obliging, but not always obliging when one is civil. Civil applies to words or manner as well as to the action; obliging to the action only. As civil is indefinite in its meaning, so it is indiscriminate in its application; obliging, on the other hand, is confined to what passes between particular persons or under particular circumstances. Strangers may be civil, and persons may frequently be civil who from their situation may be expected to be otherwise ; one friend is obliging to another.
We were visited by an officer of the Healthoffice, and obliged to give oath with regard to the eirenmstances of onr voyage. He belaved in the civilest manner.

Brydone.

## The shepberd bome

Hies merry-hearted, and by turns relieves
The ruddy milkmaid of her brimming pail,
The beanty whom perhaps his witless heart Sincerely loves, by that best language ghown of cordial glances and oblifing deeds.

Thouson.
Civil and obliging both imply a desire to do a kindness; but COMPLAISANT, which is a variation of complacent, from complaceo, to be highly pleased, signifies the desire of receiving pleasure, which is a refined mode of doing a kindness.
I seemed so pleased with what every one said, and smiled with so much complaisance at all their pretty fancies, that thougb I did not put
one word into their discourse, I have the vanity to think they looked npon me as very agreeable company.

Addisun.
Civilaty, lying very much in the manner, may be put on, and complaisance, implying a concern to please by being pleased, may be bad if it lead one to consult the humors of others to the sacrifice of duty or propriety.

Pride is never more offensive than when it condescends to be civil.

Cumberland.
Let no complaisance, no gentleness of temper, no weak desire of pleasing on your part, no wheedting, coaxing, nor Hattery on other people's, make you recede one jot from any point that reason and prudence have bid you pursue.

Chesterfield.

## CLANDESTINE, SECRET.

CLANDESTINE, in Latin clandestinus, comes from clam, secretly. SECRE'T, in French secret, Latin secretus, participle of secerno, to separate, signifies remote from observation.

Clandestine expresses more than secret. To do a thing clandestinely is to elude observation; to do a thing sceretly is to do it without the knowledge of any one: what is clandestine is unallowed, which is not necessarily the case with what is secret. With the clandestine must be a mixture of art; with secrecy cantion and management are requisite: a clandestine marriage is effected by a studied plan to escape notice ; a secret marriage is conducted by the forbearance of all communication: conspirators have many clandestine proceedings and secret meetings : an unfaithful servant elandestinely conveys away his master's property from his premises; a thief scoretly takes a purse from the pocket of a by-stander.
I wellt to this clandestine lodging, and found to my amazement all the ornaments of a fine gentleman, which he had taken upon eredit.

Johnson.
Ye boys who pluck the flowers, and spoil the spring,
Beware the secret snake that shoots a sting.
Dryden.

## TO CLASP, HUG, EMBRACE.

To CLASP, from the noun clasp, signifies to lay hold of tike a clasp. HUG, in Saxou hogan, is connected with the German hägen, which signifies to enclose with - hedge, and figuratively to cherish or take special care of. EMBRACE, in

French embrasser, is compounded of en or im and bras, the arm, signifying to take or lock in one's arms.

All these terms are employed to express the act of enclosing another ill one's arms: clasp marks this action when it is performed with the warmth of true affection; hug is a ludicrous sort of clasping, which is the consequence of ignorance or extravagant fecling; embrace is simply a mode of ordinary salutation: a parent will clasp his long-lost child in his arms on their re-meeting; a peasant in the excess of his raptures would throw his body, as well as his arms, over the object of his joy, and stifle with huyging him whom he meant to embrace; in the Continental parts of Europe embracing between males, as well as females, is universal on meeting after a long absence, or on taking leave for a leogth of time; embraces are sometimes given in England between near relatives, but in no other case.
I beg, and clasp thy kney suppliant,
,
Thyself a boy, assume a boy's dissembled face, That when, amidst the fervor of the feast, The Tyrian huge and fonds thee on her breast, Thou mayst infuse thy venom in ber veins.

DRYDEN.
The king at length, laving kindly reproached Helim for depriving him so long of such a brother, embraced Balsora with the greatest tenderness.

ADDISON.
Clasp and embrace may be applied to other objects besides persons in the same sense.

Some more aspiring eateh the neighboring shrab, With clasping tendrils, and iuvest her branch.

Cowper.
Man, like the gen'rous vine, supported lives,
The strength he gains is from th' embrace he gives.

Pope.
Class, order, Rank, Degree.
CLASS, in French classe, Latin classis, very probably from the Greek $\kappa \lambda a \sigma \sigma e s$, a fraction, division, or class. ORDER, in French ordre, Latin ordo, comes from the Greek o $\rho \chi \circ \mathcal{S}$, a row, which is a species of order. RANK, in German rang, is connected with row, etc. DEGREE, in French deyré, comes from the Latin gradus, a step.

Class is more general than order; degree is more specific than rank. Class and order are said of the persons who are
distingulshed; rank and degree of the distinction itself: men belong to a certain class or arder; they hold a certain rank; they are of a certain degree: among the Romans all the citizens were distinctly divided into classes according to their property; but in the modern constitution of aooicty, classes are distinguished from each other on general, moral, or civil grounds; there are reputable or disreputable classes; the laboring class, the class of merchants, mechanics, etc. : order has a more particular signification; it is founded upon some positive civil privilege or distinction: the general orders are divided into higher, lower, or middle, arising from the unequal distribution of wealth and power; the particular arders are those of the nobility, of the clergy, of freemasonry, and the like: rank distinguizhes one individual from another; it ls peculiarly applied to the nobility and the gentry, although avery man in the community bolds a certain rank in relation to those who are above or below him: degree, like rank, is applicable to the individual, hut only in particular cases; literary and sciontific degrees are oonferred upon suparior merit in different departments of sciencs; therg are likewise degrees in the sams rank, whence we speak of men of high and low degree.

We ara by our occnpations, education, and habIts of tifa, dividad almost into different spaciea. Each of these classes of the buman race has dasires, fears, and conversation, vexations and merriment, peculiar to itself.

Johnaon.
Learning and knowledge are perfections in us not as we are men, but as we are reasonable creatures, in which order of beings the female world ia upon the same level with the male.

Addison.
Young women of humble rank, and small pratensions, should be particularly cantions how a vain ambition of being noticed by their superiors betrays them into an attempt at displaying their unprotected persona on a stage. Cumberland.
Tben learn, ye fair 1 to soften aplendor's ray, Endure the awain, the youth of low degree.

Satengtone.

## TO CLASS, ARRANGE, RANGE.

To CLASS, from the noun class, signifea to put in a class. ARRANGE and RANGE are both derived from rank and rons, signifying to place in a certain order.
The general qualities and attributes of thinge are to be considered in classing;
their fitness to atand by each other must be considered in arranging; their capacity for forming a line is the only thing to be attended to in ranging. Classification serves the purposes either of public policy or science; arranging is a matter of convenience to the individual himself ; ranging is a matter of convenience for others: men are classed into different bodies according to some certain standard of property, power, education, oceupation etc.; furniture is arranged in a room. according as it answers in color, shade, convenience of situation, etc.; men are ranged in order whenever they make a procession. All these worda require more or leas exercise of the intellectual faculty, but classing is a more abatract and comprehensive act than either arranging or ranging. All objects, external or inter. nal, may admit of classification, according to their similitudes and differences; but arranging and ranging are particular acts smployed in regard to familiar objeota, and the ordse in which they ought to be placed. Ideas are classed by the logioian into aimple and complex, abstract and concrete ; an individual arranges his own ideas in his mind: words are classed by the grammarian into different parts of spaech : worda are arranged by the writer in a sentence, so as to be suitable. To arrange is a more complex proceeding than simply to range; a merchant or tradesman arranges his affairs when they are got into confusion, but a shopkeeper ranges his goods in such manner as best to set them out to view.

But no aucb constancy can be expected in a people polished by arts and classed by aubordination.

Johnaon.
Yet just arrangement, rarely brought to pass
But by a master's hand diaposing well
The gay diversities of leaf and flower,
Must lend its aid t' illustrate all their charms.
Cowper
Plant belind plant aspiring, in the van
The dwarfish; in the rear retired, but still
Sublime above the rest, the statelier stand.
So once were ranged the gons of ancient Rome. A noble show 1 while Roscius trod the stage. Cowper.
These words are applied figuratively in the same sense.

We are all ranked and classed by Him who seeth into every heart.

Blair
In vain you attempt to regulate your expense, if into yoar amusements, or your society, disor-

Her has crept. You have admitted a principle of confusion which will defeat all your plans, and perplex and entangle what you sought to arrange.

Blaid.
A noble writer should be born with this faculty (a strong imagination), so as to be well able to receive lively ideas from outward objects, to retain them long, and to range them together in such figures and representations as are most likely to hit the fancy of the reader. ADDison.

## CLEAN, CLEANLY, PURE.

CLEAN and CLEANLY is in Saxon slaene. PURE, in French pur, Latin purus.

Clean expresses a freedom from dirt or soil; cleanly the disposition or habit of being clean. A person who keeps himself clean is cleanly; a cleanly servant takes care to keep other things clean. Clean is employed either in the proper or the figurative sense; pure mostly in the moral sense: the hands should be clean; the heart should be pure: it is the first requisite of good writing that it should be clean; it is of the first importance for the morals of youth to be kept pure.

Age itself is not unamiable while tt ls preserved clean and unsullied.

Spectator.
In the East, where the warmth of the climate makes cleanliness more immediately necessary than in colder countries, it is made one part of their religion. The Jewish law, and the Mohammedan, which in some things copies after it, is filled with bathing, purifications, and other rites of the like nature. Though there is the abovenamed convenient reason to be assigned for these ceremonies, the chief intention was to typify inward purity of heart.

Spectator.

## CLEAR, LUCID, BRIGHT, VIVID.

CLEAR, v. To absolve. LUCID, in Latin tucidus, from luceo, to shine, and lux, light, signifies having light. BRIGHT, v. Brightness. VIVID, Latin vividus, from vivo, to live, signifies being in a state of life.

These epithets mark a gradation in their sense; the idea of light is common to them, but clear expresses less than lucid, lucid than bright, and bright less than vivid; a mere freedom from stain or dulness constitutes the clearness; the return of light, and consequent removal of darkness, constitutes lucidity; brightress supposes a certain strength of light; vieidness a freshness combined with the strength, and even a degree of brilliancy:
a sky is clear that is divested of clouds; the atmosphere is lucid in the day, but not in the night; the sun shines bright when it is unobstructed by anything in the atmosphere; lightning sometimes presents a vivid redness, and sometimes a vivid paleness: the light of the stars may be clear, and sometimes bright, but never vivid; the light of the sun is rather bright than clear or vivid; the light of the moon is either clear, bright, or vivid These epithets may with equal propriety be applied to color as well as to light: a elear color is unmixed with any other ; a bright color has something striking and strong in it ; a vivid color something lively and fresh in it.

## Some choose the clearest light,

 And boldly challenge the most piercing eye.Roscommon.
Nor is the stream
Of purest crystal, nor the lucid air, Though one transparent vacancy it seems, Void of their unseen people. THomson.
This place, the brightest mansion of the sky, I'll call tbe palace of the Deity. Dryden
From the moist meadow to the wither'd hill, Led by the breeze, the vivid verdure runs, And swells and deepens to the cherish'd eye.

THOMSON.
In their moral application they preserve a similar distinction: a conscience is said to be clear when it is free from every stain or spot; a deranged understanding may have lucid intervals; a bright intellect throws light on everything around it ; a vivid imagination glows with every image that nature presents.

I look upon a sound imagination as the greatest blessing of life, next to a clear judgment and a good conscience.

Addision.
I believe were Ronsseau alive, and in one of his lucid intervals, he would be shocked at the practical frenzy of his scholars.

Bures.
But in a body which doth freely yield His parts to reason's rule obedient,
There Alma, like a virgin queen most bright, Dotll fiourish in all beauty excellent. Spenseh.
There let the classic page thy fancy lead Through rural scenes, such as the Mantuan swain Paints in the matchless harmony of song ;
Or catch thyself the landscape, gliding swift
Athwart Imagination's vivid eye. Thomson.

## CLEARLY, DISTINCTLY.

That is seen CLEARLY of which one has a clear view independent of anything else; that is seen DISTINCTLY which ic seen so as to distinguish it from other
objects. We see the moon clearly whenever it shines; but we cannot see the spots in the moon distinctly without the help of glasses. What we see distinctly must be seen clearly, but a thing may be seen clearly without being seen distinctly. A want of light, or the intervention of other objects, prevents us from seeing dearly ; distance, or a defect in the sight, prevents us from seeing distinctly. Old men often see clearly, but not distinctly; they perceive large or luminous objects at a distance, but they cannot distinguish such small objects ss the characters of a book without the help of convex glasses; short-sighted persons, on the contrary, see near objects distinctly, but they have no clear vision of distant ones, unless they sre viewed through concave glasses.

The custom of arguing on any side, even against our persuasion, dims the understanding, and makes it by degrees lose the faculty of discerning clearly between truth and falsehood.

LOCKE.
Whether we are able to comprehend all the operations of nature, and the manners of them, it matters not to inquire ; but this is certain, that we can comprehend no more of them than we can distinctly cenceive.

Logke.

## CLEARNESS, PERSPICUITY.

CLEARNESS, from clear (v. Clear, lucid), is bere used figuratively, to mark the degree of light by which one sees things distinctly. PERSPICUITY, in French perspicuité, Latin perspicuitas, from perspicuus and perspicio, to look through, signifies the quality of being able to be seen through.

These epithets denote qualities equally requisite to render a discourse intelligible, but each has its peculiar character. Clearness respects our ideas, and springs from the distinction of the things themselves that are discussed : perspicuity respects the mode of expressing the ideas, and springs from the good qualities of style. It requires a clcar bead to be able to see a subject in all its bearings and relations; to distinguish all the niceties and sbades of difference between things that bear a strong resemblance, and to separate it from all irrelevant objects that intermingle themselves with it. But whatever may he our clearness of conception, it is requisite, if we will communicate our conceptions to others, that we
should observe a purity in our mode ot diction, that we should be particular in the choice of our terms, careful in the disposition of them, snd accurate in the construction of our sentences; that is perspicuity which, as it is the first, so, according to Quintilian, it is the most important part of composition.

Clearness of intellect is a natural gift; perspicuity is an acquired art: slthough intimately connected with each other, yet it is possible to have clearness without perspicuity, snd perspicuity without clearness. People of quick cspacities will have clear ideas on the subjects that offer themselves to their notice, but for want of education they may often use improper or ambiguous phrases; or by errors of construction render their phraseology the reverse of perspicuous: on the other hand, it is in the power of some to express themselves perspicuously on subjects far above their comprehension, from a certain facility which they acquire of catching up suitable modes of expression. The study of the classics and mathematics is most fitted for the improvement of clearness; the study of grammar, and the observance of good models, will serve most effectually for the acquirement of perspicuity.
Whenever men think clearly, and are theroughly interested, they express themselves with perspicuity and force.

Robertson.
Ne modern orator can dare to enter the lists with Demosthenes and Tully. We have discourses, indeed, that may be admitted for their perspicuity, purity, and elegance; bnt can produce none that abound in a sublimity which whirls away the auditor like a mighty torrem.

Wathen.

## CLEMENCY, LENITY, MERCY.

CLEMENCY is in Latin clementia, sig. nifying mildness. LENITY is in Latio lenitas, from lenis, soft, or loevis, smooth, and the Greek $\lambda$ etos, mild. MERCY is in Latin misericordia, compounded of miseria and cordis, i. e., affliction of the beart, siguifying the pain produced by observing the pain of others.

All these terms agree in denoting the disposition or act of forbearing to inflict pain by the exercise of power. Clemency and lenity are employed only toward offenders; mercy toward all who sre in trouble, whether from their own fault, or any other cause. Clemency lies in the dis.
position; lenity and mercy in the act; the former as respects superiors in general, the latter in regard to those who are invested with civil nower: a monarch displays his clemency by showing mercy; a master shows lenity by not inflicting punishment where it is deserved. Clemency is arbitrary on the part of the dispenser, flowing from his will, independent of the object on whom it is bestowed; lenity and nercy are discretionary, they always have regard to the object and the nature of the affence, or misfortunes; lenity, therefore, often serves the purposes of discipline, and mercy thase of justice, by forgiveness instead of punishment ; but clemenoy sometimes defeats its end by forbearing to punish where it is needful. A mild master, who shows clemency to a faithless servant by not bringing him to justice, often throws a worthless wretch upon the public to commit more atrocions depredations. A well-timed lenity sometimes recalls an offender to himself, and brings him hack to good order. Upon this principle the English constitution has wisely left in the bands of the monarch the diseretionary power of showing mercy in all cases that do not demand the utmost rigor of the law.

We wretehed Trojans, toss'd on ev'ry shore, From sea to sea, thy clemency implore; Forbid the fires our shipping to deface, Receive th' unhappy fugitives to grace. Dryden.

The King (Charles II.), with lenity of which the world has had perhaps no other example, declined to be the judge or avenger of his owa or his father's wrongs. Johnson.
The gods (if gods to goodness are inclin'd, If acts of mercy touch their heav'nly mind), And, more than all the gods, your gen'rons heart, Conscions of worth, requite its own desert.

Dnyden.
CLERGYMAN, PARSON, PRIEST, MINISTER.
CLERGYMAN, altered from clerk, clericus, signifies any one hnlding a regular office, and by distinction one who holds the holy officc. PARSON is either changed from person, that is, by distinetion, the person who spiritually presides over a parish, or contracted from parochiannes. PRIEST, in German, ete., priester, comes from the Greek $\pi \rho \varepsilon \sigma \beta u r \varepsilon \rho o s$, signifying an elder who holds the sacerdotal office. MINISTER, in Latin minister a servant, from minor, less or inferior,
signifies literally nne who performs a sub ordinate office, and has been extended ir its meaning to signify generally nne whe officiates or performs an office.

The word clergyman applies to such as are regularly bred according to the forms of the national religion, and applies to none else. In this sense we speak of the English, the French, and Scotch clergy withnut distinction. A parson is a species of clergyman who ranks the highest in the three orders of inferior clergy; that is, parson, vicar, and curate; the parson being a technical term for the rector, or he who holds the living: in its tcchnical sense it has now acquired a definite use; but in general conversation it is become almost a nickname. The word clergyman is always substituted for parson in polite society. When priest respects the Christian religion it is a species of clergyman, that is, one who is ordained to officiate at the altar in distinction from the deacon, who is only an assistant to the priest. But the term priest has likewise an extended meaning in reference to such as hold the sacerdotal character in any form of religion, as the priests of the Jews, or those of the Greeks, Romans, Indians, and the like. A minister is one who actually or habitually officiates. Clergymen are therefore not always strictly ministers; nor are all ministers clergy. men. If a clergyman delegates his functions altngether he is not a minister; nor is he who presides over a dissenting congregation a clergyman. In the former case, however, it would he invidious to deprive the clergyman of the name of minister of the Gospel, but in the latter case it is a misuse of the term clergyman to apply it to any minister who does not officiate according to the form of an establisbed religion.

By a clergyman I mean one in holy orders. Steele
To the time of Edward III. it is probable that the French and English langnages subsisted together throughout the kingdom; the higher orders, both of the clergy and laity, speaking almost universally French; the lower retaining the use of their native tongue.

TyR whitr.
Call a man a priest, or parson, and you set him in some men's esteem ten degrees below his own servant. South.
With leave and honor enter onr abodes, Ye sacred ministers of men and gods.

Pops

CLEVER, SKILFUL, EXPERT, DEXTEROUS, ADROIT.
CLEVER, in French légère, Latin levis, light, signifies the same as quick of understanding. SKILFUL, full of skill. EXPERT, in French experte, Latin expertus, participle of experior, to search or try, signifies searched and tried. DEXTEROUS, in Latin dexter, in Greek de ${ }^{\text {trepos }}$, comparative of $\delta_{\epsilon} \xi_{\iota}$ og, clever, and $\delta_{\in} \xi$ ca, the right hand, because that is the most fitted for action, signifies the quality of doing rightly, as with the right hand. ADROIT is in French adroit, Latin adrectus or rectus, right or straight, signifies right at the moment.

Cleverness is mental power employed in the ordinary concerns of life: a person is clever in business. Skill is both a mental and corporeal power, exerted in mechanical operations and practical sciences : a physician, a lawyer, and an artist, is skilful: one may have a skill in divination, or a skill in painting. Expertness and dexterity require more corporeal than mental power exerted in minor arts and amusements: one is expert at throwing the quoit; dexterous in the management of horses. Adroitness is altogether a corporeal talent, employed only as occasion may require : one is adroit at eluding the blows aimed by an adversary. Cleverness is rather a natural gift; skill is cleverness improved by practice and extended knowledge; expertness is the effect of long practice; dexterity arises from habit combined with agility; adroitness is a speoies of dexterity arising from a natural agility. A person is clever at drawing who shows a taste for it, and executes it well without much instruction: he is skilful in drawing if he understands it both in theory and practice; he is expert in the use of the bow if he can use it with expedition and effect; he is dexterous at any game when he goes through the manœuvres with celerity and an unerring hand; be is adroit if, by a quick, sudden, and well-directed movement of his body, be effects the object he has in view.

My friend bade me welcome, but struck me quite dumb
With tidings that Johnson and Burke wonld not coole :
"And I knew it," be cried: "both eternally fail The one at the House and the other with Thrale. But no matter; I'll warrant we'll make up the party
With two full as clever and ten timea as hearty." Goldmmitn.
There is nothing more graceful than to sae the play atand still for a few moments, and the audience kept in an agreeable suspense, during the silence of a skilful actor.

ADDISON.
O'er bar and shelf the watery path they aound, With deat'rous arm, aagacious of the ground; Fearless they combat every hostile widd, Wheeling in many tracks with course inclin'd, Eoopert to moor, where terrors line the road.

Falconer.
He applied himself next to the coquette's heart, which he likewise laid open with great deaterity.

ADDIaON.
Use yourself to carve adroitly and genteelly.
Chesterfinld.
CLOAK, MASK, BLIND, VEL.
These are figurative terms, expressive of different modes of intentionally keeping something from the view of others. They are borrowed from those familiar objects which serve similar purposes in common life. CLOAK and MASK express figuratively and properly more than BLIND or VEIL. The two former keep the whole object out of sight; the two latter only partially intercept the view. In this figurative sense they are all employed for a bad purpose. The cloak, the mask, and the blind serve to deceive others: the veil serves to deceive one's self. The whole or any part of a character may be concealed by a blind; a part, though not the whole, may be concealed by a mask. A blind is not only employed to conceal the character, but the conduct or proceedings. We carry a cloak and a mask about with us; but a blind is somethiog external. The cloak, as the external garment, is the most convenient of all coverings for entirely keeping concealed what we do not wish to be seen; a good outward deportment serves as a cloak to conceal a bad character. A mask hides only the face; a mask, therefore, serves to conceal only as much as words and looks can effect. A blind is intended to shut out the light and prevent observation; whatever, therefore, conceals the real truth, and prevents suspicion by a false exterior, is a blind. A veil prevents a person from seeing as well as being seen; whatever, therefore,

## CLOISTER

sbscures the mental sight acts as a veil to the mind's eye. Religion is unfortunately the object which may serve to cloak the worst of purposes and the worst of characters: its importance in the eyes of all men makes it the most effectual passport to their countenance and sanction; and its external observances render it the most convenient mode of presenting a false profession to the eyes of the world: those, therefore, who set an undue value on the ceremonial part of religion, do but encourage this most heinous of all sins, by suffering themselves to be imposed upon by a cloak of religious hypocrisy. False friends always wear a mask; they cover a malignant heart under the smiles and endearments of friendship. Illicit traders mostly make use of some blind to facilitate the carrying on their ncfarious practices. Among the various arts resorted to in the metropolis by the needy and profligate, none is so bad as thst which is made to be a blind for the practice of debauchery. Prejudice and passion are the ordinary veils which obscure the judgment, and prevent it from distinguishing the truth.

When the severity of manners is hypocritical, and assumed as a cloak to secret indnlgence, it is one of the worst prostitutions of religion.

Blalr.
Thou art no ruffian, who, beneath the mask Of social commerce, com'st to rob their wealth.

Tromson.
Those who are bountiful to crimes will be rigid to merit, and pennrious to service. Their pennry is even held ont as a blind and cover to their prodigality.

Burke.
As soon as that mysterious veil which covers futarity should be lifted up, all the gayety of life wonld disappear ; its flattering hopes, its pleasing illusions, would vanish, and nothing but vanity and saduess remain.
blair.

## tO CLOG, LOAD, ENCUMBER.

CLOG is probably changed from clot or clod, signifying to put a heavy lump in the way. LOAD, from to load, in Saxon laden, Dutch, etc., laden, signifies to burden with a load. ENCUMBER, compounded of en or in and cumber, in German kummer, sorrow, signifies to burden with trouble.

Clog is figuratively employed for whatever impedes the motion or action of a thing, drawn from the familiar object which is used to impede the motion of
animals: load is used for whatever occa sions an excess of weight, or materials, A wheel is clogged, or a machine is clogged ; a fire may be loaded with coals, or a picture with coloring. The stomach and memory may be either clogged or load$e d$ : in the former case by the introduction of improper food; and in the second case by the introduction of an improper quantity. A memory that is clogged becomes confused, and confounds one thing with another; that which is loaded loses the impression of one object by the introduction of another. Clog and encumber have the common signification of interrupting or troubling by means of something irrelevant. Whatever is clogged has scarcely the liberty of moving at all; whatever is encumbered moves and acts, but with difficulty. When the roots of plants are clogged with mould, or any improper substance, their growth is almost stopped; weeds and noxious plants are encumbrances in the ground where flowers should grow.
Whatsoever was observed by the ancient philosophers, either irregular or defective in the workings of the mind, was all charged upon the body as its great clog.

Sovth.
Butler gives Hudibras that pedantic ostentation of knowledge which has no relation to chivalry, and loade him with martial encumbrances that can add nothing to his civil dignity.

Johnson.
This minority is great and formidable. I da not know whether, if 1 aimed at the total over throw of a kingdom, I should wish to be encum, bered with a large body of partisans. Burki.

## CLOISTER, CONVENT, MONASTERY.

CLOISTER, in French cloître, from the word clos, close, signifies a certain close place in a convent, or an enclosure of houses for canons, or, in general, a religious house. CONVENT, from the Latin conventus, a meeting, and convenio, to come together, signifies a religious assembly. MONASTERY, in French monastère, signifies a habitation for monks, from the Greek $\mu \mathrm{ovog}$, alone

The proper idea of cloister is that of seclusion; the proper idea of convent is that of community; the proper idea of a monastery is that of solitude. One is shut up in a cloister, put into a convent, and retires to a monastery. Whoever wishes to take an absolute leave of the world shuts himself up in a cloister; who-
ever wishes to attach himself to a commuaity that has renounced all commerce with the world goes into a convent ; whoever wishes to shun all human intercourse retires to a monastery. In the cloister our liberty is sacrificed; in the convent our worldly habits are renounced, and those of a regular religious community being adopted, we submit to the yoke of established orders: in a monastery we impose a sort of voluntary exile upon ourselves; we live with the view of living only to God. In the ancient and true monasteries the members divided their time between contemplation and labor; but as population increased, and towns multiplied, monasterics were, properly speaking, succeeded by convents. In ordinary discourse cloister is employed in an absolute and indelinite manner: we speak of the cloister to designate a monastic state; as entering a cloistcr; burying one's self in a cloister; penances and mortifications are practised in a cloister. It is not the same thing when we speak of the cloister of the Benedictines and of their monastery; or the eloister of the Capuchins and their convent.

Some solitary cloister will I ehoose, And there with holy virgins live immur'd.

DHYDEN.
Nor were the new abbots less industrious to stock their convents with forcigners. Tyßwhitt.
Besides independent foundutions, which were opened for the reception of foreign monks in preferenee to the uatives, a cousiderable number of religions houses were built and endowed as cells to different monastories abroad.

List of Englisn Monastemes.

## CLOSE, COMPACT.

CLOSE is from the French clos, and Latin clausus, the participle of claudo, to shut. COMPACT, in Latin compactes, participle of compingo, to fix or join in, signifies jointed close together.

Proximity is expressed by both these terms; the former in a general and the latter in a restricted sense. Two bodies may be close to each other, but a body is compact with regard to itself. Contact is not essential to constitute closeness; but a perfect adhesion of all the parts of a body is essential to produce compactness. Lines are close to each other that are separated but by a small space; things are rolled together in a compact
form that are brought within the small. est possible space.
To right and left the martial wings display
Their shining arms, aod stand in close array ;
Though weak their spears, though dwarfish be their height,
Compact they meve, the bulwark of the fight.
Sib W. Jones.

## Close, NEAR, NIGH.

CLOSE, v. Close, compact. NEAR and NIGH are in Saxon near, neah, German, etc., $n a h$.

Close is more definite than near, houses stand close to each other which are al. most joined; men stand close when they touch each other; objects are near which are within sight; persons are near each other when they can converse together. Near and nigh, which are but variations of each other in etymology, admit of little or no difference in their use; the former, however, is the most general. People live near each other who are in the same street; they live close to each other when their houses are adjoiaing. Close is annexed as an adjective; near is employed only as an adverb or preposition. We speak of close ranks or close lines; but not near ranks or near lines.

Th' unwearied watch their listening leaders keep, And, couching close, repel invading sleep.

Pope.
0 friend! Ulysses' shouts invade my ear;
Distress'd he seems, and no assistance neur.
POPE.
From the red fleld their scatter'd bodies bear, And $n i g h$ the fleet a funeral structure rear.

Pope.

## to Close, shut.

CLOSE, v. Close, compact. SHUT is in Saxon scuttan, Dutch schutten, Hebrew satem.

To close signifies simply to put close together; shut to stop or prevent admittance; closing is therefore a partial shutting, and shutting a complete closing: as to close a door or window is to put it partially to, as distinguished from shutting it, i. e., shutting it close. The eyes are shut by closing the evelids, and the mouth is shut by closing the lips; and by the figure of metonymy to close may therefore often be substituted for shut: as to close the eyes, to close the mouth, partic ularly in poetry.

Sooo shall the dire Seraglio's horrid gates Close like the eternal bars of death upon thee. Joenson.
There is, however, a further distinction between these two words: to close properly denotes the bringing anything close, and may, therefore, be applied to any opening or cavity which may thus be filled up or covered over for a permanency; as to close a wound, to close the entrance to any place; but shutting implies merely an occasional stoppage of an entrance by that which is movable: whatever is shut may be opened in this sense; not ouly a door, a book, or a box, may be shut, but also the ears may be shut. In familiar language it is usual to speak of closing a scene, for putting an end to it; but in poetry the term shut may without impropriety be used in the same sense.

Behold, fond man!
See here thy pictur'd life: pass some few years, Thy flowering spring, thy summer's ardent strength,
Thy sober antumn fading into age, And pale concluding winter comes at last, And shuts the scene.

Thombon.

## to close, CONCLUDE ${ }_{2}$ FINISH.

To CLOSE ( $v$. To close, shut) is to bring toward an end; to CONCLUDE, from con and cludo, or claudo, to shut, i.e., to shut together, signifies to bring actually to an end: FINISH, in Latin finio and finis, an end, signifies also literally to bring to an end. The idea of putting an end to a thing is common to these terms, but they differ in the circumstances of the action. To close is the most indefinite of the three. We may closc at any point by simply ceasing to have any more to do with it; but we conclude in a definite and positive manuer. - Want of time may compel us to close a letter before we have said all we wish to say; a letter is commouly concluded with expressions of kindness or courtesy. Whatever admits of being discontinued is properly said to be olosed; as to close a procession, entertainment, and the like.

The great procession, that closes the festival, began at ten o'clock.

Brydone.
So to close life, a career, etc.
Destruction hangs on every word we speak, On every thought, till the conchuding stroke Determines all, and oloses our design.

Addisen.

Whatever is brought to the last or the desired point is properly said to be con* cluded; as to conclude a speech, a narrative, a business, and the like.
My son's account was too long to be delivered at ooce : the first part of it was begun that oight, and he was concluding the rest after dinner the next day, wheo the appearance of Mr. Thorohill's equipage at the door seemed to make a panse in the general satisfaction.

Goldsmity.
To conclude is to bring to an end by determination; to finish is to bring to an end by completion: what is settled by arrangement and deliberation is properly concluded; what is begun on a certain plan is said to be finished.

A marriage was proposed between them, and at length concluded.

Spectator.
The great work of which Justinian has the credit, although it compreheads the whole system of jurisprudence, was finished, we are told, in three years.

Sie W. Jones.

## COADJUTOR, ASSISTANT.

COADJUTOR, compounded of $c o$ or con and adjutor, a helper, signifies a fel-low-laborer. ASSISTANT signifies properly one that assists or takes a part.

A coadjutor is more noble than an assistant: the latter is mostly in a subordinate station, but the former is an equal; the latter performs menial offices in the minor concerns of life, and a subordinate part at all times; the former labors conjointly in some concern of common interest and great importance. An assistant is engaged for a compensation ; a coadjintor is a voluntary fellow-laborer. In every public concern where the purnoses of charity or religion are to be promoted, coadjutors often effect more than the original promoters: in the medical and scholastic professions assistants are indispensable to relieve the pressure of business. Coadjutors onght to be zealous and unanimous; assistants ought to be assiduous and faithful.

Advices from Vienna import that the Archbishop of Salzburg is dead, who is succeeded by Count Harrach, formerly Bishop of Vienna, and for these three last years coadjutor to the said Archhishop.

Steele.
As for you, gentlemen and ladies, my assiatants and grand juries, I have made choice of you on my right hand, because I know you to be very jealous of your honor: and you on my left, because I know you are very much concerned for the reputation of others.

Abdison.

## COERCE

## COARSE, ROUGH, RUDE.

COARSE, probably from the Gothic kaurids, heavy, answering to our word gross, and the Latin gravis. ROUGH, in Saxon hruh, German rauh, roh, etc. RUDE, in Latln rudis, changed from raudis, comes from $\rho a \beta \delta o s$, a twig, signifying unpeeled.
These epithets are equally applied to what is not polished by art. In the proper sense coarse refers to the composition and materials of bodies, as coarse bread, coarse meat, coarse cloth; rough respects the surface of bodies, as rough wood and rough skin; rude respects the make or fashion of things, as a rude bark, a rude utensil. Coarse is opposed to fine, rough to smooth, rude to polished.
In the figurative application they are dlstingulshed in a similar manncr : coarse language ls used by persons of naturally coarse feeling; rough language by those whose tempers are either naturally or ocoasionally rough; rude language by those who are ignerant of any hetter.
The Aneness and dellcacy of perception which the man of taste acquilres may be mors liable to irritation thans the ooarser feelings of minds less cultivsted.

Craig.
This is eome fellow,
Who having been prais'd for bluntness, doth affect

## A saucy roughnese.

Shakspeare.
Is it in destroying and pulling down that skill in displayed ? the shallowest understanding, the rudset hand, is more than equal to that task.

Burxe.

## TO COAX, WHEEDLE, CAJOLE, FAWN.

COAX probably comes from coke, a simpleton, signifying to treat as a simpleton. WHEEDLE is a frequentative of wheel, signifying to come round a person with smooth art. CAJOLE, in French cajoler, is probably connected with gull, in old French guiller, with the Armoric cangeolir. To FAWN, from the noun fawn, signifies to act or move like a fawn.
The idea of using mean arts to turn people to one's selfish purposes is common to all these terms: coax has something childish in it; wheedle and cajole that which is knavish; fawn that which is servile. The act of coaxing consists of urgent entreaty and whining supplication; the act of wheedling consists of
smooth and winning entreaty ; cajoling consists mostly of trickery and strata. gem, disgulsed under a soft address and Insinuating manners; the act of fawning consists of supplicalit grimace and antics, such as characterize the little animal from which it derives its name: children coox their parents $\ln$ order to obtaln their wishes; the greedy and covetous wheedld those of an easy temper; knaves cajole the simple and unsuspecting; parasites fawn upon those who have the power to contribute to their gratifications: coaxing is mostly resorted to by inferiors toward those on whom they are dependent; wheedling and cajoling are low practices confined to the baser sort of men with each other; fawning, theugh not less mean and disgraceful than the abovementioned vices, is commonly practised only in the higher walks, where men of base character, though not mean educa. tion, oome in conneotion with the great.
The nurse had changed her note, she was nux. aling and couring the child; "That's a good dear," says she.

L'Eltanat.
Regulus gave his son his freedom in order to sntitis him to the eatate left bim by his mother, and when he got into possession of it endeavored (as the character of the men made it generally belleved) to wheedle him out of tit by the most indecent complaisance.

Melmoth'a Letters of Pliny.
I must grant it a just judgment upon poets, that they, whose chief pretence is wit, shonld be treated as they themselves treat fools, that is, be cajoled with pralses.

Popr.
Unhappy he Dreads even to pour his grattitude of heart. Armstrong.

TO COERCE, RESTRAIN.
COERCE, in Latin coerceo, that is, con and arceo, signifies to drive into conformity. RESTRAIN is a variation of restrict (v. To bind).

Coercion is a species of restraint: we always restrain or intend to restrain when we coerce; but we do not always coerce when we restrain: coercion always comprehends the idea of force, restrain that of simply keeping under or back: coercion is always an external application; restraint either external or internal: a person is coerced by others only; he may be restrained by himself as well as others. Coercion acts by a direct application, it opposee force to resistance; re
straint acts indirectly to the prevention of an act: the law restrains all men in their actions more or less; it coerces those who attempt to violate it; the unruly will is coerced; the improper will is restrained. Coercion is exercised; restraint is imposed: punishment, threats, or any actual exercise of authority, coerces; fear, shame, or a remonstrance from others, restrains.

Without coercive power all government is but toothless and precarions, and does not so much command as heg obedience.

South.
The enmity of some men against goodness is so riolent and implacable, that no innocency, no excellence of goodness, how great soever, can restrain their malice.

Tillotson.

## COEVAL, CONTEMPORARY.

COEVAL, from the Latin arum, an age, signifies of the same age. CONTEMPORARY, from tempus, signifies of the same time.

An age is a specifically long space of time; a time is indefinite; hence the application of the terms to things in the first case and to persons in the second: the dispersion of mankind and the confusion of languages were coeval with the building of the tower of Babel; Addison was contemporary with Swift and Pope.

The passion of fear seems coeval with our nature.

Cumberland.
If the elder Orpheus was the disciple of Linus, he must have heen of too early an age to have been contemporary with Fercules; for Orpheus *s placed eleven ages before the siege of Troy.

Cumbenland.

## COGENT, FORCIBLE, STRONG.

COGENT, from the Latin cogo, to compel ; and FORCIBLE, from the verb to force, have equally the sense of acting, by force. STRONG is here figuratively employed for that species of strength which is connected with the mind.

Cogency applies to reasons individually considered: force and strength to modes of reasoning or expression: cogent reasons impel to decisive conduct; strong conviction is produced by forcible reasoning conveyed in strong language: changes of any kind are so seldom attended with benefit to society, that a legislator will be cautious not to adopt them without the most cogent reasons; the important truths of Christianity cannot be prescnted from the pulpit too forcibly to the minds of
men. Accuracy and strength are seldom associated in the same mind; those who accustom themselves to strong language are not very scrupulous about the cor. rectness of their assertions.

Upon men intent only apon truth, the art of an orator has little power; a credible testimony, or a cogent argument, will overcome all the art of modnlation and all the violence of contortion.

Johnsor,
The ingenions author just montioned assured me that the Turkish satires of Ruhi Barg-dadi were very forcible.

Sie W. Jones.
Such is the censure of Demuis. There is, as Dryden expresses it, perhaps " too much horseplay in his raillery ;" but if his jests are coarse, his arguments are strong.

Johnson.

## colleague, partner.

COLLEAGUE, in French collégue, Latin collega, compounded of col or con and legatus, sent, signifies sent or employed upon the same business. PARTNER, from the word part, signifies one having a part or share.

Colleague is more noble than partner: men in the highest offices are colleagues: tradesmen, mechanics, and subordinate persons, are partners: every Roman Consul had a colleague; every workman has commonly a partner. Colleague is used only with regard to community of office; partner is most generally used with regard to community of interest: whenever two persons are employed to act together on the same business they stand in the relation of colleagues to each other; whenever two persons unite their endeavors either in trade or in games, or the husiness of life, they are denominated partners: ministers, judges, commissioners, and plenipotentiaries, are colleagues; bankers, merchants, chess-players, cardplayers, and the like, have partners.
But from this day's decision, from the choice Of his first colleagues, shall sncceeding times Of Edward judge, and on his fame pronounce. West.
And lo! sad partner of the general care, Weary and faint I drive my goats afar.

Warton,

## TO COLOR, DYE, TINGE, STAIN.

To COLOR, in Latin color, probably from colo, to adorn, and the Hebrew bechel, to paint, signifies to put color on or give a color to a thing. To DYE, in Saron deagan, a variation of tinge, signified
to imbue with a color. To TINGE, in Latin tingo, and Greek $\tau \varepsilon \gamma \gamma \omega$, to sprinkle, signifies to touch lightly with a color. STAIN, in French desteindre, a variation of tinge, signifies to put a color on in a bad manner, or give a bad color.

To color, which is the most indefinite of these terms, is employed technically for putting a color on a thing; as to color a drawing.
In artful contest let our warlike train
Move well-dirceted o'er the color'd plain.
Sin W. Jones.
But to color, in the general sense of giving color, may be applied to physical objects; as to color the cheeks.

That childish coloring of her cheels is now ss ungraceful as othat shape would have been when her face wore its real countenance.

Steele.
More commonly, however, to moral objects; as to color a description with the introduction of strong figures, strong facts, or strong descriptions, etc.

There is a kind of confession in your looks which your modesties have not craft enough to cotor.

Suakipeare.
To dye is a process of art, as in the dyeing of cloth, hut the term is applied to objects generally in the sense of imbouing with any substance so as to change the color.

With mutual hlood the Ausonian soil is dyed, While on its borders each their claim decide.

Dryden.
To tinge may be applied to ordinary objects; as to tinge a painting with blue by way of intermixing colors; but it is most appropriately used in poetry.
Now deeper blushes ting'd the glowing aky, And evening rais'd her silver lamp on high.

Sia W. Jones.
Or to moral objects.
Derotion seldom dies in a mind that has reseived au early tincture of it.

ADDIGON.
To stain is used in its proper sense when applied to common objects; as to stain a painting by putting blue instead of red, or to stain anything by giving it an unnatural color.
We had the fortune to see what may he supposed to be the occasion of that opinion which Lacian relates concerning this river (Adonis), that is. that this stream at certain seasons of the
year is of a bloody color; something like tha we actually aaw come to pass, for the water war stained with redneas.

Maundrell.
Whence it has also a moral application in the sense of taking away the purity from a thing; as to stain the reputation or character.

## COLOR, HUE, TINT.

COLOR (v. To color); HUE, in Shxom heye, is probably connected with eye or view; and TINT, from tinge (v. To color), are but modes of color; the former of which expresses a faint or blended color; the latter a shade of color. Between the colors of black and brown, as of all other leading colors, there are various hues and tints, by the due intermixture of which natural objects are rendered beantiful.
Her color chang'd, her face was not the same, And hollow groans from her deep spirit came.

Dryden.
Infinite numbers, delicacies, smell,
With hues on hues, expression cannot paint The breadth of nature, and her endleas bloom.

тионяом
Among them shells of many a tint appear, The heart of Venus, and her pearly ear.

Sin W. Jonea.
COLORABLE, SPECIOUS, OSTENSIBLE, PLAUSIBLE, FEASIBLE.
COLORABLE, from to color or tingt (v. To color), cxpresses the quality of being able to give a fair appearance. SPECIOUS, from the Latin specio, to see, signifies the quality of looking as it ought. OSTENSIBLE, from the Latin ostendo, to show, signifies the quality of being able or fit to be shown or seen. PLAUSIBLE, from plaudo, to clap or make a noise, signifies the quality of sounding as it ought. FEASIBLE, from the French faire, and Latin facio, to do, signifies literally doable; and denotes seemingly practicable.

The first three of these words are figures of speech drawn from what natural. ly pleases the eye; plausible is drawn from what pleases the ear: feasible takes its siguification from what meets the judgment or conviction. What is color able has an aspect or face upon it that lulls suspicion and affords satisfaction; what is specious has a fair outside when contrasted with that which it may possibly conceal; what is ostensible is that
which presents such an appearance as may serve for an indication of something real: what is plausible is that which meets the understandlog merely through the ear; that which is feasible recommends itself from its intrinsic value rather than from any representation given of it. A pretence is colorable when it has the color of truth impressed upon it; it is specious when its fallacy is easily discernible throngh the thin guise it wears; a motive is ostensible which is the ode soonest to be discovered; an exouse is plausible when the well-connected narrative of the maker impresses a belief of its justice: a plan is feasible which recommends itself as fit to be put in execution.

All his (James I, of Scotlanc's) acquisitions, however fatal to the body of the nobles, had been gained by attacks upon individuals; and being founded on cirenmstances peculiar to the persons who suffered, might excite murmurs and apprehensions, but afforded no colorable pretext for a general rebellion.

Robertson.
The guardian ourects one of his pupils to think with the wise, but speak with the vulgar. This is a precept specious enongh, but not always practicable.

Joanson.
What is truly astonishing, the partisans of those two opposite systems were at once prevalent and at once employed, the one ostensibly, the other secretly, during the latter part of the reign of Louis XV.

BUREE.
In this superficial way indeed the mind is eapable of noore variety of plausible talk, bnt is not enlarged as it should be in its knowledge.

Loces.
It is some years since I thought the matter feasible, that if I could by an exuct time-keeper find in any part of the world what o'clock it is at Dover and at the same time where the ship is, the prohlem is solved.
arbuthnot.

## TO COMBAT, OPPOSE.

COMBAT, from the French combattre, to fight together, is used figuratively in the same sense with regard to matters of opinion. OPPOSE, in French opposer, Latin opposui, perfect of oppono, to oppose, compounded of ob and pono, to place one's self in the way, signifies to set one's self against another.

Combat is properly a species of opposing; one always opposes in combating, though not vice versa. To combat is used in regard to speculative matters: oppose in regard to private and personal concerns. A person's positions are combated, his interests or his measures are opposed. The Christian combats the erroneou doc-
trines of the infidel with no other weapon than that of argument; the sophist opposes Christianity with ridicnle and mis. representatica. The most laudable use to which knowledge can be converted is to combat error wherever it presents itself; but there are too many, particularly in the present day, who employ the little pittance of knowledge which they hava collected to no better purpose than to oppose everything that is good, and excito the same spirit of opposition in others.

When fierce temptation, seconded within
By traitor appetite, and armed with darts Tempered in hell, invades the throbbing breast, To combat may be glorions, and success
Perhaps may erown us, but to fly is safo.
Cowper
Tbough various foes against the truth combine, Pride above all opposes ber design. Cowper.

## COMBATANT, CHAMPION.

COMBATANT, from to combat, marks any one that engages in a combat. CHAMPION, French champion, Saxon cempe, German kaempe, signifies originally a soldier or fighter, from the Latin campus, a field of battle.

A combatant fights for himself and for victory; a ohampion fights either for another, or in another's cause. The word combatant has always relation to some actual engagement; champion may be employed for one ready to be engaged, or in the habits of being engaged. The combatants in the Olympic games used to contend for a prize; the Roman gladiators were combatants who fought for their lives: when knight-errantry was in fashion there were ehampions of all descriptions, champions in behalf of distressed females, champions in behalf of the injured and oppressed, or champions in behalf of aggrieved princes. The mere act of fighting constitutes a combatant; the act of standing up in another's defence at a personal risk constitutes the champion. Animals have their combats, and consequently are combatants; but they are seldom champions. There may be champions for causes as well as persons, and for bad as well as good causes; as champions for liberty, for infidelity, and for Christianity.
Conscions that I do not possess the strength, I shall not assume the importance of a ohampion; and as I am not of dignity enough to be angry, I
shall keep my temper and my distance too, skirmishing like those insignificant gentry who play the part of teasers in tbe Spanish bull-fights while holder combatants engage him at the point of his horns.

Cumberaland.
In battle every man should fight as if he was the single champion.

JoHNaON.

## COMBINATLON, CABAL, PLOT, CONSPIRACY.

COMBINATION, v. Association, combination. CABAL, in French cabale, comes from the Hebrew kabala, signifying a secret science pretended to by the Jewish rabbi, whence it is applied to any association that has a pretended secret. PLOT, in French complot, is derived, like the word complicate, from the Latin plico, to entangle, signifying any intricate or dark concern. CONSPIRACY, in French conspiration, from com and spiro, to breathe together, signifies the having one spirit.

An association for a bad purpose is the idea common to all these terms, and peculiar to combination. A combination may be either secret or open, but secrecy forms a necessary part in the signification of the other terms; a cabal is secret as to its end; a plot and conspiracy are secret, both as to the means and the end. Combination is the close adherence of many for their mutual defence in obtaining their demands, or resisting the claims of others. A cabal is the intrigue of a party or faction, formed by cunning practices in order to give a turn to the course of things to their own advantage: the natural and ruling idea in cabal is that of assembling a number, and manœuvring secretly with address. A plot:s a clandestine union of some persons for the purpose of mischief: the ruling idea in a plot is that of a complicated enterprise formed in secret, by two or more persons. A conspiracy is a general intelligence among persons united to effect some serious change: the ruling and natural idea $\ln$ this word is that of unanimity and concert in the prosecution of a plan.

[^24]Dryden.

Oh! think what anxious moments pasa between The birth of plots and their last fatal periods.

ADDISon.
Those who are subjected to wrong under multitudea aeem deserted by mankind, and overpow. ered by a conspiracy of their whole species.

Bures.

## TO COME, ARRIVE.

COME is general ; ARRIVE is particular.

Persons or things come; persons only, or what is personified, arrive. To come specifies neither time nor manner: arrival is employed with regard to some particular period or circumstances. The coming of our Saviour was predicted by the prophets; the arrival of a messenger is expected at a certain hour. We know that evils must come, but we do wisely not to meet them by anticipation; the arrival of a vessel in the haven, after a long and dangerous voyage, is a circumstance of general interest in the neighborhood where it happens.
Hail, rev'rend priestl to Phœbus' awful dome, A suppliant I from great Atrides come. Pope.
Old men love novelties; the last arriv'd
Still pleases best, the youngest steals their smilea.
Yodno.

## COMFORT, PLEASURE.

COMFORT, v. To cheer, encourage. PLEASURE, from to please, signifies what pleases.

Comfort, that genuine English word, describes what England only affords: we may find pleasure in every country; but comfort is to be found in our own country only: the grand feature in comfort is substantiality; in that of pleasure is warmth. Pleasure is quickly succeeded by pain; it is the lot of humanity that to every pleaszure there sbould be an alloy: comfort is that portion of pleasure which seems to lie exempt from this disadvantage; it is the most durable sort of pleasure. Comfort must be sought for at home; pleasure is pursued abroad: comfont depends upon a thousand nameless trifles which daily arise; it is the relicf of a pain, the heightening of a gratification, the supply of a want, or the removal of an inconvenience. Pleasure is the companion of luxury and abun. dance: it dwells in the palaces of the rich and the abodes of the voluptuary. Comfort is less than pleasure in the der

## COMMANDING

tail ; it is more than pleasure in the aggregate.
Thy growing virtues justifled my cares, And promised comfort to my silver hairs.

Pope.
I will believe there are happy tempers in being, to whom all the good that arrives to any of their fellow-creatures gives a pleasure.

Steele.
COMMAND, ORDER, INJUNCTION, PRECEPT.
COMMAND is compounded of com and mando, manudo, or dare in manus, to give into the hand, signifying to give or appoint as a task. ORDER, in the extended sense of regularity, implies what is done in the way of order, or for the sake of regularity. INJUNCTION, in French injunetion, comes from in and jungo, which signifies literally to join or bring close to; figuratively to impress on the mind. PRECEPT, in French précepte, Latin proceptum, participle of prccipio, compounded of proe and capio, to put or lay before, signifies the thing proposed to the mind.

A command is an exercise of power or authority; it is imperative and must be obeyed: an order serves to direct; it is instructive and must be executed.

If you are in anthority, and have a right to command, your commands delivered suaviter in modo will be willingly, cheerfully, and consequently well obeyed.

Ceesterfield.
To exceute laws is a royal office; to execute orders is not to be a king.

Burke.
Command is properly the act of a superior or of one possessing power : order has more respect to the office than to the person. A sovereign issues his commands: orders may be given by a subordinate or by a body; as orders in council, or orders of a court.
There kept the watch the legions while the Grand In council sat, solicitous what chance Might intercept their emperor sent; so he Departing gave command, and they observed.

Militon.
He replied that he would give orders for guards to attend us, that should le answerable for everything.

Brydone.
A command may be divine or given from heaven; an order or injunction is glven by men only.
Tis Heav'n commands me, and you urge in ysip. $\quad$ Pope.

Had any mortal voice th' injunction laid,
Nor angur, seer, or priest had been obey'd.
Popa
A stepdame too I have, a cursed she,
Who rules my henpeck'd sire, and orders me.
Dayden.
Order is applied to the common con cerns of life; injunction and precept tc the moral conduct or duties of men. Injunction imposes a duty by virtue of the authority which enjoins: the precent lays down or teaches such duties as already exist.
This done, Eneas orders for the close,
The strife of archers with contedding bows.
Dryden.
The duties which religion enjoins us to perform toward God are those which have oftenest furnished matter to the scoffs of the licentions. Blatr.
We say not that these ills from virtue flow: Did her wise precepts rule the world, we know The golden ages would again begin. Janyns.

## COMMANDING, IMPERATIVE, IMPERIoUs, aUthoritative.

COMMANDING signifies having the force of a command ( $v$. To command). IMPERATIVE, from impero, signifies in the imperative mood. IMPERIOUS, from impero, signifies in the way of, or like a command. AUTHORITATIVE signifies having authority, or in the way of authority.

Commanding is either good or bad according to circumstances; a commanding voice is necessary for one who bas to command; but a commanding air is offensive when it is affected: imperative is applied to things, and nsed in an indifferent sense: imperious is used for persons or things in the bad sense : any direction is imperative which comes in the shape of a command, and circumstances are likewise imperative which act with the force of a command; persons are imperious who exercise their power oppressively; in this manner underlings in office are imperious; necessity is imperious when it leaves ns no choice in our conduct. Authoritative is mostly applied to persons or things personal in the good sense only; magistrates are called upon to assume an authoritative air when they meet with any resistance.

[^25]Quitting the dry imperative style of an act of Parliament, he (Lord Somers) makes the Lords and Commons fall to a pious legislative ejacnlation.
bunke.
Fear not that I shall watcb, with servile ahame, Th' imperious looks of some proud Grecian dame.

Dryden.
Authoritative instructions, mandates issned, which the member (of Parliament) is bound blindly and implicitly to vote and argue for, though contrary to the clearest convictioo of his judgment and conscience; these are things uttorly unknown to the laws of this land.

BuAze.

## TO COMMISSION, AUTHORIZE, EMPOWER.

COMMISSION, from commit, signifies the act of committing, or putting into the hands of another. To AUTHORIZE signifies to give authority; to EMPOWER, to put in possession of power.

The idea of transferring some business to another is common to these terms ; the circumstances under which this is performed constitute the difference. We commission in ordinary cases; we authorize and empower in extraordinary cases.
We commission in matters where our own will and convenience are comcerned; we authorize in matters where our personal authority is requisite; and we empower in matters where the authority of the law is required. A commission is given by the bare communication of one's wishes; we authorize by a positive and formal declaration to that intent; we empower by the transfer of some legal document. A person is commissioned to make a purchase; he is authorized to communicate what has heen confided to him; he is empowered to rcceive money. Commissioning passes mostly between equals; the performance of commissions is an act of civility ; authorizing and empowering are as often directed to inferiors; they are frequently acts of justice and necessity. Friends give each other commissions; servants and subordinate persons are sometimes authorized to act in the name of their employers; magistrates empower the officers of justice to apprehend individuals or enter houses. We are commissioned by persons only; we are authorized sometimes by circumstances; we are empowered by law.
Oommission' $d$ in alternate watch they stand, The sun's bright portals and the skies command.

PDPE.

A more decisive proof cannot be given of the full conviction of the British nation that the principlea of the Revolntion did not authoriza them to elect kings at pleasure, than their continuing to adopt a plan of hereditary Protestant succession in the old line.
Empower' $d$ the wrath of Gods and men to tame, E'en Jove rever'd the venerable dame. Pops.

## COMMODIOUS, CONVENIENT.

COMMODIOUS, from the Latin commodus, or con and modus, according to the measure and degree required. CON. VENIENT, from the Latin conveniens, participle of con and venio, to come together, signifies that which comes together with something else as it ought.

The commodious is a species of the convenient, namcly, that which men contrive for their convenience. Commodions is therefore mostly applied to that which contributes to the bodily ease and comfort, convenient to whatever suits the purposes of mea in their various transactions: a house, a chair, or a place, is commodious; a time, an opportunity, a season, or the arrival of a person, is convenient.

Such a place cannot be commodious to live in, for being so near the moon, it had been too near the sun.

Raleige.
Behold him now exalted into trust,
His counsels oft convenient, seldom just.
Dhyden.
What is commodious is rendered so by design; what is convenient is so from the nature of the thing: in this sense arguments may he termed commodious which favor a person's ruling propensity or passion.
When a position teems thns with commodious consequences, who can without regret confess it to be false?

Johnaon.

## COMMODITY, GOODS, MERCHANDISE, WARE.

These terms agree in expressing articles of trade under various circumstan. ces. COMMODITY, in Latin commoditas, signifies in its abstract sense convenience, and in an cxtended application anything that is convenient or fit for use, which being also salable, the word has been applied for things that are sold. GOODS, which denotes the thing that is good, has derived its use from the same analogy in its sense as in the former case. MiP.

CHANDISE, in French marchandise, Latin mercatura or merx, Hebrew macar, signifies salable things. WARE, in Saxon wart, German, etc., waare, signifies properly anything manufactured, and, hy an extension of the sense, an article for sale.

Commodity is employed only for articles of the first necessity; it is the source of comfort and object of industry: goods is applied to everything belonging to tradesmen, for which there is a stipulated value; they are sold retail, and are the proper objects of trade: merchandise applies to what belongs to merchants; it is the object of commerce: wares are manufactured, and may be either goods or merchandise: a country has its commodities; a shopkeeper his goods; a merchant his merchandise ; a manufacturer his wares.

Men must have made some considerable progress toward civilization before they acquired the idea of property, so as to he acquainted with the most simple of all contracts, that of exchanging by barter one rude conmodity for another.

Roaeatson.
It gives me very great scandal to observe, wherever I go, how much skill in buying all manner of goods there is necessary to defend yourself from being cheated.

Steele.
If we consider this expensive voyage, which is undertaken in searclı of knowledge, and how few there are who take in any considerable merchandise; how hard is it that the very small number who are distinguisbed with abiitities to know how to vend their wares, should suffer being plundered by privatcers under the very cannon that should protect them !

AdDison.
COMMON, VULGAR, ORDINARY, MEAN.
COMMON, in French commun, Latin communis, from con and munus, the joint office or propecty of many, has regard to the multitude of objects. VULGAR, in French vulgaire, Latin vulgaris, from vulgus, the people, has regard to the number and quality of the persons. ORDINARY, in French ordinaire, Latin ordinarius, from ordo, the order or regular practice, has regard to the repetition or disposition of things. MEAN expresses the same as medium or moderate, from which it is derived.

Familiar use renders things common, vulgar, and ordinary; but what is mean is so of itself : the common, vulgar, and ordinary are therefore frequently, though not always, mean; and, on the contrary, what is mean is not always common, vul-
gar, or ordinary; consequently, in ths primitive sense of these words, the three first are not strictly synonymons with the last: monsters are common in Africa; vulgar reports are little to be relied on; it is an ordinary practice for men to make light of their word.
Men may change their climate, but they cannot
their nature. A man that goes out a fool cannot ride or sail himself into common sense. Addrson.
The poet's thought of directiog Satan to the san. which, in the vulgar opinion of mankind, is the most conspicnous part of the creation, and the placing in it an angel, is a circumstance very finely contrived.

Addison.
It was in the most patient period of Roman ser. vitude that themes of tyrannicide made the ordinary exercises of boys at school.

Burke.
In the figurative sease, in which they convey the idea of low value, they are synonymous with mean; what is to be seen, heard, and enjoyed by everybody is common, and naturally of little value, since the worth of objects frequently depends upon their scarcity, and the difficulty of obtaining them. What is peculiar to common people is vulgar, and consequently worse than common; it is supposed to belong to those who are ignorant and depraved in taste as well as in morals: what is done and seen ordinarily may be done and seen easily; it requires no abilities or mental acquirements; it has nothing striking in it, it excites no interest: what is mean is even below that which is ordinary; there is something defective in it. Common is opposed to rare and refined; vulgar to polite and cultivated; ordinary to the distinguished; mean to the noble: a common mind busies itself with common objects; vulgar habits are easily contracted from a slight intercourse with vulgar people; an ordinary person is seldom associated with elevation of character; and a mean appearance is a certain mark of a degraded condition, if not of a degraded mind.

As it (the right of resistance) was not made for common abuses, so it is not to be agitated by common minds.

Burke.
This distemper of remedy, grown habitual, relaxes and wears out, by a vulgar and prostituted use, the spring of that spirit which is to be excrted on great occasions.

Burke.
A very ondintry telescope shows us that a louse is itself a very lonsy creature. ADdisost

Under his forming hands a creature grew
Mnnlike, but diff'rent sex, so lovely fair,
That what seem'd fair ln all the world seem'd now
Mean, or in her summ'd up.
Milton.

## COMMONLY, GENERALLY, FREQUENTLY, USUALLY.

OOMMONLY, in the form of common (v. Common). GENERALLY, from general, and the Latin genus, the klnd, respects a whole body in distinction from an individual. FREQUENTLY, from frequent, in French fréquent, Latin frequens, from frago, in Greek $\phi \rho a \gamma \omega$ and $\phi \rho a \gamma \nu v \mu$, to go about, signifies properly a crowding. USUALLY, from usual and use, signifies according to use or custom.

What is commonly done is an action common to all; what is generally done is the action of the greatest part; what is frequently done is either the action of many, or an action many times repeated by the same person; what is usually done is done regularly by one or many. Commonly is opposed to rarely; generally and frequently to ocoasionally or seldom; usually to casually: men commonly judge of others by themselves; those who judge by the mere exterlor are generally deceived; but notwithstanding every precaution, one is frequently exposed to gross frauds; a man of business osually repairs to his counting-house every day at a certain hour.

It is commonly observed among soldiers and seamen, that though there is much kipdness, there is little grief.

It is generally not so much the desire of men, sunk into depravity, to deceive the world, as themselves.

Johngon.
It is too frequently the pride of students to despise those amusements and recreatinns which give to the rest of mankind strength of limbs and cheerfulness of heart.

Johnson.
The inefficacy of advice is usually the fanlt of the counsellinr.

Jonnson.

## COMMOTION, DISTURBANCE.

COMMOTION, compounded of com or oum, tagether, and motion, signifying properly a motion of several together, expresses more than DISTURBANCE, which denotes the state of being disturbed (v. To trouble). When applied to physical objects, commotion denotes the violent motion of several abjects, or of
the several parts of any individual thing; disturbance denotes any motion or noisa which puts a thing out of its natural state. We speak of the commation of the elements, or the stillness of the night being disturbed by the rustling of the leaves.
Ocean, unequally press'd, with broken tide And blind commotion heaves.

Thomson.
When no rudc gale disturbs the sleeping trees, Nor aspen leaves confess the gentle breeze, Gay.

In respect to men or animals, commation and disturbance may be either inward or outward with a like distinction in their signification. A commotion supposes a motion of all the feelings ; a disturbance of the mind may amount to no more than an interruption of tbe quiet to an indefinite degree.

Imagined worth
Holds in his blood such swoln and hot discourse That 'twixt his mental and his active parts, Kingdom'd Achilles in commotion rages.

Shakspeabe.
Some shrirt confused speeches show an inagination disturbed with guilt as he is expiring.

Addigon.
So in regard to external circumstances: a commotion in public is ocoasioned by extraordinary circumstances, and is accompanied with unusual bustle and movement ; whatever interrupts the peace of a neighborhood is a disturbance: political events occasion a commotion; drunkenness is a common cause of disturbances in the streets or in families.
Nothing can be more absurd than that perpetual contest fur wealth which keeps the world in commotion.

Johnson.
A species of men to whom a state of order would become a sentence of obscurity, are nourished into a dangerous magnitude by the heat of intestine disturbances.

Buake.

## TO COMMUNICATE, IMPART.

To COMMUNICATE, from the Latin communis, common, signifies to make common, or give a joint possession or enjoyment: to IMPART, from in and part, signifies to give in part or make partak. er. Both these words denote the giving some part of what one has in his power or possession; but the former is more general and indefinite in its signification and application than the latter. A thing may be communicated directly or indirectly , and to any number of persons; as to
communicate intelligence by signal or otherwise. Impart is a direct action that passes between individuals ; as to impart instruction.

A man who publishes his works in a volume has an infinite advantage over one who communicates his writings to the world in loose tracts. ADDISON.
Yet hear what an unskilful friend may say, As if a blind man should direct your way: So I myself, though wanting to be taught,
May yet imparta hint that's worth your thought. Goldine.
What is communicated may be a matter of interest to the person communicating or otherwise; but what is imparted is commonly and properly that which interests both parties. A man may communicate the secrets of another as well as bis own; he intparts his sentiments and feelings to a friend.

This objection would be material were the letters which I communicate to the public stuffed with my own commendations. Spectator.

Tbere is no man that imparteth his joys to his friend, but he joyeth the more, and no man that imparteth his griefs to his friend, but he grieveth the less.

Bacon.

## COMMUNION, CONVERSE.

COMMUNION, from commune and common, signifies the act of making common (v. Common). CONVERSE, from the Latin converto, to convert or translate, signifies a transferring.

Both these terms imply a communication between minds; but the former may take place without corporeal agency, the latter never does; spirits hold communion with each other; people hold converse. For the same reason a man may hold communion with himself; he holds converse always with another.
Where a long course of piety and close communion with God has purged the heart and rectified the will, knowledge will break in apon such a soul.

South.
In varied converse softening every theme, You frequent pansing turin; and from her eyes, Where meeken'd sense, and amiable grace, And lively sweetness dwell, enraptur'd drink That nameless spirit of ethereal joy. Tinomson.

## COMMUNITY, SOCIETY.

Both tlacse terms are employed for a body of rational beings. COMMUNITY, from communitas and communis, common (v. Common), signifies ahstractedly the
state of being common, and in an extenco ed sense those who are in a state of com. mon possession. SOCIETY, in Latin so. cietas, from socius, a companion, signifies the state of heing companions, or those who are in that state.

Community in anything constitutes a community; a common interest, a common language, a common government, is the basis of that community which is formed by any number of individuals; the coming together of many and keeping together under given laws and for given purposes constitutes a society; societies are either public or private, according to the purpose: friends form societies for pleasure, indifferent persons form societies for business. The term communi$t y$ is therefore appropriately applied to indefinite numbers, and society in cases where the number is restricted by the nature of the union.

The great community of mankind is necessarily broken into smaller independent societiee.

Jonnson.
The term community may likewise be applied to a small body, and in some cases be indifferently used for society; but as it always retains its generality of meaning, the term society is more proper where the idea of a close union, a tie, or obligation/s to be expressed; as, every member of the community is equally interested; every member of the society is bound to contribute.

Was there ever any community so corrupt as not to include within it individuals of real worth? Blaik.
All societies, great and small, subsist upon tinis condition, that as the individuals derive advantages from union, they may likewise suffer inconveniences.

Johnson.

## COMPARISON, CONTRAST.

COMPARISON, from compare, and the Latin comparo, or com and par, equal, signifies the putting together of equals. CONTRAST, in French contraster, Latin contrasto, or contra and sto, to stand against, siguifies the placing one thing opposite to another.

Likeness in the quality and difference in the degree are requisite for a comparison; likeness in the degree and opposition in the quality are requisite for a contrast things of the same color are
compared; those of an opposite color are contrasted: a comparison is made between two shades or red; a contrast between black and white. Comparison is of a practical utility, it serves to ascertain the true relation of objects; contrast is of utility among poets, it serves to heighten the effect of opposite qualities: things are large or small by comparison; they are magnified or diminished in one's mind by contrast: the value of a coin is best learned by comparing it with another of the same metal; the generosity of one person is most strongly felt when contrasted with the meanness of another.

They who are apt to remind us of their ancestors only put us upon making comparisons to their own disadvantage.
spectator.
In lovely contrast to this glorious view, Calmly magnificent, then will we turn
To where the silver Thames first rural grows.
Tromson.

## COMPATIBLE, CONSISTENT.

COMPATIBLE, compouoded of com or cum, with, and patior, to suffer, signifies a fitness to be suffered together. CONSISTENT, in Latin consistens, participle of consisto, compounded of con and sisto, to place, signifies the fitness to be placed rogether.

Compatibility has principally n. referonce to plans and measures; consistency so character, conduct, and station. Everything is compatible with a plan which does not interrupt its prosecution; everything is consistent with a person's station by which it is neither degraded nor elevated. It is not compatible with the good discipline of a school to allow of foreign interfereace; it is not consistent with the elevated and dignified character of a clergyman to engage in the ordinary pursuits of other men.

Whatever is ineompatible with the highest dignity of our nature should indeed be excluded rom our conversation. Hawkesworte.
Truth is always consistent with itself, and needs nothing to help it out.

Tillotson.
TO COMPEL, FORCE, OBLIGE, NECESSItate.
All these terms denote the application of force either on the body or the mind in order to influence the conduct. To COMPEL, from the Latip com and pello,
to drive, signifying to drive to a specifis point, denotes rather moral than physical force; but to FORCE, signifying to effect by force, is properly applied to the use of physical force or a violent degree of moral force. A man may be compelled to walk if he have no means of riding; he may be forced to go at the will of an. other.

You will compel me, then, to read the will.
Shakspeates,
With fates averse, the rout in arms resort
To foroe their monarch, and insult the court.
Dryden.
These terms may, therefore, be applied to the same objects to denote different degrees of force.

He would the ghosts of slaughter'd soldiers call, These his dread wands did to short life compol, And forc'd the fate of hattles to foretell.

Dryden.
Compel expresses a direct and powerful force on the will, which leaves no choice. OBLIGE, from ob and ligo, to bind, signifying to bind or keep down to a particular point, expresses only an indirect influence, which may be resisted or yielded at discretion; we are compelled to do that which is repugnant to our will and our feelings; that which one is obliged to do may have the assent of the judgment if not of the will. Want compels men to do many things which are inconsistent with their station and painful to their feelings. Honor and religion oblige men scrupulously to observe their word one to another.

But first the lawless tyrant, who denies To know their God, or message to regard, Must be compell'd by signs and judgments dire. Milton.
He that once owes more than he can pay is often obliged to bribe his creditors to patience by increasing his debt. JOENSON.

Compel, force, and oblige are mostly the acts of persons in the proper sense. NECESSITATE, which signifies to lay under a necessity, is properly the act of things. We are necessitated by circumstances, or by anything which puts it out of our power to do otherwise.

I have sometimes fancied that women have not a retentive power, or the faculty of suppressing their thoughts, but that they are necessitated to speak everything they think.

ADDLION.

COMPRNSATION, AMENDG, SATISFACTION, RECOMPENSE, REMUNERATION, REQUITAL, REWARD.
All these terms imply some return or equivalent for somethiug else, good or bad. COMPENSATION, from pendo, to pay, signifies literally what is given or paid in return for another thing. AMENDS, from amend, signifies that which amends or makes good. SATISFACTION, that which satisfies or makes up something wanted. RECOMPENSE, from pensum, participle of pendo, that which pays back. REMUNERATION, from mumus, a gift or reward, that which is given back by way of reward. REQUITAL, from to quit, that which acquits in return. The three first of these terms denote a return or equivalent for something amiss or wanting; the three last a return for some good.

A compensation is a return for a loss or damage sustained; justice requires that it should be equal in value, although not alike in kind.
All other dehta may componsation find, But love ia strict, and will be pald in kind.

DRyden.
Amends is a return for anything that is faulty in ourselves or toward others. A person may make amends for idleness at one time by a double portion of diligence at another.

Addisen had made his Sir Andrew Freeport a true Whig, arguing against giving charity to beggars, and throwing out other such ungracious sentiments, but that he had thought better, and had made amenda by making him found a hospital for decayed farmera.

Jobnaon.
A man may make anottrer amends for sny hardship done to him by showing him some extra favor another way.
The law seems to be pretty rigid and severe against the bankrupt; but in case he proves to be honest, it makes him full amendes for all this rigor and severity.

Blackstone.
Satisfaction is that which satisfies the individual requiring it; it is given for personal injuries, and may be made either by a slight return or otherwise, accordiog to the disposition of the person to be satisfied. As regards man and man, affronts are often unreal, and the satisfaction demanded is still oftener abaurd and unchristian-like. As regards
man and his Maker, salisfaction is for out offences, whlch Divine Justice demands and Ditine Mercy accepts.
Die he, or justice must for him
Some other able, and as willing pay
Tbe rigid aatidfaction death for death!
Milton.
Compensation and amends may both denote a simple equivalent, without any reference to that which is personal. A compensation in this case may be an advantage one way to counterbalance a disadvantage another way.

He stipulates to repay annually, during hia life, amme part of tbe money horrowed, together with legal interest and an additional compansation for the extraordinary hazard run. Bhacestone.
Or it may be the putting one desirabla thing of equal value in the place of another.
What imprevement you might gain by ceming to Lenden you may easily supply or compensate by enjoining yearself aome partioular study at homa.

Johnaon.
An amends supplies a defect by something superabundant in another part.

Nature has obacurely fitted the mole with eyea; but for amende, what ahe is capable of for her defence, and warning of danger, sha has very eminently conferted upon her, for she is very qulek of hearing.

AdDisos.
Compensation is sometimes taken for a payment or some indefinite return for a service or good done: this brlags it nearer in sense to the words recompense and remuneration, with this difference, that the compensation is given for bodily labor, or inferior services; recompense and remuneration for that which is done by persons in a superior condition. The time and strength of a poor man ought not to be used without his receiving a compensation.
The representatives of the tenant for life shall have the emblements to compenaate for the laber and expense of tillage.

Blaoketone.
A recompense is a voluntary return for a voluntary service; it is made from a generous feeling, and derives its value not so much from the magnitude of the servica or returu, as from the intentions of the parties toward each other; and it is received not so much as a matter of right as of courtesy: there are a thousand acts of civility performed by others which may be entitiled to some recomponse.

Thon'rt so far before, That switest wing of recompense is slow To overtake thee.

Silarspeare.
Remunucration is not so voluntary as recompense, but it is equally indefinite, being estimated rather according to the condition of the person and the dignity of the service, than its positive worth. Authors often receive a remuneration for their works according to the reputation they have previously acquired, and not according to the real merit of the work.

Remuneratory honors are proportioned at once to the usefulness and difficulty of performances.

JOLINBON.
Requital is the return of a kinduess, the making it is an act of gratitude.

As the world is unjust in its judgments, so it to ungrateful in its requitals.

Blair.
REWARD, from ward, and the German währen, to see, signifies properly a looking back upon, i. e., a return that has respect to something else. A reward conveys no idea of an obligation on the part of the person making it; whocver rewards acts optionally. It is the conduct which produces the reward, and consequently this term, unlike all the others, denotes a return for either good or evil. Whatever accrues to man as the consequence of his conduct, be it good or bad, is a reward. The reward of industry is ease and content.

There are no honorary rewards among us Which are more esteemed by the person who receives them, and are cheaper to the prince, than the giving of medals.

Addison.
When a deceiver is caught in his own snare, he meets with the reword which should always attend deceit.
Follow your envions courses, men of malice;
Yon have Christian warrant for them, and no doubt
In time they will find their fit reward.
Sharspeare.
A compensation, recompense, requital, and reward may be a bad as well as a good return. That which ill supplies the thing wanted is a bad compensation; honor is but a poor compensation for the loss of health.

No greatness in the manner ean effectually compersate for the waut of proper dimensione.

Burke.
That which does not answer one's expectations is a bad recompense; there are
many things which people pursue with much eagerness that do not recompens the trouble bestowed upon them.
Is this the love, is this the racompenses Of mine to thee, ungratefinl Eve ?

Miton.
When evil is returned for good, that is a bad requital, and, as a proof of ingratitude, wounds the feelings. Those who befriend the wicked may expect to be ill requited.
What bere we call our life is such, So little to be loved, and thou so much, That I should ill requite thee to eonstrain Thy unbound spirit into bonds again. Cowper.

A reward may be a bad return when it is inadequate to the merits of the person.
Have I with all my full affections
Still met the King? lov'd him next heaven? obey'd him ?
Been, out of fondness, superstitious to him? Almost forgot my prayers to content him? And am I thus rewarded? Shakspeare.

## COMPETENT, FITTED, QUALIFIED.

COMPETENT, in Lalin competens, participle of competo, to agree or suit, signifies suitable. FTTTED, from fit (v.Be coming). QUAEIFIED, participle of qualify, from the Latin qualis and facio, signifies made or become what it ought to be.

Competency mostly respects the mental endowments and attainments; fitness the disposition and character; qualification the artificial acquirements or natural qualities. A person is competent to undertake an office; fitted c" qualified to fill a situation. Familiarity with any subject aided by strong mental endowments gives competcncy: suitable habits and temper constitute the fitness: acquaintance with the business to be done, and expertness in the made of performing it, constitute the qualification. none should pretend to give their opinions on serious subjects who are not competent judges; none but lawyers are competent to decide in cases of law; none but medical men are competent to prescribe medicines: none but divines of sound learaing, as well as piety, to determine on doctrinal questions: men of sedentary and studious habits, with a serious temper, are most fitted to be clergymen: and those who have the most learning and acquaint
ance with the Holy Scriptures are the best qualified for the important and saared office of instructing the people. Many are qualified for managing the eoncerns of others who would not be competent to manage a concern for themselves. Many who are fitted, from their turn of mind, for any particular charge may be infortunately incompetent for want of the requisite qualifications.
Man is not competent to decide upon the good or evil of many events which befall him in this life.

Comberlana.
What is more ohvious and ordinary than a mole? and yet what more palpable argument of Providence than it? The members of her body are so exactly fitted to her nature and manner of life.

ADnlson.
Such benefits only can be bestowed as others are capable to receive, and such pleasures imparted as others are qualified to enjoy.

Jounson.
COMPETITION, EMULATION, RIVALRY,
COMPETITION, from the Latin competo, compounded of com and peto, signifies to sue or seek together, to seek for the same object. EMULATION, in Latin emulatio, from cemulor, and the Greek $a \mu \lambda \lambda a$, a contest, signifies the spirit of contending. RIVALRY, from the Latin rivus, the bank of a stream, signifies the undivided or common enjoyment of any stream which is a natural source of discord.

Competition is properly an act, emulation is a feeling or temper of mind which incites to action, and emulation, therefore, frequently furnishes the motive for competition; the bare action of seeking the same object constitutes the competition; the desire of excelling is the principal characteristic in emulation. Competition, therefore, applies to matters either of interest or honor where more thau one person strive to gain a particular object, as competition for the purchase of a commodity or for a prize. Emulation is confined to matters that admit of superiority and distinction.
It cannot he doubted hut there is as great a desire of glory in a ring of wrestlers or cudgelplayers as in any other more refined competition for superiority.

Hughes.
Of the ancients enough remains to excite our omulation and direct our endeavors. Jounson.

Rivalry resembles emulation as far as it has most respect to the feeling, and
competition as far as it has respeet to the action. But competition and emulation have for the most part a laudable objeet, and proceed in the attainment of it by honest means; rivalry has always a selfish object, and is often but little scrupulous in the choice of the means: a competitor may be unfair, but a rival is very rarely generous. There are competitors for office, or competitors at publie games, and rivals for the favor of others.

To be no man's rival in love, or competitor in business, is a character which, if it does not recommend you as it ought to benevolence among those whom you live with, yet has it certainly this effect, that you do not stand so much in need of their approbation as if you aimed at more.

Steele.
When emulation degenerates into a desire for petty distinctions, it is near akin to rivalry.

Men have a foolish manner (both parents and school-masters and servants) in ereating and breeding an emulation between brothers during childhood, which many times sorteth to discord when they grow up.

Bacon.
Competitors must always come in close collision, as they seek for the same individual thing; but rivals may aet at a distance, as they only work toward the same point: there may be rivalry between states which vie with each other in greatness or power, but there cannot properly be competition.
The refiners thought Lord Halifax, who saw himself topped by Lord Sunderland's credit and station at court, resolved to fall in with the King, on the point then in debate ahout the bill of exclusion, wherein he found the King steady, and that Lord Sunderland would lose himself : so that falling into confidence with the King npon such a turn, he shonld be alone chief in the ministry without a competitor. Sir W. Temple.

The Corinthians were the first people who in reality became a maritime power. Their neighbors in the Isle of Corcyra soon followed their example, and though originally a colony of their own, became a rival power at sea. Smita.

TO COMPLAIN, LAMENT, REGRET.
COMPLAIN, in French complaindre or plaindre, Latin plango, to beat the breast as a sign of grief, in Greek $\pi \lambda \eta \gamma \omega$, to strike. LAMENT, v. To bewail. REGRET, compounded of re privative, and gratus, grateful, signifies to have a feeling the reverse of pleasant.

Complaint marks most of dissatisfaction; lamentation most of grief; regrel
most of pain. Complaint is expressed verbally; lamentation either by words or sigus; regret may be felt without being expressed. Complaint is made of personal grievances; lamentation and regret may be made on account of others as well as ourselves. We complain of our ill health, of our inconveniences, or of troublcsome circumstances; we lament our inability to serve another; we regret the absence of one whom we love. Selfish people have the most to complain of, as they demand most of others, and are most liable to be disappointed: anxious people are the most liable to lament, as they feel everything strongly; the bestregulated mind may have occasion to regret some circumstances which give pain to the tender affections of the heart.

You are always complaining of melancholy, and 1 conclude from these complaints that you are fond of it.

Jounson.
The only reason why we lament a soldier's death is that we think he might have lived longer.

Johnson.
The cup was all filld, and tle leaves were all wet, And it seem'd to a fanciful view
To weep for the buds it had left with regret
On the flourishing bush where it grew.
COwPEA.
We may complain without any cause, and lament beyond what the cause requires; but regret is always founded on some real cause, and never exceeds in measure.

We all of us complain of the shortness of time, saith Seneca, and yet have mnch more than we know what to do with.

AdDISON.
Surely to dread the future is more reasonable than to lament the past. Johnson.
Regret is useful and virtuous when it tends to the amendment of life.

Johnson.
TO COMPLAIN, MURMUR, REPINE.
COMPLAIN, v. To complain. MURMUR, in German murmeln, conveys, both In sound and sense, the idea of dissatisfaction. REPINE is compounded of re and pine, from the English pain, Latin poena, punishment, and the Greek $\pi \varepsilon \iota v a$, bunger, signifying to think on with pain.

The idea of expressing displeasure or dissatisfaction of what is done by others is common to these terms. Complaint is not so loud as murmuring, but more so than repining. We complain or nurmur by some audible method; we may repine
secretly. Complaints are always addressed to some one; murmurs and repinings are often addressed only to one's self. Complaints are made of whatever creates uneasiness, without regard to the source from which they flow; murmurings are a species of complaints made only of that which is done by others for our incon. venience; when used in relation to persons, complaint is the act of a superior, or of one who has a right to express his dissatisfaction; murmuring that of an inferior, or one who is subject to another. When the conduct of another offends, it calls for complaint; when a superior aggrieves by the imposition of what is burdensome, it occasions murmuring on the part of the aggrieved.
When did I complain of your letters being too long ?

Johnson.
The fiend look'd up and knew
His mounted scale aloft; nor more hut fled Mfurmuring.

Milton.
Complain and murmur may sometimes signify to be dissatisfied simply, without implying any direct expression which bring them nearer to the word repine; in this case complain expresses a less violent dissatisfaction than murmur, and both more than repine, which implies what is deep seated. With this distinction they may all be employed to denote the dissatisfaction produced by events that inevitably happen. Men may be said to complain, murmur, or repine at their lot.

I'll not complain;
Children and cowards rail at their misfortunes.
Trapp.
Yet 0 my soul! thy rising mummurs stay,
Nor dare th' Allwise Disposer to arraigu; Or against his supreme decree, With impious grief complain.

Lyttieton.
Would all the deities of Greece combine, In vain the gloomy thund'rer might repine; Sole should he sit, with scarce a god to friend, And see his Trojans to the shades descend. Pope.

## COMPLAINT, ACCUSATION.

COMPLAINT, $v$, To complain. ACCUSATION, v. To accuse. Both these terms arc employed in regard to the conduct of others, but a complaint is mostly made in matters that personally affect the complainant ; an accusation is made of matters in general, but especially those of a moral nature. A complaint is made for the sake of obtaining redress; an accu
sation is made for the sake of ascertaining a fact or bringing to punishment. A complaint may be frivolous; an accusation false. People in subordinate stations should be careful to give no cause for complaint: the most guarded conduct will not protect any person from the unjust accusations of the malevolent.

On this occasion (of an interview with Addison), Pope made his complaint with frankness and spirit, as a man undeservedly neglected and opposed.

Johnaion.
With gnilt enter distrust and discord, mutual accusution and stubborn self-defence. Jounson.

## COMPLAISANCE, DEFERENCE, CONDESCENSION.

COMPLAISANCE, from com and plaire, to please, signifies the act of complying with, or pleasing others. DEFERENCE, in French déférence, from the Latin defero, to bear down, marks the inclination to deter, or acquiesce in the sentiments of another in preference to one's own. CONDESCENSION marks the act of condescending from one's own height to yield to the satisfaction of others, rather than rigorously to exact one's rights.

The necessities, the conveniences, the accommodations and allurements of society, of familiarity, and of intimacy, lead to complaisance: it makes sacrifices to the wishes, tastes, comforts, enjoyments, and personal feelings of others. Age, rank, dignity, and personal merit, call for deference: it enjoins compliance with respect to our opinions, judgments, pretensions, and designs. The infirmities, the wants, the defects and foibles of others, call for condescension: it relaxes the rigor of authority, and removes the distinction of rank or station. Complaisance is the act of an equal ; deference that of an inferior; condescension that of a superior. Complaisance is due from one well-bred person to another; deference is due to all superiors in age, knowledge, or station, whom one approaches; condescension is due from all superiors to such as are dependent on them for comfort and enjoyment. All these qualities spring from a refinement of humanits; but complaisance has most of genuine kindness in its nature; deference most of respectful submission ; condescension most of easy indulgence.

Complaisance renders a superior amiable, at equal agreeable, and an inferior acceptable.

## Addison.

Tom Courtly never fails of paying his obeisance to every man he sees, who has title or offlice to make hin conspicnous; but his deference is wholly given to outward consideration. SteELE.
The same noble condescension which never dwells but in truly great minds, and such as Homer would represent that of Ulysses to have been, discovers itself likewise in the speech which he mude to the ghost of Ajax.

Addison.

## COMPLETE, PERFECT, FINISHED.

COMPLETE, in French complet, Latin completus, participle of compleo, to fill up, signifies the quality of being filled, or having all that is necessary. PERFECT, in Latin perfectus, participle of perficio, to perform or do thoroughly, signifies the state of being done thoroughly. FIN. ISHED, from finish (v. To close), marks the state of being finished.

That is complete which has no deficien cy: that is perfect which has positive excellence; and that is finished which has no omission in it. That to which anything can be added is incomplete; when it can be improved, it is imperfect; when more labor ought to be bestowed upon it, it is unfinished. A thing is complete in all its parts; perfect as to the beauty and design of the construction; and finished as it comes from the band of the work man and answers his intention. A set of books is not complate when a vorume is wanting: there is nothing in the proper sense perfect which is the work of man, but the term is used relatively for whatever makes the greatest approach to per. fcction: a finished performance evinces care and diligence on the part of the workman. These terms admit of the same distinction when applied to moral or intellectual objects.
None better guard against a cheat, Than he who is a knave complete.

Lewis.
It has been observed of children, that they are longer before they can pronounce perfect sounds, because perfect sounds are not pronounced ti them.

Hawkeswortif.
It is necessary for a man who wonld form to himself a finished taste of good writiug, to be well versed in the works of the best critics anrient and modern.

> ADDISON.

## TO COMPLETE, FINISH, TERMINATE.

We COMPLETE, that is, make conl. plete (v. Complete), what ia undertaken

## COMPLY

hy continuing to labor at it. We FINJ8H ( $\%$. To close) what is begun in a state of forwardness by putting the last band to it. We TERMINATE what ought not to last by bringing it to a close, from terminus, a term, a boundary, signifying to set bounds to a thing.
The characteristic idea of completing is tbat of making a thing altogetber what it ought to be; that of finishing, the doing all that is intended to be done toward a thing; and that of terminating, simply putting an end to a thing. Completing bas properly relation to permauent works only, whether mechanical or intellectual; we desire a thing to be completed from a curiosity to see it in its entire state. To finish is employed for passing occupations; we wish a thing finished from an anxiety to proceed to something else, or a dislike to the thing in which we are engaged. Terminating respects space or time: a view may be terminated, a life may be terminated, or that to which one may put a term, as to terminate a dispute. Light minds undertake many things without completing any. Children and unsteady people set about many things without finishing any. Litigious people terminate one dispute only to commence another.
It is perhaps kindly provided by nature, that as the feathers and strength of a bird grow together, and her wings are not completed till she is able to fly, se some prepertion should be preserved in the human kind between judgment and coorage.

Johmson.
The artificer, for the manufacture which he finishea in a day, receives a certain sum; but the wit frequently gains no advantage from a perfermance at which he has toiled many months.

Hawkesworth.
The thought " that our existence terminate* with this lifo," deth naturally check the soul in any generous pursuit. Berkeley.

## COMPLEXITY, COMPLICATION, INTRICACY.

COMPLEXITY and COMPLICATION, in Freach complication, Latin complicatio sud complico, compounded of com and plico, signifies a folding one thing within another. INTRICACY, Latin intricatio and intrico, compounded of in and tricee, or trices, small hairs which are used to ensnare birds, signifies a state of entanglement by means of many involutions.

Complexity expresses the abstract qual-
ity or state; complication the act: they both convey less than intricacy; intricat is that which is very complicated. Complexity arises from a multitude of objects, and the nature of these objects; compli. cation from an involvement of objects; and intricacy from a winding and confused involution. What is complex must be decomposed; what is complicated must be developed; what is intricate must be unravelled. A proposition is complex, affairs are complicated; the law is intri. cate. The complexity of a subject often deters young persons from application to their business. There is nothing embar. rasses a physician more than a complica tion of disorders, where the remedy for one impedes the cure for the other. Soms affairs are involved in such a degree of intricacy as to exhaust the patience and perseverance of the most laborious.

Through the disclesing deep
Light my blind way; the mineral strata there Thrust blooming, thence the vegetable world, O'er that the rising system mere complew
Of animals, and higher still the nind. Thomson.
Every living creaturc, considered in itself, has many very complicated parts that are exact copies of some other parts which it possesses, and which are complicated in the same manner.

Addrson.
When the mind, by insensible degrees, has brought itself to attention and close thinking, it will be able to cope with difficulties. Every abstruse problem, every intricate question, will net baffle or break it.

Locke.

## TO COMPLY, CONFORM, YIELD, SUBMIT.

COMPLY, v. To accede. CONFORM, compounded of con and form, signifies to put into the same form. YIELD, v. To aricede. SUBMIT, in Latin submitto, compounded of sub and mitto, signifies to put under, that is to say, to put one's self under another person. Compliance and conformity are voluntary ; yielding and submission are involuntary. Compliance is an act of the inclination; conformity an act of the judgment: compliance is altogether optional; we comply with a thing or not, at pleasure: conformity is bioding on the conscience; it relates to matters in which there is a right and a wrong. Compliance with the fashions and customs of those we live with is a natural propensity of the human mind tbat may be mostly indulged without impropriety:
conformity in religious matters, though not to be enforced by human law, is not on that account less binding on the consciences of every member in the community ; the violation of this duty on trivial grounds involves in it that of more than one branch of the, moral law.
I would not be thought in any part of this relation to reflect upon Signor Nicolini, who in acting this part only complies with the wretched taste of his audience.

Addrson.
Being of a lay profession, I humbly conform to the constitutions of the church and my spiritual superiors, and I hold this obedience to be an acceptable sacrifice to God.
howell.
Compliance and conformity are produced by no external action on the mind; they flow spontancously from the will and understanding: yielding is altogether the result of foreign agency. We comply with a wish as soon as it is known; it accords with our feelings so to do: we yield to the entreaties of others; it is the effect of persuasion, a constraint upon or at least a direction of tbe inclination. We conform to the regulations of a community, it is a matter of discretion; we yicld to the superior judgment of another, we have no choice or alternative. We comply cheerfully; we conform willingly; we yield relvetantly. A cheerful compliance with the requests of a friend is the sincerest proof of friendship: the wisest and most learned of men have ever been the readiest to conform to the general sense of the community in which they live: the harmony of social life is frequently disturbed by the reluctance which men have to yield to each other.
Let the King meet compliance in your looks, A free and ready yielding to his wishes. Rowe. Among mankind so few there are
Who will conform to philosophic fare. Driden.
To yicld is to give way to another, eithei with one's will, judgment, or outward conduct: submission is the giving up of one's self altogether; it is the substitution of another's will for one's own. Yielding is partial; we may yield in one case or in one action though not in another: submission is general; it includes a system of conduct.

That yieldingness, whatever foundations it might lay to the disadvantage of posterity, was a specific to preserve us in peace in his own time.

Christian people submit themselves to conformutble observances of the lawful and religions constitutions of their spiritual rulers. Wirite.

We yield when we do not resist; this may sometimes be the act of a superior: we submit only by adopting the measures and conduct proposed to us; this is always the act of an inferior. Yielding may be produced by means more or less gentle, by enticing or insinuating arts, or by the force of argument; submission is made only to power or positive force: one yields after a struggle; one submits without resistance: we yield to ourselves or others; we submit to others only: it is a weakness to yield either to the suggestions of others or our own inclinations to do that which our judgments condemn; it is a folly to submit to the caprice of any one where there is not a moral obligation: it is obstinacy not to yield when one's adversary has the advantage ; it is sinful not to submit to constituted authorities.
There has been a long dispute for precedency betwcen the tragie and the beroic poets. Aristotle would have the latter yield the palm to the former, hut Mr. Dryden, and many others, would never $s u b m i t$ to this decision.

Addison.

## COMPLIANT, YICLDING, SUBMISSIVE,

As epithets from the preceding verbs, serve to designate a propensity to the respective actions, which may be excessive or otherwise. A COMPLIANT temper complies with every wish of another, good or bad; a YIELDING temper leans to every opinion, right or wrong; a SUBMISSIVE temper submits to every demand, just or unjust. A compliant person may want command of feeling; a yielding person may want fixedness of principle; a submissive person may want resolution: a too compliant disposition will be imposed upon by the seltish and unreasonable; a too yielding disposition is most unfit for commanding; a too submissive disposition exposes a person to the exactions of tyranny.
Be silent and complying; you'll soon find Sir John without a medicine will he kind.

Harrison.
A peaceable temper supposes yielding and coudescending manners.

Blaif.
When force and violence and hard necessity lave brought the yoke of servitude npon a peo. ple's neck, religion will supply them with a pa* tient and a submissive spirit.

Fleetwood

## TO COMPOSE, SETTLE.

COMPOSE, from the Latin composui, perfeet of compono, to put together, signifies to put in due order. SETTLE is a frequentative of set.

We compose that which has been disjointed and separated, by bringing it together again; we settle that whieh has been disturbed and put in motion, by making it rest: we compose our thoughts when they have been deranged and thrown into confusion; we settle our mind when it has been fluctuating and distracted by contending desires; the mind must be composed before we can think justly; it must be settled before we can act consistently.
Thy presence did each doubtful heart compose, And factions wonder'd that they once arose.

Tickeli.
Perhaps my reason may but 111 defend
My settlsd faith, my mind with age impair'd.
Shenstone.
Differences are composed where there is jarring and discord, it is effected by conciliation; differences are settled when they are brought to a final arrangement by consultation or otherwise. In this manner a person may be said to compose himself, his thoughts, his dress, and the like; to settle matters, points, questions, etc. It is a good thing to compose differences between friends; it is not always easy to settle questions where either party is obstinate.

Having thus endeavorcd to compose the unhappy differences in the nation, and finding it take no effect, and that the parliament were raising forces to distress such as had not complied with them, he thought it more for his majesty's service to retire to his own country.

Lloyd's Memorns.
Lord Sunderland assured all people that the king was resolved to settle matters with lis parliament on any terms.

Burnet.

## COMPOSED, SEDATE.

COMPOSED (v. To compose) signifies the state or quality of being in order, or Tree from confusion or perturbation; it $s$ applied either to the mind, or to the air, manner, or carriage. SEDATE, in Latin sedatus, from sedo, to settle, signifies properly the quality of being settled (v. To compose), i. e., free from irregular motion, and is applied either to the carriage or the temper. Composed is opposite to ruffled or hurried, and is a temporary state; sedate is opposed to buoy.
ant or volatile, and is a permanent habit of the mind or body. A person may be composed, or his carriage may be composed, in moments of excitement. Young people are rarely scdate.
Upon her nearer approach to Hercules, she stepped before the other lady, who came forwaro with a regular composed carriage. ADDison. Let me associate with the serions night, And contemplation, her sedate compeer.

Thomson.

## COMPOUND, COMPLEX.

COMPOUND comes from the present of compono, to compound, from the preterite of which, composui, is formed the verb compose (v.To compose). COMPLEX, v. Camplexity.

The compound consists of similar and whole bodies put together; the complex consists of various parts linked together: adhesion is suffieient to constitute a compound; involution is requisite for the complex; we distinguish the whole that forms the compound; we separate the parts that form the complex: what is compound may consist only of two; what is complex consists always of several. Compound and complex are both commonly opposed to the simple; but the former may be opposed to the single, and the latter to the simple: words are compound, sentences are complex.
Inasmuch as man is a compound, and a mixture of flesh as well as spirit, the soul during its abode in the body does all things by the mediation of these passions and inferior affections.

Souta.
With such perfection fram'd,
Is this complex stupendous scheme of things.
Thomson.
TO COMPOUND, COMPOSE.
COMPOUND and COMPOSE, v. To compose.

Compound is used in the physical sense only; compose in the proper or the moral sense: words are compounded by making two or more into one; sentences are composed by putting words together so as to make sense: a medicine is compounded of many ingredients; society is composed of various classes.
The simple beauties of nature, if they cannot be multiplied, may be compounded. Bateurst.
The heathens, ignorant of the true source of moral evil, generally charged it on the obliquity of matter. This notion, as most others of theirs, is a composition of truth and error. Grove.

## COMPREHENSIVE, EXTEENSIVE.

COMPREHENSIVE, from comprehend, in Latin comprehendo, or com and prehendo, to take, signifies the quality of putting up together or including. EXTENSIVE, from extend, iu Latin extendo, or ex and tendo, to stretch out, signifies the quality of reaching to a distance.

Comprehensive respects quantity, extensive regards space: that is comprehensive that comprehends much, that is extensive that extends into a wide field: a comprehersive view of a subject includes all branches of it; an extensive view of a subject enters into minute details: the comprehensive is associated with the conoise; the extensive with the diffuse: it requires a oapaoious mind to take a comprehensive survey of any subject; it is possible for a superficial thinker to enter very extensively into some parts, whlle he passes over others. Comprehensive is employed only with regard to intellectual objects; extensive is used both in the proper or the improper sense: the signification of a word is comprehensive, or the powers of the mind are comprehensive: a plain ls extensive, or a field of inquiry is extensive.

It is natural to bope that a comprehensive is likewise an eleveted soul, ead that whoever is wise is also honest.

Johnson.
The trade carried on by the Phoniclens of Sidon and Tyre was more eatensive and enterpriaing thas that of any state in the ancient world.

Robertson.
TO COMPRISE, COMPREHEND, EMbrace, CONTAIN, INCLUDE.
COMPRISE, through the French compris, participle of comprendre, comes from the same source as COMPREHEND (v. Comprehensive). EMBRACE, ข. To clasp. CONTAIN, in French contenir, Latin contineo, compounded of con and teneo, signifies to hold together within one place. INCLUDE, in Latin insludo, compounded of in and cludo or slaudo, signifies to shut in or within a given space.

Comprise, comprehend, and embrace have regard to the aggregate value, quantity, or extent; include, to the individual things which form the whole : contain, either to the aggregate or to the individual, being in fact a term of more
ordinary application than any of the others. Comprise and contain are used either in the proper or the fgurative sense; comprehend, embrace, and include, in the figurative sense only: a stock comprises a variety of articles; a library comprises a variety of books; the whole is comprised within a small compass: rules comprehend a number of particulars; laws comprehend a number of cases; countries comprehend a certain number of districts or divisions; terms comprehend a certain meaning: a discourse embraces a variety of topics; a plan, project, scheme, or system embraces a variety of objects; a bouse contains one, two, or more persons; a city contains a number of houses; a book cortains much useful matter; a society contains very many individuals; it includes none but of a certain class; or it includes some of every class.
What, Egypt, do thy pyramids comprise,
What greatness in the high raised foliy lies?
SEWELL.
That particular scheme which oomprehends the social virtues may give employment to the most industrious temper, oud find e men in business more then the most active atetion of iffe.

ADDEBON:
The virtues of the several soils I sing,
Mæcenas, now the needfal succor bring;
Not thet my song in ench a scanty space
So large a subject fully can embrace. Deyden.
All e woman has to do in this world is oontained within the duties of e danghter, a sister, a wife, and a mother.

Steele.
The universal axiom in which all complatsance is included is, that no man should give any preference to himself.

Johnson.
It is here worthy of observation that, in the two last examples from Steele and Johnson, the words comprehend and comprise would, according to established nsage, have been more appropriate than contain and include.

TO CONCEAL, DISSEMBLE, DISGUISE.
CONCEAL is compounded of $c o n$ and ceal, in French celer, Latin celo, Hebrew cala, to have privately. DISSEMBLE, in French dissimuter, compounded of dis and simulo or similis, signifies to make a thing appear unlike what it is. DISGUISE, in French disguiser, compounded of the privative dis or $d e$ and guise, in German weise, a manner or fashion, signifies to take a form opposite to the reality.

To conceal is simply to abstain from making known what we wish to keep secret; to dissemble and disguise signify to conceal, by assuming some false appearance: we conceal facts; we dissemble faelings; we disgrive sentiments. Caution only is requisite in concealing; it may be effected by simple silence: art and address must be employed in dissembling; it mingles falsehood with all its proceedings: labor and cunning are requisite in disguising; it has nothing but falsehood in all its movements. The concealer watches over himself that he may not be betrayed into any indisereet communication; the dissembler has an eye to otbers, so as to prevent them from discovering the state of his heart; disguise assumes altogether a different face from reality, and rests secure under this shelter: it is sufficient to conceal from those who either cannot or will not see; it is necessary to dissemble with those who can see without being shown; but it is necessary to disguise from those who are anxious to discover, and use every means to penetrate the veil that intercepts their sight.
She never told her love,
But let concealment, like a worm it bud,
Feed on her damask clieek. Shafspease.
Let school-taught pride disaemble all it can,
These little things are great to Iittle man.
Goldsmise.
Good-breeding has made the tongue falsify the
heart, and aet a part of continual restraint, while
nature bas preserved the eyes to herself, that she
may not be disguised or misrepresented.
Steres.

## TO CONCEAL, HIDE, SECRETE.

CONCEAL, v. To conceal. HIDE, from the German huithen, to guard against, and the old German hedan, to conceal, and the Greek $\kappa \varepsilon v \theta \varepsilon \epsilon \nu$, to cover or put out of sight. SECRETE, in Latin secretus, participle of secerno, or se and cerno, to see or know by one's self, signifies to put in a place known only to one's self.

Concealing has simply the idea of not letting come to observation; hiding that of putting under cover; secresting that of setting at a distance or in unfrequented places: whatever is not seen is concealed, but whatever is hidden or secreted is intentionally put out of sight: a person conceals himself behind a hedge; he hides his treasures in the earth; be secretes
what he has stolen under his cloak. Con. ceal is more general than either hide or secrete: all things are concealed which are hidden or secreted, but they are not always hidden or secreted when they are concealed: both mental and corporeal objects are concraled; corporeal objects mostly, and sometimes mental ones, are hidden; corporeal objects only are secreted: we conceal in the mind whatever we do not make known: that is hidden which may not be discovered or cannot be discerned; that is secreted which may not be seen. Facts are conceciled, truths are hidden, goods are secreted. Children should never attempt to conceal from their parents or teachers any error tbey have committed, when called upon for an acknowledgment; we are told in Scripture, for our consolation, that nothing is hidden which shall not be revealed; people seldom wish to secrete anything but with the intention of concealing it from those who have a right to demand it back.
Be seeret and diacreet; Love's fairy favors Are lost when not concbal' $d$. Dryden.
Yet to be secret makes not sin the less,
'Tis only hidden from the vulgar view.
Dayder.
The whole thing is too manifest to admit of any doubt in ary man how long this thing has been working; how many tricks liave been played with the Dean's (Swift's) papers; how they were secreted from time to time.

Pope.

## CONCEALMENT, SECRECY.

CONCEALMENT ( $v$. To conceal) is itself an action; SECRECY, from secret, is the quality of an action: concealment may respect the state of things; secrecy the conduct of persons; things may be concealed so as to be known to no one; but secrecy supposes some person to whom the thing concealed is known. Concealment has to do with what concerns others; secrecy with tbat which coneerns ourselves: what is concealed is kept from the observation of others; what is secret is known only to ourselves: there may frequently be concealment without secrecy, although there cannot be secrecy without concealment: concealment is frequently practised to the detiment of others; secrecy is always adopted for our own advantage or gratification: concealment is essential in the commission of crimes; secrecy in the ex-

## CONCEIVE

ecution of schemes: many crimes are committed with impunity when the perpetrators are protected by concealment; the best concerted plans are often frustrated for want of observing secrecy.


#### Abstract

One instance of Divine wisdom is so illustrious that I cannot pass it over withont notice ; that is, the concealment under which Providence has placed the future events of our life on earth.


BLalR.
Shun becrecy, and talk in open sight, So shall you soon repair your present evil plight.

Spenser.

## CONCEIT, FANCY.

CONCEIT comes immediately from the Latin conceptus, participle of concipio, to oonceive or form in the mind. FANCY, in French phantasie, Latin phantasia, Greek фаขтабı $\eta$, from фаขта弓 $\omega$, to make appear, and $\phi a \iota \nu \omega$, to appear.

These terms equally express the working of the imagination in its distorted state; but conceit denotes a much greater degree of distortion than fancy: our conceits are preposterous; what we fancy is unreal, or only apparent. Conceit applies only to internal objects: it is mental in the operation and the result; it is a species of invention: fancy is applied to external objects, or whatever acts on the senses: nervous people are subject to strange conceits; timid people fancy they hear sounds or see abjects in the dark, which awaken terror. Those who are apt to conceit oftener conceit that which is painful than otherwise ; conceiting either that they are always in danger of dying, or that all the world is their enemy. There are, however, insane people who conceit themselves to be kings and queens: and some, indeed, who are not called insane, who conceit themselves very learned while they know nothing, or very wise and clever while they are exposing themselves to perpetual ridicule for their folly, or very handsome while the world calls them plain, or very peaceable while they are always quarrelling with their neighbors, or very humble while they are tenaciously stickling for their owu: it would be well if such conceits afforded a harmess pleasure to their authors, but unfortunately they only render them more offensive and disgusting than they would otherwise be. Those who are apt to fansy never fancy anything to please them-
selves; they fancy that things are too long or too short, too thick or too thin, too cold or too hot, with a thousand ath. er fancies equally trivial in their nature; thereby proving that the slightest aberration of the mind is a serious evil, and productive of evil.
Desponding fear, of feeble fanciss full, Weak and unmanly, loosens every power.

THOMCON.
Some have been wounded with conceit, And died of mere opinion strait.

Butler.
When taken in reference to intellectual objects, conceit is always in a bad sense; but fancy may be employed in a good sense.

Nothing can be more plainly impossible than for a man "to be profitable to God," and consequently nothing can be more absurd than for a man to cherish so irrational a conceit.

Addison.
My friend, Sir Roger de Coverley, told me t'other day that he had been reading my paper upon Westminster Abhey, in which, says be, there are a great many ingenious fancies. Addison.

## TO CONCEIVE, UNDERSTAND, COMPREHEND.

CONCEIVE, in French concevoir, Latin concipio, compounded of con and capio, signifies to take or put together in the mind. UNDERSTAND signifies to stand under or near to the mind. COMPRE. HEND, in Latin comprehendo, compound. ed of com and prehendo, signifies to seize or embrace within the mind.

These terms indicate the intellectual operations of forming ideas, that is, ideas of the complex kind, in distinction from the simple ideas formed by the act of pereeption. Conception is the simplest operation of the three; when we conceiv, we may have but one idea; when we $u n$. derstand or comprehend we have all the ideas which the subject is capable of presenting. We eannot understand or com. prehend without conceiving; but we may often conceive that which we neither understand nor comprehend. That which we cannot conceive is to us nothing; but the conception of it gives it an existence, at least in our minds ; but understanding and comprehending is not essential to the belief of a thing's existence. So long as we have reasons sufficient to conceive a thing as possible or probable, it is not necessary either to understand or comprehend them

In order to authorize our belief. The mysteries of our holy religion are objects of conception, but not of comprchension. We conceive that a thing may be done without understanding how it is done; we conceive that a thing may exist without comprehending the nature of its existence. We conceive clearly, understand fully, comprehend minutely.
Whatover they cannot immediately conceive they consider as too high to be reached, or too nxtensive to be comprehended. Johnson.

Conceiving is a species of invention; it is the fruit of the mind's operation within itself. Understanding and comprehension are employed solely on external objects; we understand and comprehend that which actually exists before us, and presents itself to our observation. Conceiving is the office of the imagination, as well as the judgment; understanding and comprehension are the office of the reasoning faculties exclusively.

Conceive the front of a torrent of fire ten miles in breadth, and heaped up to an onormons height, rolling down the mountain, and pouring its flame into the ocean.

BRYDONE.
Swift pays no court to the passions; he exeites neither surprise nor admiration; le always unsderstands himself, and his readers always $u n$ derstand him. Johingon.
Our flnite knowledge cannot comprehend
The principles of an unbounded sway. Shirley.
Conceiving is employed with regard to matters of taste, to arrangements, designs, and projects; understanding is employed on familiar objects which present themselves in the ordinary discourse and business of men; comprehending respects principles, lessons, and speculative knowledge in general. The artist conceives a design, and he who will execute it must understand it; the poet conceives that which is grand and sublime, and he who will enjoy the perusal of his conceptions must have refinement of mind, and capacity to comprehend the grand and sublime. The builder conceives plans, the scholar understands languages, the metaphysician attempts to explain many things which are not to be comprehended.

[^26] With all his legions to dislodge, and leave
Unworshipp'd.
Milfon.

He had a dry way of stripping declamations to search for facts, and wonld assert that fine words were not meant to be underatood.

Cumaealand.
"There is no end of his greatness." The most exalted creature he has made is only eapable of adoring it, none but himself can comprehend it. Addigon.

## CONCEPTION, NOTION.

CONCEPTION, from conceive (v. To conceive), signifies the thing conceived. NOTION, in French notion, Latin notio, from notus, the participle of nosco, to know, signifies the thing known.

Conception is the mind's own work, what it pictures to itself from the exercise of its own powers; notion is the representation of objects as they are drawn from observation. Conceptions are the fruit of the understanding and imagination ; notions are the result of experience and information. Conceptions are formed; notions are entertained. Conceptions are either grand or mean, gross or sublime; either clear or indistinct, crude or distinct; notions are either true or false, just or absurd. Intellectual culture serves to elevate men's conceptions; the extension of knowledge serves to correct and refine their notions.

It is natural for the imaginations of men who lead their lives in too solitary a manner to prey upon themselves, and form from their own conceptions beings and things which have no place in nature.

Steele.
The story of Telemachus is formed altogether in the spirit of Homer, and will give an unlearned reader a notion of that great poet's manner of writing.

Admibon.
Some heathen philosophers had an indistinct conception of the Deity, whose attributes and character are unfolded to us in his revelation: the ignorant have often false notions of their duty and obligations to their superiors. The unenlightened express their gross and crude conceptions of a Superior Being by some material and visible object: the vulgar notion of ghosts and spirits is not entirely banished from the most cultivated parts of England.
Words signify not immediately and primely things themselves, but the conceptions of the mind concerning things.

South.
Considering that the happiness of the other world is to he the happiness of the whola man, who can question hut there is an infinite variety in those pleasures we are speaking of? Revelar
tion. likewise, very much confirms this notion under the different views it gives us of our future happiness.

ADDison.

## TO CONCERT, CONTRIVE, MANAGE.

CONCERT is either a variation of consort, a companion, or from the Latin concerto, to debate together. CONTRIVE, from contrivi, perfect of contero, to bruise together, signifies to pound or put together in the mind so as to form a composition. MANAGE, in French ménager, compounded of the Latin manus and ago, signifies to lead by the hand.

There is a secret understanding in concerting; invention in contriving; exccution in managing. There is mostly contrivance and management in concerting; but there is not always concerting in contrivance or management. Measures are concerted; schemes are coutrived; affairs are managed. Two parties at least are requisite in concerting, one is sufficient for contriving and managing. Concerting is always employed in all seeret traosactions; contrinmee and management are used indifferently. Robbers who have determined on any scheme of plunder concert together the means of carrying their project into exceution; they contrive various devices to chude the vigilance of the police; they manage everything in the dark. Those who are debarred the opportunity of secing each other unrestrainedly, concert measures for meeting privately. The iogenuity of a person is frequently displayed in the contrivances by which he strives to help himself out of his troubles. Whenever there are many parties interested in a coneern, it is never so well managed as when it is in the hands of one individual suitahly qualified.

Modern statesmen are concerting schemes and engaged in the depth of politics, at the time when their forefathers were laid down quietly to rest, and had nothing in their beads but dreams.

Steele.
When Cesar was one of the masters of the mint, he placed the figure of an elephant upon the reverse of the public money: the word Cesar signifying an elephant in the Punic language. This was artfully contrived by Cæsar ; because it was not lawful for a private man to stamp his own figure upon the coin of the commonwealth.

ADDIBON.
It is the great art and secret of Christianity, if I may use that phrast, to manage our actions to the best ad*antage.

Addison.

TO CONCILIATE, RECONCILE.
CONCILIATE, in Latin conciliatus participle of concilio: and RECONCILE, in Latin reconcilio, both come from con: cilium, a council, denoting unity and harmony.

Conciliate and reconcile are both em. ployed in the sense of uniting men's af. fections, but under different circumstances. The conciliator gets the good-will and affections for himself; the reconciler unites the affections of two persons to each other. The conciliator may either gain new affections, or regain those which are lost; the reconciler always either renows affections which have been once lost, or fixes them where they ought to be fixed. The best means of conciliating esteem is by reconiling all that are at variance. Conciliate is mostly employed for men in public stations; reconcile is indifferently employed for those in public or private stations. Men in power have sometimes the happy opportunity of conciliating the good-will of those who are most averse to their authority, and thus reconciling them to measures which would otherwise be odions. Kindness and condescension serve to conciliate; a friendly influence, or a well-timed exereise of authority, is often successfully exerted in reconciling.

The preacher may enforce his doctrines in the style of authority, for it is his profession to summon mankind to their duty; but an uncommissioned instructor will study to conciliate whila he attempts to correct.

Combealand.
He (Hammond) not only attained his purpose of uniting distant parties to each other, but, contrary to the usual fate of reconcilers, gained them to himself.

Fele.
Conciliate is mostly employed in the sense of bringing persons into unison with each other who have been at variance; but reconeile may be employed to denote the bringing a person into unison or acquiescence with that which would be naturally disagreeable.

It must be confessed a happy attachment which can reconcile the Laplander to his freezing snows, and the African to his scorching smn.

Cumberland.
CONCLUSION, INFERENCE, DEDUCTION.
CONCLUSION, from conclude, signifies the winding up of all arguments and
reasoning. INFERENCE, from infer, in Latin infero, signifies what is brought in. DEDUCTION, from deduct, in Latin deductus, and deduco, to brling out, signifies the bringing or drawing one thing from another.

A conclusion is full and decisive; an inference is partial and indecisive: a conclusion leaves the mind in no doubt or hesitation; it puts a stop to all further reasoning: inferences are special conclusions from particular circumstances; they serve as links in the chain of reasoning. Conclusion in the technical sense is the concluding proposition of a syllogism, drawn from the two others, which are called the premises.

Though it may chence to be ripht in the oonchision, it is yet unjust end mistaken in the zaethod of inference.

Glanville.
Conchusions are drawn from real facts; inferences are drawn from the appearances of things; deductions only from arguments or assertions. Conclusions are practical ; inferences raticoinative; deductions are final. We conclude from a person's conduct or declarations what he intends to do, or leave undone; we infer from the appearance of the clouds, or the thiokness of the atmosphere, that there will be a heavy fall of rain, or snow; we deduce from a combination of facts, inferences, and assertions, that a story is fabricated. Hasty conclusions betray a want of judgment, or of firmness of mind: contrary inferences are frequently drawn from the same circumstances to serve the purposes of party, and support a favorite position; the deductions in such cases are not infrequently true when the inferences are false.
He pralses wine, and we concluds from thence He lik'd his glass, on his own evidence. Addison.

You might, from the singla people deperted, make some nseful inferences or guesses hew many there are left unmarried.

Stieele.
There is a consequence which seems very neturally doducible from the foregoing cousiderations. If the scale of being rises by such e regular progress so high as man, we may, by e parity of reason, suppose thet it still proceeds gradually through these beings which are of a superior nature to him.

ADDIson.

## CONCLUSIVE, DECISIVE, CONVINCING.

CONCLUSIVE applies either to practical or argumentative matters; DECI-

SIVE to what is practical only; CON VINCING to what is argumentative only. It is necessary to be conclusive when we deliberate, and decisive when we command. What is conclusive puts an end to all discussion, and determines the judgment: what is decisive puts an end to all wavering, and determines the will. Negotiators have sometimes an interest in not speaking conclusively; commanders can never retain their authority without speaking decisively. Conclusive, when compared to convincing, is genoral; the latter is particular: an argument is consincing, a chain of reasoning conclusive. There may be much that is convincing, where there is nothing conclusive: a proof may be convincing of a particular circumstance; but conclusive cvidence will bear upon the main question.
I will not disguise that Dr. Bentley; whose criticlsm is so conclusive for the forgery of those tragedies quoted by Plutarch, is of opinion "Thespis himself pnblished nothing in writing."

Cumbrrlann
Is it not somawhat singular that Young presarvad, without any pellistion, this preface (to his Setira on Wemen) so bluntly decisive in favor of leughing et the werld, in the same collection of his works which contains the mournful, engry, gloomy, Naght Thoughts f

Cegrt.
That raligion is essantial to tha welfare of man, cain be proved by tha mest convineing argumants.

Bracien

## CONCORD, HARMONY.

CONOORD, in French concorde, Latin concordia, from con and cors, having the same heart and mind. HARMONY, in French harmonie, Latin harmonia, Greek $\alpha \rho \mu o \nu L \alpha$, from $\alpha \rho \omega$, to fit or suit, signifies the state of fitting or suiting.

The idea of union is commen to both these terms, but under different circum. stances. Concord is generally employed for the union of wills and affections; harmony respects the aptitude of minds to coalesce. There may be concord without harmony, and harmony without concord. Persons may live in concord who are at a distance from each other; but harmony is mostly employed for those who are in close connection, and obliged to co-operate. Concord should never be broken by relations under any circumstances; harmony is indispensable in all members of a family that dwell together. Interest will sometimes stand in the way

## CONDUCT

of brotheriy concord; a love of rule, and a dogmatical temper, will sometimes disturb the harmony of a family.

Kind concord, heavenly born! whose blissful reign
Holds this vast globe in one surrounding chain; Soul of the world!

Tlekel.
In us both one soul,
Harmony to behold in wedded pairl
More grateful than harmonious sounds to the ear.

Milton.
These terms are both applied to music, the one in a particular, the other in a general sense: there is concord between two or more single sounds, and harmony in any number or aggregate of sounds.

The man that hath 00 music in hinself,
Nor is not mov'd with concord of sweet sounds, Is fit for treasons, villanies, and spoils.

Shakspeare.
Firmony is a componud idea made pp of different sounds.

Watts.
Harmony may be used in the sense of adaptation to things generally.

The hamony of things
As well as that of sounds, from discord springs.
Denham.
If we consider the world in its subserviency to man, one would think it was made for our nse ; but if we consider it in its natural beanty and harmony, one would be apt to couclude it wus made for our pleasure.

ADDIBON.

## CONDITION, STATION.

CONDITION, in French condition, Latin conditio, from condo, to build or form, signifies properly the thing formed; and in an extended sense, the manner and circumstances under which a thing is formed. STATION, in French station, Latin statio, from sto, to stand, signifies a standing place or point.

Condition bas most relation to circumstances, education, birth, and the like; station refers rather to the rank, occupation, or mode of life which is marked out. Riches suddenly acquired are calculated to make a man forget his original condition, and to render him negligent of the duties of his station. The condition of men in reality is often so different from what it appears, that it is extremely difficult to form an estimate of what they are, or what they have been. It is the folly of the present day, that every man is unwilling to keep the station which has been assigned to him by

Providence: the rage for equality destroys every just distinction in society; the low aspire to be, in appearance at least, equal with their superiors; and those in elevated stations do not hesitate to put themselves on a level with their inferiors.

The common charge against those who rise ahove their original condition is that of pride.

Johnson.
The last day will assign to every one a station suitahle to the dignity of his character.

ADDison.

## TO CONDUCE, CONTRIBUTE.

CONDUCE, Latin conduco, compound. ed of con and duco, signifies to bring together for one end. CONTRIBUTE, in Latin contributus, participle of contribuo, compounded of con and tribw, signifies to bestow for the same end.

To conduce signifies to serve the full purpose; to contribute signifies only to serve a secondary purpose: the former is always taken in a good sense, the latter in a bad or good sense. Exercise conduces to the health; it contributes to give vigor to the frame. Nothing con duces more to the well-being of anw community than a spirit of subordination among all ranks and classes. A want of firmness and vigilance in the government or magistrates contributes greatly to the spread of disaffection and rebell. ion. Schemes of ambition never conduct to tranquillity of mind. A single failure may contribute sometimes to involve a person in perpetual tronble.

It is to be allowed that doing all honor to the superiority of heroes above the rest of mankind must nceds conduce to the glory and advantage of a nation.

Steele.
The true choice of our diet, and oar companions at it, secms to consist in that which contributes most to cheerfulness and refresbment.

Fulleb.
TO CONDUCT, MANAGE, DIRECT.
CONDUCT, in Latin conductus, participle of conduco, signifies to lead in some particular manner or for some special purpose. To MANAGE (v. Care, Charge). To DIRECT, in Latin directus, participle of dirigo or di, apart, and rego, to rule, signifies to regulate distinctly or put each in its right place.

Conducting requires most wisdom and
knowledge; managing most action; direction most authority. A lawyer conducts the cause intrusted to him; a steward manages the mercantile concerns for his employer; a superintendent directs the movements of all the subordinate agente. Conducting is always applied to affairs of the first importance: management is $n$ term of familiar use to characterize a familiar employment: direction makes up in anthority what it wants in importance; it falls but little short-of the word conduct. A conductor conceives, plans, arranges, and disposes; a manager acts or executes; a director commands.

If he did not entirely project the union and regency, nonc will deny him to have been the chief conductor in both.

ADDISON.
A skifful manager of the rabble, so long as they have but ears to hear, need never inquire whether they have understanding.

Souta.
Himself stood director over them, with nodding or stamping, showing he did like or mislike those things he did nat understand. Sydney.

It is necessary to conduct with wisdom; to manage with diligence, attention, and skill; to direet with promptitude, precision, and clearness. A minister of state requires peculiar talents to conduct with success the various and complicated concerns which are connected with his office: he must exercise much skill in managing the various characters and clashing interests with which he becomes connected: and possess much influence to direct the multiplied operations by which the grand machine of government is kept in motion. When a general undertakes to conduct a campaign, he will intrust the management of minor concerns to persons on whom he can rely; but he will direct in person whatever is likely to have any serious influence on his success.

The general purposes of men in the conduet of their lives, I mean with relation to this life only, end in gaining either the affection or eateem of those with whom they converse. Steele.
Good delivery is a graceful management of the voice, countenance, and gesture. Sterle.
I have sometimes amnsed myself with considering the several methods of managing a debate which have obtained in the world.

AdDISON.
To airect a wanderer in the right way ia to light another man's candle by one's own, which loses none of ita light by what the other gains.

Grove.

## CONFEDERATE, ACCOMPLICE.

CONFEDERATE (v. Ally) and AO. COMPLICE ( $v$. Abettor) both imply a partner in some proceeding, but they differ as to the nature of the proceeding: in the former case it may be lawful or unlawful; in the latter unlawful only. In this latter sense a confederate is a partner in a plot or sceret association: an accomplice is a partner in some active violation of the laws. Guy Fawkes retained his resolution, till the last extremity, not to revcal the names of his confederates: it is the common refuge of all robbers and desperate characters to hetray their accomplices in order to screen themselves from punishment.

When the Earl was executed, it heing thought necessary that some punishment should be inflicted on those who were his confederates, the Lord Kceper was in a special commission with others.

Camden.
Now march the bold confed'rates through the plain,
Well hors'd, well clad, a rich and ahining train.
DRYDEN.
It is not improbahle that the Lady Mason (the grandmother of Savage) might persuade or compel his mother to desist, or perhaps ahe could not easily find accomplices wicked enough to coucur in ao cruel an action as that of banishing him to the American plantations. Johnson.

## TO CONFER, BESTOW.

CONFER, in French conférer, Latin confero, componnded of con and fero, signifies to bring something toward a person, or place it upon him. BESTOW is compounded of be and stow, which, like the vulgar word stoke, comes from the German stauen and stauchen, and is an onomatopœia, or representative of the action intended to be expressed, namely, that of disposing in a place. Conferring is an act of authority; bestowing that of charity or generosity. Princes and men in power confer; people in a private station bestow. Honors, dignities, privileges, and rank are the things conferred; favors, kindnesses, and pecuniary relief are the things bestonved. Merit, favor, interest, caprice, or intrigne gives rise to con. ferring; necessity, solicitation, and private affection lead to bestowing.

[^27]You always exceed expectations, as if yours was not your own, but to bestow on wanting merit.

Dryden.
In the moral application, what is conferred or bestowed is presumed to be deserved: but with the distinction that the one is gratuitous, the other involuntary.
On him confer the poet's saered name,
Whose lofty voice declares the heavenly flame.
Addison.
It sometimes happens, that even enemies and envieus persons bestow the sincerest marks of esteem when they least design it.

Steele.

## TO CONFIDE, TRUST.

CONFIDE, in Latin confido (or cum, with, and fido, to trust), signifying to be united by trust with another, is to TRUST (v. Belief) as the species to the genus: we always trust when we confule, but not vice versa. Confidence is an extraordinary trust, but twust is always ordinary unless the term be otherwise qualified. Confidence involves communication of a man's mind to another, but trust is confined to matters of action.

He was high in confidence with Sir Robert Walpole, and was the foreign ambassador in whom the minister, next to lis brother, most confided.

Coxe.
Kings in ancient times were wont to put great truat in eunuchs.

BACON.
Confidence may be sometimes limited in its application, as confidence in the integrity or secrecy of a man; but trust is in its signification limited to matters of personal interest. A breach of trust evinces a want of that common principle which keeps human society together; but a breach of confidence betrays a more than ordinary share of basencss and depravity.

## Men live and prosper but in mutual trust,

A confldence of one another's truth. Southern.

> Hence, credit

And pablic trust 'twixt man and man are broken.

Rowe.

## CONFIDENT, DOGMATICAL, POSITIVE.

CONEJDENT, from coufilc (v. To confide), marks the temper of confiding in one's self. DOGMATICAL, from dogma, a maxim or assertion, signifies the temper of dealing in unqualified assertions. POSITIVE, in Latin positivus, from positus, sigoifios fixed to a point.

The two first of these words denote an habitual or permanent state of mind; the latter either a partial or an habitual
temper. There is much of confidence in dognatism and positivity, but it expresses more than either. Confidence implies a general reliance on one's abilities in whatever we undertake; dogmatism implies a reliance on the truth of our opinions; positivity a reliance on the truth of our assertions. A confudent man is always ready to act, as he is sure of succeeding; a dogmatical man is always ready to speak, as he is sure of being heard; a positive man is determined to maintain what he has asserted, as he is convinced that he has made no mistake. Confidence is opposed to diffidence; dogmatism to scepticism; positivity to hesitation. A confident man mostly fails for want of using the necessary means to insure success; a doymatical man is mostly in error, because he substitutes his own partial opinions for such as are established; a positive man is mostly deceived, because he trusts more to his own senses and memory than he ought. Self-knowledge is the most effectual cure for selfconfidence; an acquaintance with men and things tends to lessen dogmatism; the experience of having been deceived one's self, and the observation that others are perpetually liable to be deceived, ought to check the folly of being positive as to any event or circumstance that is past. Confidence is oftener expressed by actions than words; dogmatism and positivity always by words: the former denotes only the temper of the speaker, but the latter may influence the temper of others; a positive assertion may not only denote the state of the person's mind who makes it, but also may serve to make another positive.

People forget how little it is that they know and how much less it is that tbey can do, when they grow confident upon any present state of things.

Sooth.
If you are neither dogmatical, nor show either hy your words or your actions that you are full of yourself, all will the more heartily rejoice st your victory.

Bungel.
He was positive and fixed against the exclusion, which was in a great measure imputed to his management, and that he wrought the King up to it.

Sir W. Temple.

## CONFINEMENT, IMPRISONMENT, CAP-

## TIVITY.

CONFINEMENT, $v$. To bound, limit. IMPRISONMENT, compounded of is
and prison, French prison, from pris, participle of prendre, Latin prehendo, to take, signifies the act or state of being taken or laid hold of. CAPTIVITY, in French captivité, Latin captivitas, from capio, to take, signifies likewise the state of being, or being kept in possession by another.

Confixement is the generic, the other two are specific terms. Confinement and imprisonment both imply the abridgement of one's personal freedom, but the former specifies no cause, which the latter does. We may be confined in a room by ill health, or confined in any place by way of punishment; but we are never imprisoned but ln some specific place appointed for the comfinement of offenders, and always on some supposed offence. We are captives by the rights of war when we fall into the hands of the enemy. Confinement does not specify the degree or manner as the other terms do; it may even extend to the restricting the body of its free movements; while imprisonment simply confines the person within a certain extent of ground, or the walls of a prison; and captivity leaves a person at liberty to range within a whole country or districh.

Conftnement of any kind is dreadful: let your imagination acquaint yon with what I have not words to express, and conceive, if possiblc, the horrors of imprisonment, attended with reproach and ignominy.

Confinement is so general a term as to be applied to animals and even inanimate objects ; imprisonment and captivity are applied in the proper sense to persons only, but they admit of a figurative application. Poor stray animals, which are found trespassing on unlawful ground, are doomed to a wretched confinement, rendered still more hard and intolerable by the want of food: tbe confinement of plants within too narrow a space will stop their growth for want of air. Tbere is many a poor captive in a cage who, like Sterne's starling, would say, if it could, "I want to get out."

[^28]Youne.
For life, being weary of these worldly bars, Never lacks power to dismiss itself;
In that each bondman, in his own hand, bears The power to cancel his captivity:
But I do think it cowardly and vile.
Shaispleare.

## TO CONFIRM, TO CORROBORATE.

To CONFIRM, in Latin confirmo, ot con and firmo, signifies to make firm in a special manuer. CORROBORATE, from robur, strength, signifies to give additional strength.

The idea of strengthening is common to these terms, but under different circumstances; confirm is used generally, corroborate only in particular instances. What confirms serves to confirm the mind; what corroborates gives weight to the thing. An opinion or a story is confirmed; an evidence or the representation of a person is corroborated. What confirms removes all doubt; what corroborates only gives more strength than the thing had before. When the truth of a thing is confirmed, nothing more is neressary: the testimony of a person may be so little credited that ii may want much corroboration.
There is an Abyssinian here who knew Mr.
Bruce at Gondar. I bave examined hin, and he
confirms Mr. Bruce's account. Sir W. Jones.
The secrecy of this eonference very much fa-
yors my conjecture, that Augustus made an at-
tempt to dissuade Tiberins from holding on the
cmpire ; and the length of time it took up cor-
roborates the probability of that conjecture.
Gumereand.
TO CONFIRM, ESTABLISH.
CONFIRM, v. To confirm, corroborate. ESTABLISH, from the word stable, signifies to make stable, or able to stand.

The idea of strengtheuing is common to these as to the former terms, but with a different application: to confirm is applied to what is partial, if not temporary; to establish to that wbich is permanent and of importance, as to confirm a report, to establish a reputation, to confirm a treaty or alliance, to establish a trade or a goverament.
Rons'd with the noise, he scarce belleves his ear, Willing to think th' illusions of his fear Had given this false alsrm, but straight his view Confirms that more than all he fears, is true. Denhas.
The rights of ambassadors are established by the laws of nations.

Blaokstone.
So in respect to the mind and its operations: a belief, opinion, suspicion, or resolution is confirmed; principles, faith hopes, etc., are established.

## CONFORMABLE

Trifles, light as air, Are to the jealous, confirmations strong As proofs of Holy Writ.

Shakspeare.
The silk-worm, after having spon her task, lays her eggs and dies: but a man can never have taken in his full measure of knowledge, has not time to subdue his passions, or establish his soul in virtue, and come up to the perfection of his nature, before he is lurried of the stage.

Adition.

## CONFLICT, COMBAT, CONTEST.

CONFLICT, in Latin conflictus, partieiple of confligo, compounded of con and Aligo, in Greek $\phi \lambda \iota \gamma \omega$, Æolic for $\phi \lambda \iota \beta \omega$, to Hip or strike, siguifies to strike against each other. COMBAT, v. Battle. CONTEST, in French contester, Latin contestor, compounded of con and testor, signifies to call or set witness against witness.

A striving for the mastery is the common idea in the signification of these terms, which is varied in the manner and spirit of the action. A conflict has more of violence in it than a combat; and a combat than a contest. A conflict supposes a violent collision, a meeting of force against force; a combat snpposes a contending together in fighting or battle. A confict may be the unpremeditated meeting of one or more persons in a violent or hostile manner; a combat is freqnently a concerted engagement between two or more particular individuals, as a sudden and violent conflict ensued upon their eoming up; they engaged in single combat.

## It is my father's face, <br> Whom in this conffiet I mawares have kill'd.

Shakspeane.
Elsewhere he saw, where Troilus defied Achilles, and unequal combat tried. Dryden.

Conflict is applied to whatever comes in violent collision, whether animate or inanimate, as the conflicts of wild beasts or of the elements; combat is applied to animals as well as men, particularly where there is a trial of skill or strength, as the combats of the gladiators either with one enother or with beasts ; contest is applied only to men.

## Arms on armor clashing hray'd

 Horrible discord, and the madding wheels Of brazen chariots raged; dire was the noise Of conflict.Milton.
Constantinc the Great is said to have first prohibited the combats of gladiators in the East.

Chambers.

While the business of government should be carrying on, the question is, what men have the power to exercise this or that function of it. While this contest continues, all manner of abuscs remain unpunished.

Burke.
Conflict and contest are properly applied to moral objects, and combat sometimes fignratively so, and all with a like distinetion; violent passions produce conficts in the mind, there may be a combat between reason and any particular passion; there may be a contest for honors as well as posts of honor; reason will seldom come off victorious in the combat with ambition.

IIappy is the man who, in the conflict of desire between God and the world, can oppose not only argument to argument, but pleasure to pleasure.

Blath.
The nolle combat 'twixt joy and sorrow was fonght in Paulina! She had one eye declined for the loss of her husband, and another elevated that the oracle was fulfilled.

Shakspeare.
Soon afterward the death of the king furnished a general subject for poetical contest. Jounson.

## CONFORMABLE, AGREEABLE, SUITABLE.

CONFORMABLE sigdifies able to conform (v. To comply), that is, having a sameness of form. AGREEABLE signifies the quality of being able to agree ( $v$. To agree). SUITABLE signifies able to suit (v. To agree).

Conformable is employed for matters of obligation; agreeable for matters of choice; suitable for matters of propriety and diseretion: what is conformable accords with some prescribed form or given rule of others; what is agreeable accords with the feelings, tempers, or judgments of ourselves or others; what is suitable accords with outward cireumstances: it is the business of those who act for oth. ers to aet conformably to their directions; it is the part of a friend to act agreeably to the wishes of a friend; it is the part of every man to act suitably to his station. The decisions of a judge most be strietly conformable to the letter of the law; he is seldom at liberty to consult general views of equity: the decision of a partisan is always agreeable to the temper of his party: the style of a writer should be suitable to his subject.

A man is glad to gain numbers on his side, as they serve to strengthen him in his opinions. If
makes him believe that his principles carry conviction with them, and are the more likely to be truc, when he finds thoy are conformable to the regson of others as well as to his own.

ADDISoN.
As you have formerly offered some arguments for the soul's immortality, agrearble both to reason and the Christian dectrine, I believe yeur readers will not be displeased to see how the same great truth shines in the pomp of Roman elequence.
llughes.
J think banging a cushion gives a man teo warlike or perlaps too theatrical a figure to be suitable to a Cluristian congregation.

SWIFT.
TO CONFOUND, TO CONFUSE.
CONFOUND and CONFUSE are both derived from different parts of the same verb, namely, confundo, and its participle confusus, signifying to ponr or mix together without design that which ought to he distinet.

Confound has an active sense; confuse a ncuter or reflective sense : a person confounds one thing with another; objects become confused, or a person confuses himself: it is a common error among ignorant people to confourd names, and among children to have their ideas confused on commencing a new study. The present age is distinguished by nothing so much as by confounding all distinctions, which is a great source of confusion in men's intercourse with each other, both in public and private life.

## I to the tempest make the peles resound, And the contlicting olements confound.

DRyden.
A confus'd report passed through my ears;
But full of hurry, like a morning dream, It vanished in the bus'ness of the day.

Lee.
Confuse is sometimes used transitively in the sense of causing confusion, as to confuse an account; but in this case it is as much distinguished from confound as in the other case. A person confounds one account with the other when he takes them to be both the same; but he confuses any particular account when he mingles different items under one head, or he brings the same item under different heads.

## TO CONFRONT, FACE.

CONFRONT, from the Latin frons, a forehead, implies to set fave to face; and PACE, from the nom face, signifies to set the face toward any object. The for-
mer of these terms is always employed for two or more persons with regard to each other; the latter for a single individual with regard to objects in general. Witnesses are confronted; a person faces danger, or faces an enemy: when people give contrary evidence, it is aometimes necessary, in extra-judicial matters, to confront them in order to arrive at the truth; the best evidence which a man can give of his courage is to evince hia readiness for facing his enemy whenever the occasion requires.

Wherete serves mercy,
But to confront the visage of offence?
Shayspeare.
The rev'rend charioteer directs the course,
And strains his aged arm to lash the horse: Hector they fuee; unknowing how to fear, Fierce he drove on.

Pope

## CONFUSION, DISORDER.

CONFUSION siguifiea the state of being confounded or confused (v. To confound). DISORDER, compounded of the privative dis and order, signifies the reverse of ordur.

Confusion is to disorder as the species to the genua: confusion supposes the absence of all order; disorder the derangement of order where it exists, or is supposed to exist: there is always disorder in confusion, but not always confusion in disorder. The greater the multitude the more they are liable to fall into confusion if they do not act in perfect concert, as in the case of a routed army or a tumultuous mob.

If we, unbroke,
Sustain their onset; little skill'd in war To wheel. to rally, and renew the charge, Confusiom, havoc, and dismay will seize The astonish'd ront.

Smollett.
Where there is the greatest order, the smallest circumstance is apt to produce disorder, the consequences of which will be more or less scrious.

When you behold a man's affairs through negligence and misconduct involved in disorder, you naturally conclude that his ruin approaches.

Blate.

TO CONFUTE, REFUTE, DISPROVE, OPPUGN.
CONFUTE and REFUTE, in Latin confuto and refuto, are compounded of con, against, re privative, and futo, obsolete

## CONJECTURE

for arguo, signifying to argue against or to argue the contrary. DISPROVE, compounded of dis privative, and prove, signifies to prove the contrary. OPPUGN, in Latin oppuyno, that is, to fight in order to remove or overthrow.

To confute respects what is argumentative; refute what is practical and personal ; disprove whatever is represented or related; oppugn what is held or maintained. An argument is confuted by proving its fallacy; a charge is refuted by proving the innocence of the party charged; an assertion is disproved by proving that it is incorrect; a doctrine is oppugned by a course of reasoning. Paradoxes may be easily comfuted; calnmnies may be easily refuted; the marvellous and incredible stories of travellers may be easily disproved; heresies and sceptical notions ought to be oppugned. The pernicious doctrines of sceptics, though often confuted, are as often advanced with the same degree of assurance by the free-thinking, and I miglit say the unthinking few who imbibe their spirit: it is the employment of libellists to deal out their malicions aspersions against the objects of their malignity in a manner so loose and indirect as to preclude the possibility of refutation: it would be a fruitless and unthankful task to attempt to disprove all the statements which are circulated in a common newspaper. . It is the duty of the ministers of the Gospel to oppugn all doctrines that militate against the established faith of Christians.

The learned do, by turns, the learn'd confute, Yet all depart unalter'd by dispute. Orrery.

Philip of Macedon refuted by the force of gold all the wisdom of Athens.

Addison.
Man's fecble race what ills await!
Labor and penury, the racks of pain,
Disease, and sorrow's weeping train,
And death, sad refuge from the storm of fate:
The fond complaint, my song! disprove,
And justify the laws of Jove.
Collins.
Ramus was one of the first oppugners of the old philosophy, who disturhed with innovations the quiet of the schools.

Johnson.

## CONJEGTURE, SUPPOSITION, SURMISE.

CONJECTURE, in French conjecture, Latin conjectura, from conjicio or con and jacio, signifies the thing put together or framed in the mind without design or
foundation. SUPPOSITION, in French supposition, from suppono, compounded of sub and pono, signifies to put one's thoughts in the place of reality. SURMISE, componnded of sur or sub and mise, Latin missus, participle of mitto, to send or put forth, has the same original meaning as the former.

All these terms convey an idea of something in the mind independent of the reality; but conjecture is founded less on rational inference than supposition; and surmise less than either: any circumstance, however trivial, may give rise to a conjecture; some reasons are requisite to produce a supposition; a particular state of feeling or train of thinking may of itself create a surmise. Although the same epithets are generally applicable to all these terms, yet we may with propriety say that a conjecture is idle: a supposition false; a surmise fanciful. Conjectures are employed on events, their causes, consequences, and contingencies; supposition on speculative points; surmise on personal concerns. The secret measures of government give rise to varions conjectures: all the suppositions which are formed respecting comets seem at present to fall short of the truth: the behavior of a person will often occasion a surmise respecting his intentions and proceedings, let them be ever so disguised. Antiquarians and etymologists deal much in conjectures; they have ample scope afforded them for asserting what can be neither proved nor denied: religionists are pleased to build many suppositions of a doctrinal nature on the Scriptures, or, more properly, on their own partial and forced interpretations of the Scriptures: it is the part of prudence, as well as justice, not to express any surmisce which we may entertain, either as to the character or conduct of others, which may not redonnd to their credit.

Persons of studious and contemplative natures often entertain themselves with the history of past ages, or raise schemes and conjectures npon futurity.

ADdison.
Even in that part which we have of the journey to Canterhury, it will be necessary, in the following review of Chancer, to take notice of certain defects and inconsistencies, which can only be accounted for upon the supposition that the work was never finished by the author.

TyRWHIT:

Any the least surmiee of neglect has ralsed an aversion in one man to another.

Sovith.

## CONJUNCTURE, CRISIS.

CONJUNCTURE, in Latin conjunctura and corjungo, to join together, signifies the joining together of circumatances. CRISIS, in Latin crisis, Greek kotous, à judgment, signifies in an exteded aenae whatever decides or turns the scale.

Both these terms are employed to expresa a period of time marked by the state of affairs. A conjunctiore is a joining or combination of corresponding circumatances tending toward the same end; a crisis is the high-wrought state of any affair which immediately precedes a change: a conjuncture may be favor. able, a crisis alarming. An able atateeman aeizes the conjuncture whioh promIses to suit his purpose, for the introduction of a faverite measure: the abilitlea, firminess, and perseverance of Alifred the Great, at one important crisis of hla reign, as ved England from destructlon.

[^29]
## TO CONNECT, COMBINE, UNITE.

CONNECT, Latin connecto, compounded of con and necto, signifies to knit together. COMBINE, v. Association, combination. UNITE, v. To add, join.

The idea of being put together is common to theae terma, but with different degreee of proximity. Connected is more remete than combined, and this than united. What is connected and combined remains distinct, but what is united loses all individuality. Things the most disaimilar may be connected or combined; things of the same kind only can be united. Thinge or persons are connected more or less remetely by some common property or circumstance that serves as a tie; they are combined by a species of juncture; they are united by a coalition: houses are connected by means of a common passage; the armies of two nations are combined; two armies of the same nation are united. Trade, marriage, or
general intercourse create a connection between individuals; co-operatioa or similarity of tendency are grounda for combination; entire accordance leada to a union. It is dangereus to be connected with the wicked in any way; our reputation, if not our morala, must be the sufferere thereby. The most obnexious members of society are those in whom wealth, talenté; influeuce, and a lawleas ambition are combined. United is an epithet that should apply equally to nations and families; the same obedience to laws ahould regulate every man whe lives under the same government; the same heart should animate every breast; the same spirit should dictate every action of every member in the community, who has a common iaterest in the preservation of the whole.

A right opinion is that which connecte distant truths by the shortest train of intermediate propositions.

JOHNSON:
Fancy can oombine the Ideas which memory has treasnied.

Haweesworth.
A friend is he with whom our interest is unit-
$\theta d$.
HAWEES WOKTK.

## CONNEOTION; RELATION.

CONNECTION, v. To connect. RELA. TION, from relate, in Latin relatue, par. ticiple of refero, to bring back, signifies carrying back to aome point.

Theae words are applied to two or more things, to denote the manner in which they stand in regard to each other. A connection denotes that which binda two objects, or the situation of being eo bound by some tie; hut relation denotes the situation of two or more objecte in regard to each other, yet without defining what it is; a connection is therefore a apecies of relation, but a relation may be'something which does not amount to a connection. Families are connected with each other by the ties of blood or marriage; peraona are connected with each other io the way of trade or business; objects stand in a certain relation to cach other, as persons stand in the relation of giver and receiver, or of debtor and creditor; there is a connection hetween Church and State, or between morality and religion; men stand in the relation of creatures to their Creator.

It is odd to consider the connection botweon
despotism and barbarity, and how the making one person more than man makes the rest lesa. Addison.
If considered in any relation to the crown, to the national assembly, to the public trilunals, or to the army, or considered in a view to any coherence or connection betwcen its parts, it seems a monster.

Buree.
The word relation is sometimes taken in a limited sense for one connected by family ties, which denotes something nearer in that case than connection; as when speaking of a man's relations, or of a person being related to another, to leave one's property to one's relations.

With them, as relations, they most commonly keep a close connection through life. Burke.

## TO CONQUER, VANQUISII, SUBDUE, OVERCOME, SURMOUNT.

CONQUER, in French conquérir, Latin conquiro, compounded of con and quero, to search after diligently, signifies in an extended sense to obtain by search. ing. VANQUISH is in French vaincre, Latin vinco, Greek (per metathesin) vıкaw, Hebrew natzach. SUBDUE, Latin subdo, signities to give or put under. OVERCOME, compounded of over and come, signifies to come over or get the mastery over one. SURMOUNT, in French surmonter, compounded of sur, over, and monter, to mount, signifies to rise above any onc.

The learding idea in the word conquer. is that of getting; the leading idea in vanquish and subdue is that of getting the better of, the former partially, the latter thorougbly, so as to prevent any future resistance: a country is conquered; an enemy is vanquished; in the tield of battle a people is subdued.
While these two rivals were thas contending for empire, their conquests were various. Luxnry got possession of one heart, and Avarice of another. Spectator.
Now flies the monarch of the sable shield, His legions vanquish'd, o'er the lonely field. Sir W, Jones.
You pretend to be the punisher of robbers, and are yourself the general robber of mankind. You bave taken Lydia; you have seized Syria; you are mater of Persia: you have suddued the Bactrians, and attacked India.

Quintua Contius.
Conquer may sometimes also signify to get the hetter, but in that case it does not define the mode or extent of the ac-
tion; we may conquer anotber in any con. test, and in any manner; but we vanquish and subdue persons only by force, and mostly by force of arms.

When we attack a man upon tbat weak quarter which bis misfortunes have left undefended, it is aining our blowa when we cannot conquer by fair fighting.

Tatler.
When overcome is applied to persons, it has precisely the same indefinite and general meaning as conquer.
To work in close design by frand or guile What force effected not, that he no less At length from us may find, who overcomass By force hath overcome but half his foe.

Minton.
But avercome, as well as conquer, sub. due, and vanquish, are applied also to moral objects, and surmount has for the most part no other application. To conquer is said of tbe person himself, his likes, dislikes, and feelings generally; subdue of what relates either to the person himself or some other person, as to subdue the will or the passions. What is conquered makes less resistance and requires less force than what is subdued. It is likewise not so thorougbly subjugated or destroyed. We may conquer an aversion at one time which may return at another time; if the will be subdued in childhood, it will not prevail in riper years.
Real glory
Springs from the silent eonquest of ourselves.
Тномвол.
Socrates and Marcus Aurelius are instances of men who, by the strength of philosophy laving subdued their passions, are celebrated for good husbands.

Spectator.
To vanquish is applied figuratively to particular objects as in the proper sense.
There are two parts in our nature. The inferior part is generally much stronger, and has always the start of reason; which, if it were not aided by religion, would almost universally be vanquished.

Berkelef.
To avercome is applied to objections, scruples, prejudices, difficulties, and the like; surmount to difficulties, obstacles, impediments, etc. What is avercome requires less exertion than that whicb is surmounted. We may overcome by patience or forbearance; but determination, or the application of more or less force, is necessary in surmounting ob, stacles.

The patient mind by yielding overcomes.
Philife.
Actuated by some high passion, a man conceives great designs, and surmounts all difficu:cics in the executioo.

Blaik.

## CONQUEROR, VICTOR.

Triese terms, though derived from the preceding verbs (v. To conquer, vanquish), bave, notwithstanding, characteristics peculiar to themselves. A CONQUEROR is always supposed to add something to his possessions; a VICTOR gains nothing but the superiority: there is no conquest where there is not something gotten; there is no victory where there is no contest: all conquerors are not victors, nor all victors conquerors: those who take possession of other men's lands by force of arms make a conquest; those who excel in any trial of skill are the victors. Monarchs when they wage a successful war are mostly conquerors; combatants who compel their adiversaries to yield are victors.

God assists us in the virtuous conflict, and will crown the conqueror with eternal rewards.
blain.
Proud Gyas, and his train,
In triumph rode the victors of the main.
Diyden.

## CONSCIENTIOUS, SCRUPULOUS. .

CONSCIENTIOUS, from conscience, marks the quality of having a nice conscience. SCRUPULOUS, from scruplc, signifies the quality of having scruples. Scruple, in Latin scrupulus, signifies a little hard stone, which in walking gives pain.

Conscientions is to scrupulous as a whole to a part A conscientious man is so altogether; a scrupulous man may have only particular scruples: the one is therefore always taken in a good sense; and the other at least in an indifferent, if not a bad sense. A conscientions man does nothing to offend his conscience; but a scrupulous man has often his scruples on trifling or minor points: the Pharisees were scrupulous without being conscientious: we must therefore strive to be conscientious without being over-scrupulous.

A conecientious person would rather distrust his awn judgment than condemn his species. He would say, I have abserved withont attention, or
judged upon erroneous maxims; 1 have trnsted to profession when I ought to have attended to conduct.

Bunke.
I have been so very scrupulous, in this particular, of not hurting any man's reputation, that I have forborne mentioning even buch anthors as I could not name with honor.

Addison.
TO CONSENT, PERMIT, ALLOW.
CONSENT, $v . T o$ agree. PERMIT and ALLOW, v. To admit.

The idea of deternining the conduct of others by some authorized act of one's own is common to these terms, but under various circumstances. They express cither the act of an equal or a superior. As the act of an equal we consent to that in which we have a common interest with others; we pernat or allow what is for the accommoaation of others: we allow by abstaining to oppose; we permit by a direct expression of our will; contracts are formed by the consent of the parties who are interested. The proprietor of an estate permits his friends to sport on his grounds; he allows of a passage through his premises. It is sometimes prudent to consent; complaisant to permit ; good-natured or weak to allow.

## Do not consent

That Antony speak in his funeral;
Know ye how much the people may be woo'd By that which he will utter. Sharspeare.

You have given your permission for this address, and encouraged me by your perusal and approbation.

Dryden.
I was, by the freedom allonoable among friends, tempted to vent my thoughts with negligence.

Boyle.
Consent respects matters of serious importance; permit and allow regard those of an indifferent nature: a parent consents to the establishment of his children; he permits them to read certain books; he allows them to converse with him familiarly. We must pause before we give our consent; it is an express sanction to the conduct of others; it involves our own judgment, and the future interests of those who are under our control. This is not always so necessary in permitting and allowing; they are partial actions, which require no more than the bare exercise of authority, and involve no other consequence than the temporary pleasure of the parties concerned. Public measures are permitted and allowed, but never consented to. The law pormits

## CONSEQUENCE

or allows; or the person who is authorized permits or allows. Permit in this case retains its positive sense; allow its negative sense, as before. Government permits individuals to fit out privateers in time of war: when magistrates are not vigilant, many things will be done which are not allowed. A jndge is not permitted to-pass any sentence but what is strictly conformable to law : every man who is accused is allowed to plead his own cause, or intrust it to another, as he thinks fit.

Thongh what thou tell'st some doubt within me move',
But more desire to hear, if thou consent, The full relation.

Milen.
After men have acquired as much as the law permits them, they have nothiog to do but to take care of the public.

SWIFT.
They referred all laws that were to be passed in Ireland to be considered, corrected, and allowed by the state of England.

Spenser.
These terms are similarly distinguished in the moral application.
O no! our reason was not vainly lent!
Nor is a slave but by its own consent. Dryden.
Shame, and his conseience,
Win not permit him to deny it. Randolph.
I think the strictest moralists allow forms of address to be used, without much regard to their litersl acceptation.

Johnson.

## CONSEQUENCE, EFFECT, RESULT, IS, SUE, EVENT.

CONSEQUENCE, in French conséquence, Latin consequentia, from consequor, to follow, signifies that which follows in connection with something else. EFFECT is the thing effected ( $v$. To accomplish). RESULT, in French résulte, Latin resulto, or resultus and resilio, to rebound, signifies that which springs or bounds back from another thing. ISSUE is that which issnes or flows out (v. To arise). EVENT, in Latin eventus, participle of evenio, from $e$, forth, and venio, to come, is that which comes forth.

All these terms are emplojed to denote that which follows something else ; they vary according to the different circumstances under which they follow, or the manner of their following. A consequenee is that which follows of itself, tithout any qualification or restriction; an effect is that which is effected or pro-
duced, or which follows from the con. nection between the thiog effecting, as a cause, and the thing effected. In the nature of thinge canses will have effects, and for every effect there will be a canse, although it may not be visible. Consequenees, on the other hand, are either casual or natural ; they are not always to be calculated upon. Effect applies to physical or moral objects; eonsequences to moral objects only: diseases are the effects of intemperance; the loss of character is the general consequence of an irregular life.
Jealonsy often draws after it a fatal train of
ADDIson. consequences.

A passion for praise produces very good effects. ADDIgON.
Consequences follow either from the actions of men, or from things where thers is no direct agency or design; results follow from the actions or efforts of men: consequences are good or bad; results are favorable or unfavorable. We endeavor to avert consequences and to produce results. Not to foresee the consequences which are foreseen by others evinces a more than ordinary share of indiscretion and infatuation. To calculate on a favorable result from an ill-judged or ill-executed enterprise only proves a consistent blindness in the projector.

> Were it possible for anything in the Christian faith to be erroueons, I can find no ill consé quence in adhering to it. Were all these dreadful things necessary? Were they the inevitable results of the desperate struggle of patriots? Borke.

A consequence may be particular or follow from a part; a result is general, following from a whole: there may be many consequences from the same thing, and but one result only.

## The state of the world is continually ehanging, and none can tell the result of the next vicissitude. <br> Johnson.

As results follow from actions or efforts, there is this further distinction; that in regard to intellectual operations results may be drawn by the act of the mind; as the results of reasoning or calculation.
This policy appears to me to be the result of profound retiection.

Borese.

Corsequeuces may be intermediate or final; tisue and event are always final: the former is that which flows from particular efforts; the latter from complicated undertacings where chance may interpose to bring about that which happens; hence we speak of the issue of a negotiation or a battle, and the event of a war. The fate of a nation sometimes hangs on the wssue of a battle. The measures of government are often unjustly praised or blamed according to the event.

Henley in one of his advertiaements had men. tioned Pope's treatment of Savage; this was suppused by Pope to be the consequence of a complaint made by Savage to Henley, and was therefore mentioned by him with mueh resentment.

Johnaon.
A inild, unruffed, self-possessing mind is a blessing more important to real felicity than all that ean be gained by the triumphant isaue of some violent eontest.

Blair.
It has always heen the practice of mankind to Judge of actions by the event.

Jounso

## TO CONSIDER, TO REFLECT.

CONSIDER, in French considérer, Latin considero, a factitive verb, from consido, to sit down, signifies to make to settle. REFLECT, in Latin reftecto, compounded of $r e$ and flecto, signifies to turn back or upon itself.

The operation of thought is expressed by these two words, but it varies in the circumstances of the action. Considera. tion is employed for practical purposes; reflection for matters of speculation or moral improvement. Common objects oall for consideration; the workings of the miud itself, or objects purely spiritunl, occupy reflection. It is necessary to consider what is proper to be done before we take any step; it is consistent with our natures, as rational beings, to reflect on what we are, what we ought to be, and what we shall be. Without consideration we shall naturally commit the most flagrant errors; without reflection we shall never understand our duty to our Maker, dur neighbor, and ourselves.

[^30]TO CONSIDER, REGARD.
To CONSIDER' (v. To consider, reflect) signifies to take a view of a thing in the mind which is the result of thought. To REGARD (v. Care, concern) is properly to look back upon or to look at with concern. There is more caution or thought in considering, more personal interest in regarding. To consider is to bear in mind all that prudence or propriety suggests; to regard is to bear in mind all that our wishes or interests suggest. It is most usual to consider the means or mattors in detail, and to regard the end or object at large: a man will consider whether a thing is good or bad, proper or improper, out of the regard which he has for his reputation, his honor, his conscience, and the like. Where he has no consideration he cannot possibly have a regard, but he may have a regard where considerations are not necessary. A want of consideration as to the circumstances and capacity of another may lead one to form a wrong judg. meut of his conduct. A want of regard for the person himself may lead one to be regardless of his comfort and convenience.

The king had not at that time one person about him of his comncil who lad the least consideration of lis own honor, or friendship for those who sat at the helm of uffairs, the Duke of Lennos excepted.

Clarempon.
If much yon note him,
You offend him; feed and regard him not.
shakspeare.
So, in application to things not expressly connected with one's interests or inclinations, to conseder is to look at things simply as they are; to regard is to look at them with a certain degree of interest.
I consider the sonl of man as the ruin of a glorious pile of bnildings.

Steels.
I regard trade not only as highly advantsgeons to the commonwealth in general, but as the most natural and likely method of making a man's fortune.

Budgell.

## CONSIDERATION, REASON.

CONSIDERATION, or that which enters into a person's consideration ( $v$. To consider), has a reference to the person considering. REASON (v. Cause), or that which influences the reason, is taken absolutely. Considerations are therefore, for the most part, partial, as affecting partio
alar interests, or dependent on particular circumstances. Reasons, on the contrary, may be general, and vary according to the subject.

He had been made general npon very partial and not enough deliberated considerations.

Clarendon,
The reasons assigned in a law of the 36th year of Edward III, for having pleas and judgmenta in the English tongue might have been urged for having the laws theanselves in that language.

TyRwhitr.
The consideration influences particular sctions; the reason determines a line of conduct: no consideration of profit should induce a person to forfcit his word; the reasons which men assign for their conduct are often as absurd as they are false.

He was obliged, antecedent to all considerations, to search an asylum.

Drioen.
I mask the business from the common eye
For sundry weighty reasons. Sharspeaze.
In matters of argument, the consideration is that which one offers to the consideration of another; the reason is that which lies in the nature of the thing.

The folly of ascribing temporal punishments to any particular crimes may appear from several considerations.

Addison.
lfit be natural, ought we not rather to conclude that there is some ground or reason for those fears, and that naturc hath not planted them in os to no purpose?

Tillotaon.
TO CONSIGN, COMMIT, INTRUST.
CONSIGN, in French consigner, Latin, consigno, compounded of con and signo, signifies to seal for a specific purpose, also to deposit. COMMIT, in French commettre, Latin committo, compounded of com and matto, to put together, signifies to put into a person's hands. INTRUST, compounded of in and trust, signifies to put in trust.

The idea of transferring from one's self to the care of another is common to these terms, differing in the nature and object of the action. To consign is a more formal act, a more absolute giving from ourselves to another, than to commit: a mercnant consigns his goods to another to dispose of them for his advantage; he commits the roanagement of his business to his clerk: a child is consigned to another. for him to take the whole charge
of his education, maintenance, and the like; but when he is committed to the charge of another, it is mostly with lim. itations.
Atrides, parting for the Trojan war,
Consign'd the youthful consort to his care.

> Popr.

In a very ahort time Lady Maccleafield removed her son from her aight, by commitfing him to the care of a poor woman.

Johnson's Life op Savage
To intrust refers to the degree of trust or confidence which is reposed in the individual; a child may be intrusted to the care of a servant for a short time; a person may be intrusted with the property or secrets of another; or individuals may be intrusted with power.
Supposing both equal is their natural integrlty, I ought in common prudence to fear foul play from an indigent person rather than from one whose circumstances seem to have placed him above the base temptation of money. This reason makes the commonwealth regard her richeat subjects as the fittest to be intorusted with her highest employments.

Addison.
In the figurative application, to consugn is to deliver over so as to hecome the property of another thing; to com$m i t$ is to give over for the purpose of taking charge of. Death consigns many to an untimely grave; a writer commuts his thoughts to the press.

At the day of general account, good men are then to be consigned over to another state, a state of everlasting love and charity.

Atteribay.
Is my muse controll'd
By servile awe? Born free, and not be bold! At least l'll dig a hole within the ground, And to the frusty earth commit the sonnd.

Dryder.
Consign may thus be used in the sense of assign, and comment in the sense of trusting at all hazards.
And oft I wish, amidst the scene, to find Soine spot to real happiness consign'd.

## Goldsmiti.

Acastus was soon prevailed upon by his curi. osity to sct rocks and hardships at defiance, and commit his life to the winds.

Johnson.

## TO CONSOLE, SOLACE, COMFORT.

CONSOLE and SOLACE are derived from the same source, in French consoler, Latin consolor and solatium, possibly from solum, the ground, which nourishes all things. COMFORT, v. Comfort

Console and solace denote the relieving of pain; comfort marks the communication of positive pleasure. We console others with words; we console or solace ourselves with reflections; we comfort by words or deeds. Console is used on more important uccasions than solace. We console our friends when they meet with afflictions; we solace aurselves when we meet with disasters; we comfort those who stand in need of comfort. The greatest consolation which we can enjoy on the death of our friends is derived from the hope that they have exchanged a state of imperfection and sorrow for one that is full of pure and unmixed felicity. It is no small solace to us, in the midst of all our troubles, to consider that they are not so bad that they might not have been worse. The comforts which a person enjoys may be considerably enhanced by the comparison with what he has formerly suffered.

In affictions men generally draw their consolation out of books of morality, which indeed are of great use to fortify and strengthen the mind against the impressions of sorrow.

AdDison.
He that undergoes the fatigue of labor must solace his weariness with the contemplation of its reward.

Jounson.
If our affictions are light, we shall he comforted by the comparison we make between ourselves and our fellow-sufferers.

Addison.
CONSONANT, ACCORDANT, CONSISTENT.
CONSONANT, from the Latin consonans, participle of con and sono, to sound together, signifies to sound, or be, in unison or harmony. ACCORDANT, from accord ( $v$. To agree), signifies the quality of according. CONSISTENT, from the Latin consistens, participle of consisto, or con and sisto, to place together, signifies the quality of being able to stand in unison together.

Consonant is employed in matters of representation; accordant in matters of opinion or sentiment; consistent in matters of conduct. A particular passage is consonant with the whole tenor of the Scriptures; a particular account is accordant with all one hears and sees on a subject; a person's conduct is not always consistent with his station. Consonant is opposed to dissonant; accordant to discordant ; consistent to iṇconsistent.

Consonance is not so positive a thing as either accordance or consistency, which respect real events, circumstances, and actions. Consonance may serve to prove the trutl of a thing, but dissonance does not prove its fulsehood until it amounts to direct discordance or inconsistency. There is a dissonance in the accounts given by the four Evangelists of our Saviour, which serves to prove the absence of all collusion and impasture, since there is neither discordance nor inconsistency in what they have related or omitted.
Our faith in the discoveries of the Gospel will receive confirmation from discerning their consonance with the natural sentiments of the human heart.

Blair.
The difference of good and evil in actions is not founded on arbitrary opinions or institutions, but in the nature of things and the nature of man; it accords with the universal sense of the human mind.

Blair.
Keep one consistent plan from end to end.
ADDISON.

## CONSTANCY, STABILITY, STEADINESS, FIRMNESS.

CONSTANCY, in French constance, Latin constantia, from constans and consto, compounded of con and sto, to stand by or close to a thing, signifies the quality of adhering to the thing that has been once chosen. STABILITY, in French stabilité, Latin stabilitas, from stabilis and sto, to stand, signifies the quality of being able to stand. STEADINESS, from stcady or staid, Saxon stetig, high German stätig, Greek $\sigma \tau a \Im o s, ~ \sigma \tau a \vartheta \varepsilon \iota \varsigma$, and $\iota \sigma \tau \eta \mu \iota$, to stand, signifies a capacity for standing. FIRMNESS, from firme, in French ferme, Latin firmus, comes from fero, to bear, signifying the quality of bearing, upholding, or keeping.

Constancy respects the affections; stobility the opinions; steadiness the action or the motives of action; firmness the purpose or resolution. Constancy prevents from changing, and furnishes the mind with resources against weariness or disgust of the same object; it preserves and supports an attachment under every change of circumstances; stability prevents from varying, it bears up the mind against the movements of levity or curiosity, which a diversity of objects might produce; steadiness prevents from deviating; it enables the mind to bear
up against the influence of humor, which temperament or outward circumstances might produce: it fixes on one course, and keeps to it : firinness prevents from yielding; it gives the mind strength against all the attacks to which it may be exposed; it makes a resistance, and comes off triumphant. Constancy, among lovers and friends, is the favorite theme of poets; the word has, however, afforded hut few originals from which they could copy their pictures: they have mostly described what is desirable rather than what is real. Stability of character is essential for those who are to command, for how can they govern others who cannot govern their own thoughts? Steadiness of deportment is a great recommendation to those who have to obey: how can any one perform his part well who suffers himself to be perpetually interrupted? Firmness of character is indispensable in the support of principles: there are many occasions in which this part of a man's character is likely to be put to a severe test. Constancy is opposed to fickleness ; stability to changeableness; steadiness to Higlitiness; firmness to pliancy.

Without constancy there is neither love, friendship, nor virtue in the world. ADDIson.

With God there is no variableness, with man there is no stability. Virtue and vice divide the empire of his mind, and wislom and folly alternately rule him.

Blatr.
A manly stectianess of conduct is the object we are always to keep in riew.

Blair.
A corrupted and guilty man can possess no true firmness of beart. Blaia.

## TO CONSTITUTE, APPOINT, DEPUTE.

CONSTITUTE, in Latin constitutus, participle of constituo, that is, con and statuo, to place together, signifies here to put or place for a specific purpose. APPOINT, $w$, To appoint. DEPUTE, in French députer, Latin deputo, compounded of $d e$ and puto, to esteen or assign, signifies to assign a certain office to a person.

The act of choosing some person or persons for an office is comprehended under all these terms: constitute is a more solemn act than appoint, and this than depute: to constitute is the act of a body; to appoint and depute, either of a
body or an individual: a community con stitutes any one their leader; a monarch appoints his ministers; an assembly deputes some of its members. To constitute implies the act of making as well as choosing; the office as well as the person is new: in appointing, the person, but not the office, is new. A person may be constituted arbiter or judge as circumstances may require; a successor is appointed, but not constituted.
Where there is no constituted judge, as be. tween independent states there is not, the vicinage itself is the natural judge. Burke.
The accusations against Columbus gained such credit in a jealous court, that a commissioner was appointed to repair to Hispaninla, and to inspect into his conduct.

Robeetcon.
Whoever is constituted is invested with supreme authority derived from the highest sources of power; whoever is appoint. $e d$ derives his authority from the authority of others, and has consequently but limited power : no individual can appoint another with authority equal to his own : whoever is deputed has private and not public authority; his office is partial, often confined to the particular transaction of an individual, or a body of individuals. According to the Romish religion, the Pope is constituted supreme head of the Christian Church throughout the whole world; governors are appointed to distant provinces; persons are deputed to present petitions or make representations to government.

[^31]
## CONSTRAINT, COMPULSION.

CONSTRAINT, from constrain, Latin constringo, compounded of con and stringo, signifies the act of straining or tying together. COMPULSION signifies the act of compelling ( 0. To compel).

There is much of binding in constraint ; of violence in compulsion: constraint prevents from acting agreeably to the will; compulsion forces to act contrary to the will: a soldier in the ranks moves with
much constraint, and is often subject to much compulsion to make him move as is desired. Constraint may arise from outward circumstances; compulsion is always produced by some active agent: the forms of civil society lay a proper constraint upon the behavior of men, so as to render them agreeable to each other; the arm of the civil power must ever be ready to compel those who will not submit without compulsion: in the moments of relaxation, the actions of children should be as free from constraint as possible; those who know and wish to do what is right will always be ready to discharge their duty without compulsion.
Commands are no constraints. If I obey them, I do it freely. Milton.
Savage declared that it was not his design to fly from justice; that he intended to have appeared (to appear) at the bar without compulsion.

## CONSTRAINT, RESTRAINT.

CONSTRAINT, v. Constraint, compulsion. RESTRAINT, v. To coerce, restrain.

Constraint respects the movements of the body only; restraint those of the mind, and the outward actions: when they both refer to the outward actions, we say a person's behavior is constrain$e d$; his feelings are restrained: he is constrained to act or not to act, or to act in a certain manner; he is restrained from acting at all, or he may be restrained from feeling: the conduct is constrained by certain prescribed rules, by discipline and order; it is restrained by particular motives: whoever learns a mechanical exercise is constrained to move his body in a certain direction; the fear of detection often restrains persons from the commission of vices more than any sense of their enormity.

When from constraint only the offlces of seemIng kindness are performed, little dependence can be placed on them.

Blatr.
What restraints do they he under who have no regards beyond the grave?

Berkelef.

## TO CONSULT, DELIBERATE.

CONSULT, in French consulter, Latin consulto, is a frequentative of consulo, signifying to counsel together (v. Advice, counsel). DELIBERATE, in French délibérer, Latin delibero, compounded of $d e$
and libro, or libra, a balance, signifies to weigh as in a balance.

Consultations always require two persons at least; deliberations may be carried on either with a man's self or with numbers: an individual may consult with one or many; assemblies commonly deliberate: advice and information are given and received in consultations; doubts, difficulties, and objections are started and removed in deliberations We communicate and hear when we con sult; we pause and hesitate when we deliberate: those who have to co-operate must frequently consuld together; tbose who have serious measures to decide upon must coolly deliberate.

Ulysses (as Homer tells us) made a voyage to the regions of the dead, to consult Tiresias how he should return to his country. ADDtson.

Moloch declares himsclf abruptly for war, and appears incensed at his companions for losing so much time as even to deliberate upon it.

AdDison.

## CONSUMMATION, COMPLETION.

CONSUMMATION, Latin corsummatio, compounded of con and summa, the sum, signifies the summing or winding up of the whole-the putting a final period to any concern. COMPLETION signifies either the act of completing, or the state of being completed ( $v$. To complete).

The arrival at a conclusion is comprehended in both these terms, but they differ principally in application; wisbes are consumniated; plans are completed: we often flatter ourselves that the complation of all our plans will be the consummation of all our wishes, and thus expose ourselves to grievous disappointments.
It is not to be doubted but it was a constant practice of all that is praiseworthy wbich made her capable of beholding death, not as the disso. lintion but the consummation of life.' Steele.
He makes it the completion of an ill character to bear a malevolence to the best of men.

Pope.
As epithets, consummate and complete admit of a similar distinction. :Consummate is said of that which rises absoIntely to the highest possible degree, as consummate wisdom, or consummate felicity; complete is said of that which is so relatively; a thing may be complete which fully answers the purpose.

## CONTAGIOUS

0 thou whose wisdom, solid yet refined, Whose patriot virtues and consummate skill Give thee, with pleasing dignity, to shine At once the guardian, ornament, and joy Of polish'd life!

Thomson.
To add now (in order to make this second fruit of friendship compleat ) that other point which lieth more opea, which is faithful counsel from a friend.
bacon.

## CONTACT, TOUCH.

CONTACT, in Latin contactus, participle of contingo, compounded of con and tango, to touch together, is distinguished from the simple word TOUCH, not so much in sense as in grammatical construction; the former expressing a state, and referring to two bodies actually in that state; the latter, on the other hand, implying the abstract act of towhing: we speak of things coming or being in contact, but not of the contact instead of the touch of a thing: the poison which comes from the poisou-tree is so powerful in its nature, that it is not necessary to come in contact with it in order to feel its baneful influence; some insects are armed with stings so inconceivably sharp, that the smallest touch possible is sufficient to produce a puncture in the flesh.
We are attracted toward each other by general sympathy, but kept back from contact by private interest.

Jonnson.
O death! where is now thy sting? O grave! where is thy victory? Whicre are the terrors with which thou hast so loug affrighted the nations? At the touch of the Divine rod thy visionary horrors are fled.

Blata.

## CONTAGION, INFECTION.

Boti these terms imply the power of communicating something bad, but CONTAGION, from the Latin verb contingo, to come in contact, proceeds from a simple touch; and INFECTION, from the Latin inficio, or in and facio, to put in, proceeds by receiving something inwardly or having it infused. We consider contagion as to the manner of spreading from one body to another; we consider infection as to the act of its working itself into the system. Whatever acts by contagion acts immediately by direct personal contact; whatever acts by infection acts gradually and indirectly, or through the medium of a third body, as clothes, or the air when infected. The word contagion is, therefore, properly applied only to particular diseases, but infection may
be applied to every discase which is com municable from one subject to another. Whatever, therefore, is contagious is also infectious, but not vice versa.

I am particularly careful to destroy the clothes of the sick, because they harbor the very quintessence of contagion. Mead,
Whatever cotton is imported from that part of the world should at all times be kept in quarantine, because it may have imbibed infection at the time of its packing np.

Mead.
So, in application to other things besides diseases, contagion is employed to denote that species of communication which is effected by a direct action on the senses.
From look to look, contagious, tbrough the crowd
The panic runs. Thomson.
The misclief spread by the contagion of phrensy.

Johnson.
Infection is employed to denote the communication which takes place by the gradual process of being infected with aoything.

It is a disease in a state like to infection, for, as infection spreadeth upon that which is sound, and tainteth, so, wben envy is gotten once into a state, it traduceth even the best actions thereof.

Bacon.
So, in the moral application, whatever is outward acts by contagion, as to shun the contagion of bad example or had manners. Whatever acts inwardly acts by infection, as to shun the infection of bad principles.

If I send my son alroad, it is scarcely possible to keep him from the reigning contagion of rudeness.

Loce.
But we who only do infuse
The rage in them like boute-feus,
"Tis our example that instils
In them the infection of onr ills. Butler.

## CONTAGIOUS, EPIDEMICAL, PESTL-

## LENTIAL.

CONTAGLOUS signifies having or causing contagion (v. Contagion). EPIDEMICAL, in Latin epidemicus, Greek
 the people, signifies universally spread. PESTILENT1AL, from the Latid pestis, the plague, signifies having the plague, or a similar disorder.

The contagious applies to that which is capable of being caught, and ought not, thercfore, to be touched; the epidemical
to that which is already caught or circulated, and requires, therefore, to be stopped; the pestilential to that which may breed an evil, and is, therefore, to be removed : diseases are contagious or epidemical; the air or breath is pestilential.

## No foreign food the teeming ewes shall fear, No touch contagious spread its influence here. <br> Warton.

The siroc has never been known to produce any epidsmical distemper, nor indeed bad consequences of any kind to the health of the people. biydone.
Capricious, wanton, bold, and brutal lust
Is meanly selffsh; when resisted, cruel;
And, like the blast of pestilential winds,
Taints the sweet bloom of nature's fairest forms.
Milton.
They may all be applied morally or figuratively in the same sense. We endeavor to shun a contagious disorder, that it may not come near us; we endeavor to purify a pestilential air, that it may not be inhaled to our injury; we endeavor to provide against epidemical disorders, that they may not spread any farther. Vicious example is contagious; certain follies or vices of fashion are epidemical in almost every age ; the breath of infidelity is pestilential.

But first hy ardent prayer and clear lustration Purge the contagious spots of human weakness.

Prior.
Among all the discases of the mind, there is not one more spidemical or more pernicious than the love of flattery.

Steele.
So psstilential, so infections a thing is $\sin$, that it scatters one poison of its breath to all the neiglhorhood.

Jeremy Taytior.

## TO CONTAIN, HOLD.

CONTAIN, v. To comprise. HOLD, in Saxon healdan, low German holden, holle, Danish holde, German halten, which is most probably connected with haben, to have.

These terms agree in sense, but differ in application; the former is by comparison noble, the latter is ignoble in its use: hold is employed only for the material contents of hollow bodies; contain is employed for moral or spiritual contents: in familiar discourse a cask is said to hold, but in more polished language it is said to contain a certain number of gallons. A coach holds or contains a given number of persons; a room holds a given quan-
tity of furniture; a house or city contains its inhabitants.

But man, th' abstract
Of all perfection, which the workmanslip
of heav'n hath modell'd, in hiosself contains Passions of several qualities. FORD.
Death oniy this mysterious truth unfolds, The mighty soul how small a hody holds.

Dryden:
to contaminate, defile, pollute, TAINT, CORRUPT.
CONTAMINATE, in Latin contamina tus, participle of contamino, comes from the Hebrew tamah, to pollute. DEFILE, compounded of $d e$ and ffle or vile, signifies to make vile. POLLUTE, in Latin pollutus, participle of polluo, compounded of per and luo or lavo, to wash or dye, sig. nifies to infuse thoroughly. TAINT, in French teint, participle of teindre, in Latin tingo, to dye or stain. CORRUPT, in Latin cormuptus, participle of corrumpo, com. pounded of con and rumpo, signifies to break to pieces.

Contaminate is not so strong an expression as defile or pollute; but it is stronger than taint: these terms are used in the sense of injuring purity: corrupt has tbe idea of destroying it. Whatever is impure contaminates; what is gross and vile in the natural sense defiles, and in the moral sense pollutes; what is contagious or infectious corrupts; and what is corrupted may taint other things. Improper conversation or reading contaminates the mind of youth; lewdness and obscenity defile the body and pollute the mind; loose company corrupts the morals; the coming in contact with a corrupted body is sufficient to give a taint. If young people be admitted to a promiscuous intercourse with society, they must unavoidably witness objects that are calculated to contaminate their thoughts, if not their inclinations. They are thrown in the way of seeing the lips of females defiled with the grossest indecencies, and hearing or seeing things which cannot be heard or seen without polluting the soul: it cannot be surprising if after this their principles are found to be corrupted before they have reached the age of maturity.
The drop of water, after its progress throngh all the channels of the street, is not more contaminated with filth and dirt than a simple story

## CONTEMN

after lt has passed through the mouths of a few modern tale-hearers. Haweesworth.

When from the mountain tops with hideous cry And clatt'ring witigs the hungry harpies fly, They snatch the meat, defiling all they tind, And parting leave a loatlsome stench behind.

Deiten.
Her virgin statue with their blondy hands Polluted, and profan'd her holy bands.

Dryden.
All men agree that licentious poems do, of all Writings, soonest corrupt the heart. Steele.
Your teeming ewes shall no strange meadows try, Nor fear a rot from tainted company.

Dhydew.

## TO CONTEMN, DESPISE, SCORN, DISDAIN.

CONTEMN, in Latin contemno, compouaded of con and temno, is probably changed from tamino, and the Hebrew tamidh, to pollute or render worthless, whlch is the cause of contempt. DESPISE, in Latin despicio, compounded of de and specio, signifies to look down upon, which is a strong mark of contempt. SCORN, varied from our word shorn, signifies stripped of all honors and exposed to derision, which situation is the oause of scorn. DISDAIN, compounded of dis, privative, and dain or deign; to thlnk worthy, signifies to hold altogether unworthy.

The above elucidations sufficiently evince the feelling toward others which gives birth to all these actions. But the feeling of contempt is not quite so strong as thst of despising, nor that of despising so strong as those of scorning and disdaining, the latter of which expresses the strongest sentiment of all. Persons are contenned for their moral qualities; they are despised on account of their outward circumstances, their characters, or their endowments. Superiors may be contenned; inferiors only, or those who degrade themselves, are despised. Contempl, as applied to persons, is not incompatible with a Christian temper when justly provoked by their character; hut despising is distinctly forbidden, and seldom warranted. Yet it is not so much our business to contemn others as to contemr that which is contemptible; but we are not equally at liberty to despise the person, or anything belonging to the person, of another. Whatever springs from the free-will of another may be a sub-
ject of contempt: but the casualties ot fortune or the gifts of Providence, which are alike independent of personal merit, should never expose a person to be de. spised. We may, however, contemn a person for his impotent malice, or despise him for his meanness.

Contempt and derision are hard wards; hut in what manner can one give advice to a youth in the pursuit and possession of sensual pleasures; or afford pity to an old man in the impotence and desire of enjoying them?

Sterele.
It is seldom that the great or the wise suspect that they are cheated end deapised. Johnson.

Persons are not scorned or disdained, but they may be treated with scorn or disdain; they are both improper expressions of contempt or despite: scorn marks the sentiment of a little, vain mind; disdair of a haughty and perverted one. A beantiful woman looks with scorin on her whom she despises for the want of this natural gift. The wealthy man treats with disdain him whom he despises for hls poverty.

Infamons wretch I
So much below my soorn, I dare not kill thee.
Dryinen.
Yet not for those,
For what the potent victor in his rage
Can else inflict, do I repent or change,
Though chang'd in outward lustre; that fix'd mind
And high disdain from sense of indur'd merit. Milos.

In speaking of things independently of others, or as immediately connected with ourselves, all these terms may be sometimes employed in a good or an indifferent sense. When we contemn a mean action, and scorn to conceal by falsehood what we are called upon to acknowledge, we act the part of the gentleman as well as the Christian ; but it is inconsistent with orir infirm and dependent condition that we should feel inclined to despise anything that falls in our way; much less are we at liberty to disdain to do anything which our station requires; we ought to think nothing unworthy of us, nothing degrading to us, but that which is inconsistent with the will of God: there are, however, too many who affect to despise small favors as not reaching their fancied deserts, and others who disdain to receive any favor at all, from mistaken notions about dependence and obligation.

A man of spirit should contemn the praise of the ignorant.

Steele. Thrice lappy they, bencath their Northern skies, Who that worst fcar, the fear of death, despise; Provoke approaching fate, and bravely scorn To spare that life which must so soon return.

Rowe.
It is in some sort owing to the bounty of Providence that, risdaining a cheap and vulgar happiness, they frame to themselres inaginary goods, in which there is nothing cem raise desire but the difficulty of obtaining them.

Berkeley.
Virtue dishains to lend an ear
To the mad people's sense of right.
Francls.

## TO CONTEMPLATE, MEDITATE, MUSE.

CONTEMPLATE, in Latin contemplatus, participle of contemplor, probably comes from templum, a temple, as a place most fitted for contemplation. MEDITATE, in Latin meditatus, participle of meditor, is probably changed from melitor, in Greek $\mu_{\varepsilon \lambda \iota \tau} a \omega$, to modulate or attune the thoughts, as sounds are harmonized. MUSE is derived from musa, owing to the connection between the harmony of a song and the harmony of the thoughts in musing.

Different species of reflection are marked by these terms. We contcmplate what is present or before our eyes; we meditate on what is past or absent. The beavens and all the works of the Creator are objects of contemplation; the ways of Providence are fit subjects for meditation. One muses on events or circumstances which have been just passing.

I sincerely wish myself with you to contemplate the wonders of God in the firmanent, rather than the madness of man on the earth. Pope.

Bnt a very small part of the moments spent in meditation on the past produce any reasonable caution or salutary sorrow. Jonnson.

We may contemplate and meditate for the future, but never muse. In this case the two former terms bave the sense of contriving or purposing: what is contemplated to be done is thought of more indistinctly than when it is meditated to be done: many things are had in contemplation whicb are never seriously meditated upon: between contemplating and meditating there is oftener a greater distance than between meditating and executing.

The work which he had in contemplation may have been a history of that monarch.

Malone.

Thus plang'd in ills and meditating more, 'Ihe people's patience, tried, no longer borc The raging monster.

Driden
Meditating is a permanent and serious action; musing is partial and unimportant: meditation is a religious duty, it cannot be neglected without injury to a person's spiritual improvement; musing is a temporary employment of the mind on the ordinary concerns of life, as they happen to excite an interest for the time Contemplative and musing, as epithets, have a strong analogy to each other. Contemplative is a habit of the mind; musing is a particular state of the mind. A person may have a contemplative turn, or be in a musing mood.
There is not any property or circuinstance of my being that I contemplate with more joy than my immortality.

Berkeley.
There is nothing so forced and constrained as what we firequently meet with in tragedies; to make a man under the weight of great sorrow, or full of meditittion upon what he is going to exccute, cast about for a simile to what be himsclf is, or the thing which be is going to act. Steele.
Musing as wont on this and that,
Such trifles as I know not what.
Francis.

## CONTEMPTIBLE, CONTEMPTUOUS.

Taess terms are very frequently, though very erroneously, confoundea in common discourse. CONTEMPTIBLE is applied to the thing deserving contempt; CONTEMPTUOUS to that which is expressive of contempt. Persons, or what is done by persons, may be either contemptible or contemptuous; but a thing is only contemptible. A production is contemptille; a sneer or look is contemptnous.
Silence, or a negligent indifference, proceeds from anger mixed with scorn, that shows anotlier to be thought by you too contemptible to be regarded. ADpison.
My sister's principles in many particnlars differ; but there has been always such a harmony between us, that she seldom smiles upon those who have suffered me to pass with a contemptuous negligence.

Hawresworth.

CONTEMIPTIBLE, DESPICABIAE, PITIFUL.
CONTEMPTIBLE is not so strong as DESPICABLE or PITIFUL. A person may be contemptible for his vanity or weakness; but he is despicable for bis servility and baseness of cbaracter; he is pitiful for his want of manliness and
becoming spirit. A lie is at all times rontemptible; it is despreable when it is told for purposes of gain or private interest; it is pitiful when accompanied with indications of unmanly fear. It is contemptible to take credit to one's self for the good action one has not performed; it is despicable to charge another with the faults which we ourselves have committed; it is pitiful to offend others, and then attempt to screen ourselves from their resentment under any shelter which offers. It is contemptible for a man in a superior station to borrow of his inferiors; it is despicable in him to forfeit his word; it is pitiful in him to attempt to conceal anything hy artifice.

Were every man persuaded from how mean and low a principle this passion (for fiattery) is derived, there can be no doubt but the tierson who should attempt to gratify it would then be as contemptible as he is now successful.

Steele.
To put on an artful part to obtain no other but an unjust praise from the undisceruing is of all enteavors the most despicable.

Steele.
There is something pitifully mean in the inverted ambition of that man who can bope for annibilation, and please himself to think that lis whole fabric shall erumble into dust. Steele.

## CONTEMPTUOUS, SCORNFUL, DISDAINPUL.

These epithets rise in sense by a regular gradation. CONTEMPTUOUS is general, and applied to whatever ean express contempt: SCORNFUL and DISDAINFUL are particular; they apply only to outward marks: one is contemptuous who is scornful or disdainful, but not vice versa. Words, actions, and looks are contemptwous; looks, sneers, and gestures are scomful and disdainful. Contomptnous expressions are always nnjustifiable; whatever may be the contempt which a person's conduct deserves, it is unbecoming in another to give him any indications of the sentiment he feels. Scornful and disdutiaful smiles are resorted to by the weakest or the worst of mankind.

Prior never sacrifices accuracy to haste, nor indulges bimself in contemptuous negligence or impatient idleness.

Johnson.
As suon as Mavia began to look round, and saw the vagabond Mirtillo who had so long abgented himself from her circle, she looked upon him with that glance which in the language of oglers is called the acornful.

Tatler.

In vain he thus attempts her mind to move With tears and prayers and late repenting love; Disdeluffully she looked, then turning round, She fix'd her eyes unmov'd upon the ground.

Dryden.
TO CONTEND, CONTEST, DISPUTE.
CONTIEND, from tendo, to streteh one's course, and contra, against, signifies to strive against. CONTEST, from contra and testor, signifying to call to witness against; and DISPUTE, from dis and puto, signifying to think diversely, are modes of contending.

To contend is simply to exert a force against a force; to contest is to struggle together for an ohject.
'Tis madness to contend with strength divine.
Drtiden.
But fortune's gifts, if each alike possess'd,
And each were equal, must not all contest ?
Pore.
To contend and contest may be both applied to that which is claimed and striven for; but contending is the act of the individual without reference to others, where success depends upon personal efforts or prowess, as when one contend 6 at games. To contest is to set up rival pretensions to be determined by the suffrages of others, as to contest an election, to contest a prize.
At first the wrestlers contended only with strength of body, but Theseus invented the art of wrestling.

Potier.
Homer is mniversally allowed to have had the greatest invention of any writer whatever. Tbe praise of judgment Virgil has justly contested with him.

Pore.
Opinions may likewise be both contend$e d$ and contested, with this distinction, that to coutend is to maintain any opinion; to contest is to maintain different opinions: the person is said to contend, and the thing to be contested.

Lawyers, I know, cannot make the distinction for which I contend, becanse they have their strict rules to go by.

Boree.
As to this matter, which has been much cons tested., I myself am of opinion that more influence has been ascribed to the "Beggar's Opera" than it, in reality, has ever had.

To disputc, according to its original meaning, applies to opinions only, and is distinguished from contend in this, that the latter signifies to maintain one's own opinion, and the former to call in ques tion the opinion of another.

Tis thus the spring of youth, the morn of life, Bears in our minds the rival seeds of strife; Then passion riots, reason then contende, And on the conquest every hliss depends.

Shenstone.
I believe there is no one will diopute the author's great impartiality in setting down the accounts of these different rellgions.

ADDISON.
In respect to matters of personal interest, contend and dispute are employed with a like distinction, the former to denote striving for something desired by one's self, the latter to call in question something relating to others, as to contend for a victory, to dispute a person's right ; and when the idea of striving for a thing in dispute is to be expressed, this word may be employed indifferently with contend for, as to dispute or contend for a prize.

> Besides the exercises already described, there were others of a quite different nature; such were those wherein musicians, poets, and other artists contended for victory.

> Potter.
> Permit me not to languish out my days, But make the best exchange of life for praise. This arm, this lance, can well dispute the prize.

diyden.
Contention, contest, and dispute, as nouns, admit of a further distinction. Contention is always of a personal nature, whether as regards interests or opinions, and is always accompanied with more or less ill feeling.

As subordination is very necessary for society, and contentione for superiority are very dangerous, mankind, that is, all civilized society, have settled it upon a plain invariable principle.

Johnson.
Contests may be as personal as contentions, hut the objects in a contest being higher, and the contesting parties coming less into direct collision, there is less ill feeling produced.

The poor worm
Shall prove her contest vain. Life's little day Shall pass, and she is gone-while I appear
Flush'd with the bloom of youth through heaven's eternal year.

Mason on Truth.
As differences of opinion have a tendency to crcate ill feeling, disputes are rarely conducted without acrimony; but sometimes there may be disputes for that which is honorable, where there is no personal animosity.

[^32]
## CONTENTMENT, SATISFACTION.

CONTENTMENT, in French contento ment, from content, in Latin contentus, participle of contineo, to contain or hold, signifies the keeping one's self to a thing. SATISFACTION, in Latin satisfactio, compounded of satis and facio, signifies the making or having enough.
Contentment lies in ourselves: satisfaction is derived from external objects. One is contented when one wishes for no more: one is satisfied when one has obtained all one wishes. The contented man has always enougl ; the satisfied man has only enough for the time being. The conterted man will not be dissatisfied; hut he who looks for satisfaction will never be contented. Contentment is the absence of pain; satisfaction is positive pleasure. Contentment is accompanied with the enjoyment of what one has; satisfaction is often quickly followed with the alloy of wanting more. A coutented man can never be miserable; a satisfied man can scarcely be long happy. Contentment is a permanent and habitnal state of mind; it is the restriction of all our thoughts, views, and desires within the compass of present possession and enjoyment: satisfaction is a partial and turbulent state of the feelings, which awakens rather than deadens desire. Contentment is suited to our present condition; it accommodates itself to the vicissitudes of human life: satisfaction belongs to no created being; one satisfied desire engenders another that demands satisfaction. Contentment is within the reach of the poor man, to whom it is a continual feast; but satisfaction has never been procured by wealth, however enormons, or ambition, however boundless and successful. We should therefore look for the contented man where there are the fewest means of being satisfied. Our duty bids us be contented; our desires ask to be satisfied: but our duty is associated with our happiness; our desires are the sources of our misery.
True happiness is to no place confin'd,
But still is found in a contented mind.
Anonymods.
Women who have been married sowe time, not having it in their heads to draw after them a numerons train of followers, find their satisfaction in the possession of one man's heart.

Spectator.

When taken in a partial application to particular objects, there are cases in which we ought not to be contented, and where we may with propriety look for permanent satisfaction. We cannot be contented to do less than our duty requires; we may justly be satisfied with the consciousness of having done our duty.
No man should be contented with himself that he barely does well, but he should perform everything in the best namer he is able.

STEELE.
It is necessary to anl easy and happy life to possess our minds in such a manner as to be well satisfied with our own reflections. Steele.

## CONTINUAL, PERPETUAL, CONSTANT.

CONTINUAL, in French continuel, Latin continuus, from contineo, to hold or keep together, signifies keeping together withont intermission. PERPETUAL, in French perpétuel, Latin perpetualis, from perpeto, compounded of per and peto, to seek thoroughly, signifies going on everywhere and at all times. CONSTANT, v. Constancy.

What is continual admits of no interruption: what is perpetual admits of no termination. There may be, an end to that which is continual, and there may be intervals in that which is perpetual. Rains are continual in the tropical climates at certain scasons: complaints among the lower orders are perpetual, but they are frequently without foundation. There is a continual passing and repassing in the streets of the metropolis during the day; the world, and all that it contains, are subject to perpetual change.
Open your ears, for which of you will stop The vent of hearing when loud rumor speaks? Upon my tongue continual slanders ride, The which in every language I pronounce.

Shakspeare.
If affuence of fortune unhappily concur to favor the inclinations of the youthful, amusements and diversions succeed in a porpetual ronnd.

Blair.
Constant, like continual, admits of no interruption, and it also admits of no change; what is continual may not always continue io the same state; but what is constant remains in the same statc: continual is therefore applied to that which is expected to cease; and constanit to that which ought to last. A
nervous person may fancy he hears cona tinual noises. It will be the constant eadeavor of a peaceable man to live peaceably.
'Tis all blank sadness or continual tears. Pope.
The world's a scene of changes, and to be
Constant in nature were inconstancy. Cowley.
Continual may sometimes have a moral application ; as when we say, contentment is a continual feast; to have a continual enjoyment in anything : constant is properly applied to moral objects.

Where shall we find the man who looks out for one who places ber chief happiness in the practice of virtue, and makes her dinty her continual pleasure?

Spectator.

## And there cnt off

From social life, I felt a constant death.
Thomson.

## CONTINUAL, CONTINUED.

CONTINUAL, CONTINUED (v. Continual), both mark length of duration, but the former admits of a certain degree of interruption, which the latter does not. What is continual may have frequent pauses; what is continued ceases only to terminate. Rains are continual which are frequently repeated; so noises in a tumultuous street are continual: the bass iu music is said to be continued; the mirth of a drunken party is one continued noise. Continual interruptions abate the vigor of application and create disgust: in countries situated near the poles, there is one continued darkness for the space of tive or six months, during which time the inhabitants are obliged to leave the place.
And gulfy Simains rolling to the main
Helmets and shields and godlike herose slain:
These, turu'd hy Ploehus from their wonted ways,
Delng'd the rampire rine continual days.
POPE.
Our life is one continued toil for frme.
Martin.
Continual respects the duration of actions only; continued is likewise applied to the extent or course of things: rumors are continual; talking, walking, ruming, and the like, are continual; but a line, a series, a scene, or a stream of water, is contirued.

To Thee my thoughts
Tromson.
By too intense and continued application, onr fecble powers would soon be worn out. Biair.

## CONTINUANCE, CONTINUATION, DURATION.

CONTINUANCE, from the intransitive verb to continue, denotes the state of continuing or being carried on further. CONTINUATION, from the transitive verb continue, denotes the act of continuing or carrying on further. The continuance is said of that which itself continues; the continuation of that which is continued by some other agency: as the continuance of the rain ; the continuation of a history, work, line, etc.

That pleasure is not of greater continuance which arises from the prejudice or malice of the hearsers.

Adpison.
The Pythagorean transmigration, the sensual habitation of the Mohaminedan, and the shady realms of Pluto, do all agree in the main point, the continuction of our existence. Berfeley.

As the species is said to be continued, the word continuation is most properly applied in this case.

Thess things must be works of Providence for the continuation of the species.

Ray.
And the use of the word continuance, as in the following example, is irregular :

Providence seems to have equally divided the whole mass of mankind into differsut sexes, that every woman may have her husband, and that both may equally contribute to the continuance of the'species.

Addison.
Continuance and DURATION are both employed for the time of continuing; thinge may be of long continuance or of long duration: but continuance is used only with regard to the action; duration with regard to the thing and its existence. Whatever is occasionally done, and soon to be ended, is not for a continuance; whatever is made, and soon destroyed, is not of long duration: there are many excellent institutions in England which promise to be of no less concinuance than utility. Duration is with us a relative term; things are of long or short duration by comparison: the duration of the world, and all sublunary objects, is nothing in regard to eternity.

We see the anger of Achilles in its birth, continuance, and effects.

Pope.
Mr. Locke observes, "that we get the idea of time and draration, by reflecting on that train of Ideas which spaceed one another in our minds."

## CONTINUATION, CONTINUITY.

CONTINUATION (v. Continuance) sig nifies either the act of continuing, as to undertake the continuation or continuing of a history:

The sun ascending into the northern sigas begetteth first a temperate beat, which by his approach unto the solstice he intendeth: and by continuation the same even upon declination.

Browne: Vulgar Errors.
Or the thing continued; as to read the continuation of a history, that is, the history continued.

The rich cuuntry from thence to Portici corered with noble houses and gardens, and appearing only a continuation of the city. Bhydone.

CONTINUITY denotes the quality of bodies holding together without interruption; there are bodies of so little continuity that they will crumble to pieces on the slightest touch.
A body always perccives the passages by which it insinuates ; feels the impulse of another body where it yields thereto: perceives the separation of its contiauity, and for a time resists it: in fine, perception is diffused through all nature.

Bacon.
So likewise in the moral application.
The sprightly breast demands Incessant rapture; life, a tedious load, Denied its continuity of joy.

Shengtone.

## TO CONTINUE, REMAIN, STAY.

CONTINUE, v. Continual, perpetual REMAIN, in Latin remaneo, is compounded of re and manco, Greek $\mu \in \nu \omega$, Hebrew omad, to tarry. STAY is but a variation of the word stand.

The idea of keeping to an object is common to these terms. To continue is associated with a state of action; to remain with a state of rest: we are said to continue to speak, walk, or do anything, to continue in action or motion; to remain stationary, or in a position.

Whatever you can do, continue to do.
Johnson.
Pesce made two attempts, and astonished the spectators by the time he remained under water.

Baydone.
So likewise in application to the outward condition or the state of mind, continue denotes that which is active and positive; remain, that wbich is quiescent and tranquil ; to continue in a course, or
in a helief; to continue steadfast ; to remain in douht.
I continued resolute in pressing it. Temple. Experience next to thee I owe, Best guide, not following thee I had remain'd In ignorance.

Militon.
The same distinction exists between these words when things are the subjects: a war continues; a stone remains in the place where it is put.

The serpent in Homer's second Iliad devoured aight young sparrows with their dam, which was by Calchas interpreted to signify that the siege of Troy should continue nine whole years.

Potter.
They are building an enormous engine which they call St. Rosalia's trinmphal car. From the size of it, one would imagine it were forever to remain on the spot where it is erected.

Brydone.
Continue is frequently taken absolutely for continuing in action; remain, from the particle $r e$, has a relative signification to something else: the sickness or the rain continues; I will use my utmost endeavors as long as health remains.

Down rush'd the rain
Impetuous, and continued till the eartl
No more was seen.
Milton.
I will be true to thee, preserve thee ever, The sad companion of this faithful breast, While life and thouglit remain.

Rowe.
Continue and remain are used in respect of place; stay is used in that of connection only. Continue is indefinite in its application and signification; as to continue in town or in the country: to remain is an involuntary act; as a soldier remains at his post, or a person remains in prison: stay is a voluntary act; as to stay at a friend's, or with a friend.

I have seen some Roman Catholic authors who tell ns that vicions writers continue in purgatory so loug as the influence of their writings continues upon posterity.

AdDison.
Mr. Pryn was sent to a castle in the island of Jersey, Dr. Bastwick to Scilly, and Mr. Burton to Guernsey, where they remained unconsidered, and truly' $I$ thought unpitied (for they were men of no virtue or merit), for the space of two years. Clarendon.
Where'er I go, my soul shall stay with thee; 'Tis but my shadow that I take away. Dryden.

TO CONTINUE, PFRSEVERE, PERSIST, PURSUE, PROSECUTE.
CONTINUE, v. Continual. PERSEVERE, in French persévérer, Latin perseverare, compounded of per and severus,
strict and steady, signifies to be steady throughout or to the end. PERSIST, in French persister, Latin persisto, compounded of per and sisto or sto, signifies to stand by or to a thing. PURSUE and PROSE. CUTE, in French poursuivre, come from the Latin prosequor and its participle prosecutus, signifying to follow after or keep on with.

The idea of not setting aside is common to these terms, which is the sense of continue without any qualification; the other terms, which are all species of continuing, include likewise some collateral idea which distinguishes them from the first, as well as from each other. Continue is comparable with persevere and persist in the neuter sense; with pursu6 and prosecute in the active sense. To continue is simply to do as one has done hitherto; to persevere is to continue without wishing to change, or from a positive desire to attain an object; to persist is to continue from a determination or will not to cease. The act of contiuuing, therefore, specifies no chartheteristic of the agent; that of persevering or persisting marks a direct temper of mind; the former is always used in a good sense, the latter in an indifferent or had seuse. We continue from habit or casualty; we persevere from reflection and the exercise of our judgment; we persist from attachment. It is not the most exalted virtue to contanue in a good course merely because we have been in the habit of so doing; what is done from habit merely, without any fixed principle, is always exposed to change from the influence of passion or evil counsel: there is real virtue in the act of per. severance, without which many of our best intentions would remain unfulfilled, and our best plans would be defeated: those who do not persevere can do no essential good; and those who do persevere often effect what has appeared to be impracticable; of this truth the discoverer of America is a remarkable proof, who, in spite of every mortification, rebuff, and disappointment, persevered in calling the attention of monarchs to his project, until he at length obtained the assistance requisite for effecting the discovery of a new world.

[^33]If we persevere in studying to do our duty toward God and man, we shall meet with the eateem, love, and confidence of those who are ground us.

Beair.
If they persist in pointing their batteries to (at) particular persona, no laws of war forbid the making reprisals.

ADDISON.
The Romans have not observed this distinction between perseverare and persistere; for they say, "In errore perseverare:" Clcero. "Ad ultimum perseverare:" Livy. "In eadem impindentia persistere:" Livy. "In proposito persistere:" Cicero. Probably in imitation of them, examples are to be found in English writers of the use of persevere in the bad sense, and of persist in the good sense; but the distinction is now invariably observed, Persevere is employed only in matters of some moment, in things of sufficient importance to demand a steady purpose of the mind; persist may be employed in that which is trifling, if not bad: a learner perseveres in his studies, in order to arrive at the necessary degree of improvement; a child persists in making a request until he has obtained the object of his desire: there is alwayn wisdom in perseverance, even though unsuccessful; there is mostly folly, caprice, or ohstinacy, in persistence: how different the man who perseveres in the cultivation of his talents, from him who only persists in maintaining falsehoods or supporting errors!

Patience and perseverance overcome the greateat difflculties.

Richardson.
The Arians themselves, who were present, subscribed also (to the Nicene creed), not that they meant aincerely and in deed to forsake their error, but only to escape deprivation aud exile, which they saw they could not avoid, openly per. aisting in their furmer opinions, when the greater part had concluded against them, and that with the emperor's royal assent.

Hoorez.
Continue, when compared with persevere or persist, is always coupled with modes of action: but in comparison with pursue or prosecute, it is always followed by some object: we continue to do, persevere or persist in doing something: but we continue, pursue, or prosecute some object which we wish to bring to perfection by additional labor. Continue is equally indefinite as in the former case; pursue and prosecute both comprehend collateral ideas respecting the disposition of the agent, und the nature of the object; to
continue is to go on with a thing as it has been begun; to pursue and prosecute is to continue by some prescribed rule, or in some particular manner: a work is continued; a plan, measure, or line of con. duct is pursued; an undertaking or a design is prosecuted: we may continue the work of another in order to supply a deficiency: we may pursue a plan that emanates either from ourselves or another; we prosecute our own work only in order to obtain some peenliar object: continue, therefore, expresses less than pursue, and this less than prosecute: the history of England has been continued down to the present period by different writers; Smoilett has pursued the same plan as Hume, in the continuation of his history; Captain Cook prosecuted his work of dis. covery in three several voyages. To continue is itself altogether an indifferent action; to pursue and prosecute are commendable actions; the latter still more than the former: it is a mark of great instability not to continue anything that we begin; it betrays a great want of prudence and discernment not to pursue some plan on every occasion which requires method; it is the characteristic of a persevering mind to $p$ rosecute whatever it has deemed worthy to enter upon.
After having petitioned for power to resist temptation, there ia so great an incongruity in not continuing the struggle, that we blush at the thought, and persevere, lest we lose all reverence for ourselves.

Haweeswonth.
Look round the habitable world, how few
Know their own good, or knowing it, pursue.
Ditinen.
Will ye not now the pair of sages praise,
Who the aame end pursued by several ways?
Dryiden.
There will be some study which every man more zealonsly $p$ rosecutes, some darling subject on which be is principally pleased to converse.

JOHNSOH.

## CONTRACTED, CONFINED, NARROW.

These words agree in denoting a limited space; but CONTRACTED, from contraho, to draw togetber, signifying drawn into a smaller compass than it might otherwise be in, and CONFINED (v. Bound), signifying brought within unusually small bounds, are said of that which is made or becomes so by circumstances. NARROW, which is a variation of near, denotes a quality belonging
naturally or otherwise to a material body. A limb is said to be contracted which is drawn up by disease; a situation is confined which has not the necessary or uaual degree of open space; a road or a room is narrow.

## And yon bright arch <br> Contracted, hends into a dusky vanlt.

Thombon.
The presence of every created being is confined to a certsin measure of space, and consequently his observation is stinted to a certain number of objects.

Admison.
Each in his narrons cell forever lsid, The ruda forefathers of the hsmlet sleap. Gaay.

These terms arc figuratively applied to moral objects with the same distinction: the mind is contracted by education or habit; a person's views are confined by reason of his ignorance; people have for the most part a temper narrow by nature.

> Notwithstanding a narrow, contractsa temper be that which obtains most in the world, wa must not; thereforg, conclude this to he tha ganuine charsctaristic of mankind. In its present babitation, the soul is plainly oonfined in lts operations. Resentments are not easily dislodged from narmow minds. Cumberland.

## TO CONTRADICT, DENY, OPPOSE.

CONTRADIOT, from the Latin contra and dictum, signifies a speech against a speech. DENY, in Frenoh dénier, Latin denego, is compounded of $d e, n e$, and ago or dico, and signifies to say no. OPPOSE, in French opposer, Latin opposui, perfect of oppono, from op or ob and pono, signifies to throw in the way or against a thing.

To contradict, as the origin of the word sufficiently denotes, is to set up one asaertion against another, but it does not necessarily imply an intentional act. The contradiction may lie in the force of the terms, whence logicians call those propositions contradictory which in all their terms are directly opposed to each other : as, "All men are liars;" "No men are liars." A person may contradict himself, or two witncsses may contradict each other who have had no communication.

The Jews hold that in case two rabbies shonld
consradiot ons another, they were yet bound to
beliave the contradiotory assertions of both.
SonTr.
To deny is to assert the falsehood of another's assertion, and is therefore a
direct and pergonal act; as to deny any one's statement.
When the parties come to a fact which is af firmed on one side and denied on the other, then they ara ssid to be at issue. Blacestone.

Contradictions may be given at the pleasure or for the convenience of the parties; denials are made in support either of truth or falsehood, in matters of fact or matters of opinion.
There are many who find a pleasure in contradicting the common reports of fame, and spread. ing abroad the weaknesses of an exalted character.

Abdison.
None deny that there is a God but those for whom it maketh that there were no God.

Bacon.
One contradicts in direct terms by asserting sometbing contrary; one denies by advancing arguments, or suggesting doubts or difficulties. These terms may therefore both be used in reference to disputations. We may deny the truth of a position by contradicting the assertions that are advanced in its support.
In tha Socratio way of dispnte, you agree to everything your opponent advances; in tha Aristotelic, you are still danying and ooniradioting some part or other of what he says.

ADDIBON.
Contradiction and denial are oommonly performed by words only ; opposition by any kind of action or mode of expression. We may therefore sometimes oppose by contradiction, although not properly by denial; contradicting and opposing being both voluntary acts, denying frequently a matter of necessity or for self-defence.
Johnson considered Garrick to be as it were his property; he would allow no man either to blame or praise Garrick without contrudicting him. Sir Jobina Reynolds.
One of the company began to rally him (an infldel) upon his devotion on shipboard, which the other danisd in so high terms that it produced the lie on both sides, snd ended in a dnel.

ADDISON.
The introduction of the bill may be opposed ss the bill itself may at either of the readings.

Blacestone.

## TO CONTRIVE, DEVISE, INVENT.

CONTRIVE, in French controuver, compounded of con and trowver, signifies to find out by putting together. DEVISE, compounded of de and vise, in Latin visus, secn, signifies to show or present to the mind. INVENT, in Latin in
ventus, partioiple of invenio, compounded of in and venio, signifies to come or bring into the mind.

Contriving requires less exercise of the thoughts than devising: we contrive on familiar and common occasions; we devise ln seasons of difficulty and trial. A contrivance is simple and obvious to a piain understanding: a device is complex and far-fetehed; it requires a ready conception and a degree of art. Contrivances serve to supply a deficiency, or increase a convenience; devices are employed to extricate from danger, to remove an evil, or forward a scheme: the history of Robinson Orusoe derives considerable interest from the relation of the various contrivances by which he provided himself with the first articles of necessity and comfort; the history of robbers and adventurers is full of the various devices by which they endeavor to carry on their projects of plunder, or elude the vigilauce of their pursuers.
In a word, what was said of Cinna might well be applied to him. He had a head to contrive, and a tongue to persuade, and a hand to execute any mischief.

Clabendon.
As I have long lived in Kent, and there often heard how the Kentish men evaded the conqueror by earrying green boughs over their heads, it put ma in mind of practising this device against Mr. Simper.

Steele.
To contrive and devise do not express so much as to invent: we contrive and devise in small matters; we invent in those of greater moment. Contriving and devising respect the manner of doing things ; inventing comprehends the action and the thing itself; the former are but the new tashioning of things that already exist; the latter is, as it were, the creation of something new: to contrive and devise are intentional actions, the result of a specific effort; invention naturally arises from the exertion of an inherent power: we require thought and combination to contrive or devise; ingenuity is the faculty which is exerted in inventing. A device is often employed for bad and frandulent purposes ; contrivances mostly serve the innocent purposes of life; inventions are mostly good, unless they are stories invented, which are always false.
My sentence is for open war: of wiles
More anexpert I boast not; them let those

Contrive Who need, or whan they need, not now.

Milton.
The briakest nactar Shall be his driok, and all th' ambrosial cafes Art can devise for wantod appetite Furalah hia badquet.

Nalub.
Arehitecture, painting, aud stutuary were invented with the design to lift up bumin nature.

ADDISON.
TO CONTROVERT, DISPUTE.
CONTROVERT, compounded of the Latin contra and verto, signifies to turn against another in discourse, or direct one's self against another. DISPUTR. v. To argue, debate.

To controvert has regard to speculative points; to dispute respects matters of fact : there is more of opposition in comtroversy; more of doubt in disputing: a sophist controverts; a sceptic disputes: the plainest and sublimest truths of the Gospel have been all controverted in their turn by the self-sufficient inquirer: the authenticity of the Bible itself has been disputed by some few individuals: the existence of a God by still fewer. Controversy is worse than an unprofitable task ; instead of eliciting truth, it does but expose the failings of the parties engaged : disputing is not so personal, and consequeatly not so objectionable: we never controvert any point without seriously and decidedly iutending to oppose the notions of another; we may sometimes dispute a point for the sake of friendly argument, or the desire of information: theologians and politicians are the greatest controversialists: it is the business of men in general to dispute whatever ought not to be taken for granted.

The demolishing of Dunkirk was so eagerly ingisted on, and so warmly controverted, as had like to have produced a challenge. BuDaElL. Avoid disputes as much as possible. Bodoell.

## CONTUMACY, REBELLION.

CONTUMACY, from the Latin contumax, compounded of contra and tumeo, to swell, signifies the swelling one's self up by way of resistance. REBELLION, in Latin rebellio, from rebello or re and bello, to war in return, signifies carrying on war against those to whom we owe, and have before paid, a lawful subjection.

Resistance to lawful authority is the
common idea included in the signification of both these terms, but contumacy does not express so much as rebellion: the contumacious resist only oceasionally; the rebol resists systematically: the contumacious stand only on certain points, and oppose the individual ; the rebel sets himself up against the authority itself: the contumacious thwart and contradict, they never resort to open violence; the rebel acts only by main force; contumacy shelters itself under the plea of equity and justice; rebellion sets all law and order at defiance.

The censor told the criminal that he spoke in contempt of the court, and that he should be proceeded against for contumacy.

Admison.
The mother of Waller was the daughter of Joln Hampden, of llampden, in the same county, and sister to Hampden, the zealot of rebellion.

Johnson.

## CONVENIENT, SUITABLE.

CONVENIENT, v. Commodious. SUITABLE, v. Conformable.

Convenient regards the circumstances of the individual; suitable respects the established opinions of mankind, and is closely connected with moral propriety: nothing is convenient which does not favor one's purpose: nothing is suitable which does not suit the person, place, and thing: whoever bas anything to ask of another must take a convenient opportunity in order to insure success; his address on such an occasion would be very unsuitable if he affected to claim as a right what he ought to solicit as a favor.

If any man think it convenient to seem good, let him be so indeed, and then his goodness will appear to everybody's satisfaction. Tlllotson.

Pleasnre in general is the consequent apprehension of a suitable object, switably applied to a rightly disposed faculty. South.

## CONVERSANT, FAMILIAT.

CONVERSANT, from converse, signifies turning over and over, consequently becoming aequainted. FAMILIAR, from the Latin fomiliaris, to be of the same family, signifies the closest connection.

An acquaintance with things is implied in both these terms, but the latter expresses something more particular than the former. A person is conversant in matters that come frequently before his notice; he is familiar with such as form
the daily routine of his business: one who is not a professed lawyer may be conversant with the questions of law which occur on ordinary oceasions; but one who is skilled in his profession will be famil. iar with all cases which may possibly be employed in support of a cause: it is advisable to be conversant with the ways of the world; but-to be familiar with the greater part of them would not redound to one's credit or advantage.
The waking man is conversant with the world of natnre: when he aleeps, he retires to a private world that is particular to himself. ADDiaon.
Groves, fields, and meadows are at any season of the year pleasant to look npon, bnt never so mnch as in the opening of the spring, when they are all new and fresh with the first gloss of them, and not yet too fumiliar to the eye. Addison.

## CONVERSATION, DIALOGUE, CONFERENCE, COLLOQUY.

CONVERSATION denotes the act of holding converse (v. Communion). DIALOGUE, in French dialogue, Latin dia$\operatorname{logus}$, Greek $\delta_{1}(\lambda)$ oyos, compounded of $\delta_{\iota} \varsigma$ and $\lambda o \gamma_{0}$, signifies a speech between two. CONFERENCE, from the Latin con and fero, to put together, signifies consulting together on subjects. COLLOQUY, in Latin colloquium, from col or con and loquor, to speak, signifies the art of talking together.

A conversation is always something actvally held between two or more persons; a dialogue is mostly fictitions, and written as if spoken: any number of persons may take part in a conversation, but a dialogue always refers to the two persons who are expressly engaged: a conversation may be desultory, in which each takes his part at pleasure; a dialogue is formal, in which there will always be reply and rejoinder: a conversation may be carried on by any signs besides words, which are addressed personally to the individual present; a dialogue must always consist of express words: a prince holds frequent conversations with his ministers on affairs of state; Cicero wrote dialogues on the natnre of the gods, and many later writers have adopted the dialogue form as a vehicle for conveying their sentiments: a conference is a species of conversation; a colloquy is a species of dialogue: a conversation is indefinite as to the subject, or the parties engaged in it ; a conference is confined to
partlcular subjects and descriptions of persons: a conversation is mostly occasional; a conference is always specifically appointed: a conversation is mostly on indifferent matters; a conference is mostly on national or public concerns: we have a conversation as friends; we have a con. ference as ministers of state. The dialogue naturally limits the number to two; the colloquy is indefinite as to number: there may be dialogues, therefore, which are not colloquies; but every colloquy may be denominated a dialogue.

I find so much Arable and Persian to read, that sil my leisure in a merning is hardly sufficient for a thousandth part of the reading that wonld be agreeable and useful, as I wish to be a match In conversation with the learned natives whem I happen te meet.

Sir W. Jones.
Aurengzebe is written In rhyme, and has the appearance of being the mest elaborate of all Dryden's plays. The personages are imperial, but the dialogue is often demestic, and therefore susceptible of sentiments accommodated to farniliar incidents.

Johinson.
The conference between Gabriel and Satan abounds with sentiments proper for the occasion, and suitable to the persons of the two speakers.

Adpison.
The close of this divine colloquy (between the Father and the Sen), with the hymn of Angels that follews, are wonderfully beantiful and peetleal. ADDI86N.

## CONVERT, PROSELYTE.

CONVERT, from the Latin converto, aignifies changed to something in conl'ormity with the views of another. PROSNLYTE, from the Greek $\pi \rho \sigma \sigma \eta \lambda u \tau 0 \mathrm{~s}$ and троберх $\boldsymbol{\mu} a t$, signifies come over to the side of anotber.

Convert is more extensive in its sense and application than proselyte : convert in its full sense includes every change of opinion, without respect to the subject; proselyte, in its original application, denoted changes only from one religious belief to another: there are many converts to particular doctrines of Christianity, and proselytes from the Pagan, Jewish, or Mohammedan, to the Christian faith; but the word proselyte has since acquired an application which distinguishes it from convert. Conversion is a more voluntary act than $p r$ oselytism; it emanates entirely from the mind of the agent, independently of foreign influence; it extends not merely to the abstract or speculative opinions of the individual, Dut to
whole current of his feelings and spring of his actions: it is the conversion of the heart and soul. Proselytism is an outward act, which need not extend beyond the conformity of one's words and actions to a certain rule: convert is therefore always taken in a good sense; it bears on the face of it the stamp of sincerity: proselyte is a term of more ambiguous meaning; the proselyte is often the creature and tool of a party: there may be many proselytes where there are no converts. The conversion of a sinner is the work of God's grace, either by his special interposition, or by the ordinary influence of his Holy Word on the heart; partisans are always anxious to make prosclytes to their own party.
A believer may be exensed by the most hardened atheist for endeavoring to make him a convert, becanse he does it with an eye to both thein interests.

AdDison.
False teachers commonly make use of hase, and lew, and temporal considerations, of little tricks and devices, to make disciples and gair proselytes.

Thlutson.

## TÒ CONVICT, DETECT.

CONVICT, from the Latin convictus, participle of convinco, to make manifest, signifies to make guilt clear. DETECT, from the Latin detectus, participle of detego, compounded of the privative de and tego, to cover, signifies to uncover or lay open guilt.

A person is convicted by means of evidence; he is detected by means of ocular demonstration. One is convicted of hav. ing been the perpetrator of some evil deed; one is detected in the very act of committing the deed. Whatever serves to prove the guilt of another is said to convict, whether the conviction he by others or by one's self: a man may be convicted in his own mind, as well as in the opinion of others, before a public tribunal or by private individuals; detection is confined to the act of the individual, which is laid open to others.

Advice is effensive, net becanse it lays us epen to unexpected regret, or convicts us of any fanlt which had escaped our notice, but because it shows us that we are known to others as well as ourselves.

Johngon.
Every member of society feels and scknowledges the necessity of detecting crimes.

Joy ${ }^{2}$

TO CONVICT, CONVLNCE, PERGUADE.
To CONVICT (v To convzet) is to satisfiy a person of another's guilt or error. To CONVINCE is to satisfy the person himself of the truth or falsehood of a thing.

A person may be convicted of heresy, If it be proved to the satisfaction of others; he may be convinced that the opinion which he has held is heretical. So a person may be convicted who is involuntarily convinced of his error, but he is convinced if he is made sensible of his error without any force on his own mind. One is convicted only of that which is false or bad, but one is convinced of that which is true as well as that which is false. The noun conviction is used in both the senses of convict and convince.

When the Apostle, therefore, requireth ability to convict heretics, can we think he Judgeth it nulawful and not rather needful to use the principal instrument of their conviction, the light of reason?

Hoosea.
All my evasions vain,
And reasonings, though throngla mazes, lead me still
But to my own oonviction.
Meton.
What convinces binds; what persuades attracts. We are convinced by arguments; it is the understanding which determines: we are persuaded by entreaties and personal influence; it is the imagination or will which decides. Our conviction respects solely matters of belief or faith; our persuasion respects matters of belief or practice: we are convinced that a thing is true or false; we are persuaded that it is either right or wrong, advantageous or the contrary. A person will have half effected a thing who is ronvinced that it is in his power to effect it; he will be easily persucded to do that which favors bis own interests.

He (the critic) mnst endeavor to convince the world that their favorite authers have more faults than they are aware of, and such as they have aever suspected.

I should be glad if I conld persuade him to frite such another critique on anything of mine; for when he condemns any of my poems, he makes the world have a hetter opinion of them. Dryoen.
Conviction respects our most important duties; persuasion is applied to matters of indifference, or of temporary perzonal interest. The first step to true re-
pentance is a thorough conviction of the enormity of sin. The cure of people's maladies is sometimes promoted to a surprising degree by their persuasion of the efficacy of the remedy.
Their wisdom is only of this world, to put false colors upon things, to cal: good evil and evil good, against the conariction of their own consciences.

Swift.
From this period he considered his case as withont cure, feeling those symptoms of internal decay which he was satisflod were beyond the reach of medicine: in this persuanion he even apologized to his physician for the fruitless tronble he was giving him.

Cumberland.
As conviction is the effect of substan. tial evidence, it is solid and permanent in its nature; it cannot be so easily changed and deceived: persuasion, de. pending on our feelings, is influenced by external objects, and exposed to varions changes; it may vary both in the degree and in the object. Conviction answers in our minds to positive certainty; persuasion answers to probability. We ought to be convinced of the propriety of avoid. ing everything which can interfere with the good order of society; we may be persuaded of the truth of a person's narrative or not, according to the representation made to us; we may be persucaded to pursue any study or lay it aside.
When men have settled in themselves a cont viction that there is nothing honorable which is not accompanied with innocence; nothing mean bnt what has guilt in it; riches, pleasures, and henors will easily lose their charms, if they stand between is and our integrity. Steelis.

Let the mind be possessed with the perswasion of immortal happiness annexed to the act, and there will be no want of candidates to struggle for the glorious prerogative. CuMBERLAND.

## CONVIVIAL, SOCIAL.

CONVIVIAL, in Latin convivialis, from convivo, to live together, signifies being entertained together. SOCLAL, from socius, a companion, signifies pertaining to company.

The prominent idea in convivial is that of sensual indulgence; the prominent idea in social is that of enjoyment from an intercourse with society. Convivial is a species of the social, it is the social in matters of festivity. What is convivial is social, but what is social is something more; the former is cxeelled by the lat. ter as much as the body is excelled by
the mind. We speak of convivial meet. ings, convivial enjoyments, or the convivial board; but social intercourae, social pleasure, zocial amusements, and the like.

It is related by Carte, of the Duks of Ormond, that he used often to pass a night with Dryden, and those with whom Dryden consorted: who thsy were Carte las not told, but certainly the convivial table at which Ormond sst was not aurrounded with a plabelan society. Jonnson.

Plato and Socrates shared many soodal hours with Aristophanes.

## COOL, COLD, FRIGID.

In the natural sense, COOL is simply the absence of warmth; COLD and FRIGID are positively contrary to warmth; the former in regard to objects in general, the latter to moral objects: in the figurative sense the analogy is strictly preserved. Cool ia used as it reapects the passions and the affectlons; oold only with' regard to the affections; frigid only in regard to the inclinations. With regard to the passions, cool desig. nates a freedom from agitation, which is a desirsble quallty. Coolness in a time of danger, and coolness in an argument, sre slike commendable. As cool and cold respect the affections, the cool is opposed to the friendly, the cold to the warm. hearted, the frigid to the animated; the former is but a degree of the latter. A reception is said to be cool; an embrace to be cold; a sentiment frigid. Coolness is an enemy to aocial enjoymenta; cold ness is an edemy to affection; frigidity deatroys all force of character. Coolness is engendered by circumatances; it suppoass the previous existence of warmth; coldness lies often in the temperament, or ia engendered by habit; it ia always something vicious; frigidity is occasion. al, and is always a defect. Trifling differences produce coolness aometimes between the beat frienda: trade sometimes engenders a cold culculating temper in aome minds: those who are remarkable for apathy will often exprass themselves with frigid indifference on the most important aubjecta.

The jeslous msn's disease is of so malignant a nature that it converts all it takes into its own nourishment. A cool behavior is interpreted as an instance of aversion; $a$ fond one raises his susplelons.

Addison.
It is wondrous that a man can get over ths natural existence and possession of his own mind,
so far as to take delight either in psying or reo ceiving cold and repeated civllities. Stzell.
The rellgion of the moderns abounds in toplcs so incomparably noble and exaited, as might kindle tha flames of genuine oratory in ths most frigid snd barren genius.

Whazton.

## TO COPY, TRANSCRIBE.

COPY, like the Latin capio, is probably derived from capio, to take, in the aense of taking one thing from another, or taking the likeness of a thing. TRAN. SCRIBE, in Latin transcribo, that is, trans, over, and scribo, to write, slgnifies literally to write over from something else, to make to pass over in writing from one paper or substance to the other.

To copy respects the matter; to transcribe respects simply the act of writing. What is copied muat be taken immediately from the origlnal, with which it must exactly correspond; what ia tran. scribed may be takell from the copy, but not necessarily in an entire state. Things are copied for the sake of getting the contents; they are often transcribed for the sake of clearness and falr writing. A copler should be very exact; a tran. seriber should be a good writer, Law. yers copy deeds, and have them after. ward frequently transcribed ss occaston requires.

[^34]
## COPY, MODEL, PATTERN, SPECIMEN.

COPY, from the verb to copy (v.To copy), marks either the thing from which we copy or the thing copied. MODEL, in French modele, Latin modulus, a little mode or measure, aignifies the thing that serves as a measure, or that is made after a measure. PATTERN, which is a variation of patron, from the Latin pa. tronus, signifies the thing that directs. SPECIMEN, in Latin specimen, from specio, to behold, signifies what is looked at for the purpose of forming one's judg. ment by it.

A copy and a model imply either that which is copeed or taken from something, as when we speak of a copy in distinc-
tion from an original, and of making a model of anything:

When he first asked the elector's leave for students to copy the pictures in the gallery, the prince refused ; and the reason he assigned was, that tboee copies would he sald for originals.

Sir Joahtia Reynolds.
The general officer received us immediately with his usual civility, and showed us his topographical representation of the most monntainous part of Switzerland, which well deserves the accurate attention of the curious traveller. It is a model in relief.

Coxe.
Or they imply that from which anything is copied or taken, as to follow a copy, to choose a model.

I shall desire, as I send it in, two guineas for a sheet of copy.

Johnson.
Of these he chose five for his models, and moulding all the perfections of these beautiea into one, he composed the picture of his goddess.

Beydane.
The term copy is applied to that which is delineated, as writings or pictures, which must be taken faithfully and literally; the model to that which may be represented in wood or stone, and which serves as a guide.
Let him first learn to write, after a copy, all the letters in the vulgar alphahet. Holder.

A fault it should be if some king should build his mansion-house by the model of Solomon'a temple. Hooker.
In application to other objects, a copy may be either that which is made or done in imitation, or it may be that which is imitated.

Longinus has ohserved that the description of love in Sappho is an exact copy of nature, and that all the circumstances which follow one another in such a hurry of sentiments, notwithstanding they appear repugnant to each other, are really such as happen in the frenzies of love.

Addison.
Be copy now to men of grosser hlood, And teach them how to war. Sharapeare.

A model is that which may be used as a guide or rule.

Socrates recommends to Alcihiades, as the model of his devotions, a short prayer which a Greek poet composed for the use of his friends.

Addison.
Pattern and specimen serve, like the model, to guide or regulate, but differ in the nature of the objects; the pattern regards solely the outward form or color of anything that is made or manufact-
ured, as the pattern of a carpet; a per. son fixes on having a thing according to a certain pattern; the specimen is any portion of a material which serves to show the quality of that of which it forms a part, as the specimen of a printed work; the value of things is estimated by the specimen.

A gentleman sends to my shop for a pattern of stuff, he compares the pattern with the piece, and prohahly we hargain.

Swift.
Several persons have exhibited specimens of this art before multitudes of beholders.

Addison.
In the moral application pattern respects the whole conduct or behavior which mas deserve imitation; specimen only the detached parts by which a judgment may be formed of the whole: the female who devotes ber whole time and attention to the management of her family, and the education of her offspring, is a pattern to those of ber sex who depute the whole concern to others. A person gives but an unfortunate specimen of his boasted sincerity who is found guilty of an evasion.
Xenophon, in the life of his imaginary prince, whom he describes as a pattern for real ones, is always celebrating the philanthropy or good-nature of his hero.

ADDISon.
We know nothing of the scanty jargon of our harbarous ancestors; but we have specimens uf our language when it began to be adapted to civil and religious purposes, and find it such as might naturally be expected, artless and simple.

Johnson.

## COQUET, JILT.

There are many JILTS who become so from COQUETS, but one may be a coquet without being a jilt. Coquetry is contented with employing little arts to excite notice; jilting extends to the violation of truth and bonor, in order to awaken a passion which it afterward disappoints. Vanity is the main spring by which coquets and jilts are impelled to action; but the former indulges her propensity mostly at her own expense only, while the latter does no less injury to the peace of others than she does to her own reputation. The coquet makes a traffic of her own charms by seeking a multitude of admirers; the jilt sports with the sacred passion of love, and barters it for the gratification of any selfish propensity. Coquetry is a fault which
should be guarded against by every female as a snare to her own happiness; jilting is a vice which cannot be practised without some depravity of the heart.
The coquet is indeed one degree toward the jilt; hut the heart of the former is bent upon admiring berself, and giving false hopes to her lovers: the latter is not contented to be extremely amiable, but she must add to that advantage a certain delight in being a torment to others.

Steele.

## CORNER, ANGLE.

CORNER answers to the French coin and Greek $\gamma \omega \nu \iota \alpha$, which signifies either a corner or a hidden place. ANGLE, in Latin angulus, comes in all probability from $a \gamma \kappa \omega \nu$, the elbow.

Corner properly implies the outer extreme point of any solid body; angle, on the contrary, the inner extremity produced by the meeting of two right lines, or plane surfaces. When speaking, therefore, of solid bodies, corner and angle may be both employed; but in regard to simple right lines, or plane surfaces, the word angle only is applicable: in the former case a corner is produced by the meeting of the different parts of a body, whether inwardly or outwardly; but an angle is produced by the meeting of two bodies; inwardly one house has many corners; two houses, or two walls at least, are requisite to make an angle.

A bed was prepared for them in the corner of the room.

Golpsmith.
Jewellers grind their diamonds with many sides and angles, that their lustre may appear many ways.

Dearak.
We likewise speak of a body making an angle by the direction which it takes, because such a course is equivalent to a right line; in that case the word corner could not be substituted.
The arms of the cross, taking a new direction, make a right angle with the beam. Burke.
On the other hand, the word corner is often used for a place of secrecy or obscurity, agreeably to the derivation of the term.

Some men, like pictures, are fitter for a corner than for a full light.

Pope.

## CORPORAL, CORPOREAL, BODILY.

CORPORAL, CORPOREAL, and BOD-
ILY, as their origin bespeaks, have all
relation to the same object, the body, but the two former are employed to signify relating or appertaining to the body, the latter to denote containing or form. ing part of the body. Hence we say corporal punishment, bodily vigor or streugth, corporeal substances; the Godhead bodily, the corporeal frame, bodily exertion. Corporal is only employed for the animal frame in its proper sense; corporeal is used for animal substance in an extended sense; hence we speak of corporal sufferance and corporeal agents. Corporeal is distinguished from spiritual; bodily from mental. It is impossible to represent spiritual beings any other way than under a corporeal form; bodily pains, however severe, are frequently overpowered by mental pleasures.

Bettesworth was so little satisfied with this account, that he publicly professed his resolution of a violent and corporal revenge, but the inhabitants of St. Patrick's district embodied themselves in the Dean's (Swift's) defence. Johnson.
When the soul is freed from all corporeal alliance, then it truly exists.

Huohes.
The soul is beset with a numerous train of temptations to evil, which arise from bodily appetites.

Blatr.

## CORPOREAL, MATERIAL.

CORPOREAL is properly a species of MATERIAL; whatever is corporeal is material, but not vice versa. Corporeal respects animate bodies; material is used for everything which can act on the senses, animate or inanimate. The world contains corporeal beings, and consists of material substances.

Grant that corporeal is the hrman mind, It must have parts in inflnitum join'd; And each of these must will, perceive, design, And draw confus'dly in a diff'rent line. Jenyns.
In the present material system in which we live, and where the objects that surround us are continually exposed to the examination of our senses, how many things occur that are mysterious and unaccountable!

Blair.

## CORPULENT, STOUT, LUSTY.

CORPULENT, from corpus, the body, signifies having fulness of body. STOUT, in Dutch stott, is no doubt a variation of the German stätig, steady, signifying able to stand, solid, firm. LUSTY, in German, etc., lustig, merry, cheerful, implies here a vigorous state of body.

Corpulent respects the fleshy state of
the body; stout respects also the state of the muscles and bones: corpulence is therefore an incidental property; stoutness is a natural property: corpulence may come upon us according to circumstances ; stoutness is the natural make of the body which is born with us. Corpuience and lustiness are both occasioned by the state of the health; but the former may arise from disease, the latter is always the consequence of good health: corpulence consists of an undue proportion of fat; lustiness consists of a due and full proportion of all the solids in the body.

Mallet's stature was dimiuutive, but he was regularly formed; his appearance, till he grew corpulent, was agreeable, and he suffered it to want no recommendation that dress could give It. Jounsun.
Though I look old, yet I am atrong and lusty, For in my youth I never did apply
Hot and rebellious liqnors to my blood.

- biakaprare.

Hence rose the Marsian and Sabellian race, Strong liml'd and stout, and to the wara inclin'd. Dryden.

TO CORRECT, RECTLFY, REFORM.
CORRECT (v. To amend) is more definite in its meaning, and more general in its application, than RECTIFY, which, from rectus and facio, signifies simply to make right, or as it should be.

To correct is an act of necessity or dis. cretion; to rectify, an act of discretion only. What is corrected is substantially fanlty; what is rectified may be faulty by accident or from inadvertence. Faults in the execution are corrected; mistakes are rectificd.

I would not be thonght to appose the use of a painter's being readily able to express his ideas by sketching. The turther he can carry such designo the better. Tbo evil to be apprehended is his resting there, and not correcting them afterward.

Sill Josuea Reynolds.
Some had read the manuscript, and rectified she inacouracies. Jobnson.
They may likewise be applied to moral objects with a like distinction.

I last winter erected a court of justice for the correcting several enormities in dress and behavior.
taxler.
A man has frequent opportunities of mitigating the flerceuess of a party, of aoftening the envions, quieting the angry, and rectifying the prejudiced.
addiaon.

To REFORM, from re, again, and form, signifies to form again, or put into a new form; it expresses, therefore, more than correct, which removes that which is faulty in a thing without altering the thing itself. Correction may produce only a partial change, but what is reformed assumes a new form and becomes a new thing.

Desire is corrected when thera is a tenderness or admiration expressed which partakes of the passion. Licentions language has something brutal in it which disgraces humanity. Sterle.

Indolence is one of those vices from which those whom it infects are seldom reformed.

Johnaon.
They are employed also in respect to public matters with a like distinction: abuses are corrected, the state is re. formed.

As abuses might he corrected, as avery crime of persona does not infer a forfeiture with regard to communities, and as property, in that dark age, was not discovered to be a creature of prejudice, all those abuses were hardly thonght sufficient ground for such a confiscation. Boner.
Edward and Henry, now the boast of fame,
And virtuous Alfred, a more sacred name, After a life of generuus tolls endur'd, The Gauls subdued or property secur'd, Ambitlon humbled, mighty cities storm'd, Or laws establish'd amd the world reform'd,

Pope.

## CORRECT, acCurate.

CORRECT is equivalent to corrected ( $v$. To amend), or set to rights. ACCURATE (v. Accurate) signifies done with care, or by the application of care. Correct applies to that which is done according to rules which either a man prescribes to himself or are prescribed for him; accurate to that which is done by the application of the mind or attention to an object: the result in both cases will be nearly the same; namely, that the thing will be as it ought or is intended to be, but there is a shade of difference in the mcaning and application. What is done by the exercise of the judgment is said to be correct, as a correct style, a correct writer, a correct way of thinking; what is done by the effort of the individual is more properly accurate, as accurate observations, an accurate survey, and the like

Sallnst, the most elegant and correct of all the Latin historians, observes that in his time, when the mast formidable states of the world were subdued by the Romans, the republic sunk into thosp two opposite vices of a quite different nature, luxury and avariee.

ADDISON.

Thase ancients who were the most accurate in their remarks on the genius and temper of mankind, have with great exactness allotted inclinations und objects of desire to every stage of ife.

Steele.
When applied to the same objects, correct is negative, it is opposed to incorrect or frulty; accurate is positive, it is opposed to inaccurate or loose: it is sufficient to be free from fault to be correct; it must contain every minute particular to be accurate: information is correct which contains nothing but facts; it is accurate when it contains all the details of dates, persons, and circumstances given accurately.

Exact disposition, just thought, correot elocutlon, polished numbers, may bave been found in a thnusand, but this poetical fire (in Homer), this vivida vis animi, in a very few.

Pope.
Ingennous curiosity, and perbaps, too, the necessary investigation of her clains to the baronies of the family, led her to compile their history, an industrious and diffuse, ulthough not always an accurate work.

Whitager.

## CORRECTION, DISCIPLINE, PUNISHMENT.

As CORRECTION and DISCIPLINE have commonly required PUNISHMENT to render them efficacious, custom has affixed to them a strong resemblance in their application, although they are distinguished from each other by obvious marks of differeace. The prominent idea in correction ( $v$. To correct) is that of making right what has been wrong. It $d i s-$ cipline, from the Latin disciplina and disco, to learn, the leading idea is that of instructing or regulating. In ponishment, from the Latin punio, and the Greek $\pi \in t-$ $\nu \eta$, pain, the leading idea is that of inflicting pain.

We remove an evil by correction; we prevent it by discipline. Correction extends no further than to the correcting of particular faults; but discipline serves to train, guide, and instruct generally.

Yet what can satire, grave or gay?
It may corvect a folble, may chastise
The freaks of tashion, regulate the dress.
Cowpent.
The imaginations of young men are of a roving nature, and their passions nnder no discipline or restraint.

Addison.
When correction and discipline are taken in the sense of punishment, they mean
punishment for the purpose of correction and discipline: punishment, on the other hand, means the infliction of pain as the consequence of any particular conduct. Correction and discipline are personal acts, and mostly acts of authority. A parent inflicts correction, a master excrcises discipline: punishment may either be inflicted by persons or result from things: the want of proper discipline may be punished by insubordination.

There was once that virtue in this commonwealth, that a bad citizen was thought to deserve a severer correction than the bitterest enemy.

Steele, a ffer Ctcero.
All evils natural are moral goods,
All discipline indulgeuce on the whole.
Young.
When by just vengeance impions mortals perish, The geds behold their punishmont with pleaspre.

ADDISEN.

## CORRESPONDENT, ANSWERABLE, SUITABLE.

CORRESPONDENT, in French corre. spondant, from the Latin oum and respondeo, to answer in unison or in uniformity. ANSWERABLE and SUITABLE, from answer and suit, mark the quality or capacity of answering or suiting. Correspondent supposes a greater agreement thau answerable, and answerable requires a greater agreement than suitable. Things that correspond must be alike in size, shape, color, and every minute particular; those that answer must be fitted for the same purpose; those that suit must bave nothing disproportionate or discordant. In the artificial dispositions of furniture, or all matters of art and ornament, it is of considerable importance to have some things made to correspond, so that they be placed in suitable directions to answer to each other.

In the moral application, actions are said not to correspond with professions; the success of an undertaking does not answer the expectation; particular meas. ures do not suit the purpose of individuals. It ill corresponds with a profession of friendship to refuse assistance to a friend in the time of need; wild schemes undertaken without thought will never answer the expectations of the projectors; it never suits the purpose of the selfish and greedy to contribute to the relief of the necessitous.

As the attractive power in bodies is the most nniversal principle which produceth innumerable effects, so the corresponding social appetite in homan souls is the great spring aad source of moral actions.

Berkelet.
All the features of the face and tones of the voice answer like strings upon musical instruments to the impressions made on them by the mind.

Hoghes.
When we consider the inflinite power and wisdom of the Maker, we have reason to think that it is suitabls to the magnificent harmony of the universe that the species of creatures should also by gentle degrees ascend upward from us.

Addison.

## COST, EXPENSE, PRICE, CHARGE.

COST, in German, etc., kost or kosten, signifies originally support, and, in an extended sense, what is given for support. EXPENSE is compounded of $e x$ and pense, in Latin pensus, participle of pendo, to pay, signifying the thing paid or given out. PRICE, from the Latin pretium, and the Greek $\pi \rho \eta \tau t o \nu$, from $\pi \rho a \sigma \sigma \omega$, to sell, signifies the thing given for what is bought. CHARGE, from to charge ( $v$. To accuse), signifies the thing laid on as a charge.

The cost is what a thing costs, or what is to be laid out for it; the expense is that which a person actually lays out; the price is that which a thing may fetch or which it may be worth; the charge is that which a person or thing is charged with. As a cost commonly comprehends an expense, the terms are on various occasions used indifferently for each other: we speak of counting the cost or counting the expense of doing anything; at a great ost or at a great expense: on the other band, of doing a thing to one's cost, of growing wise at other people's expense. The cost and the price have respect to the thing and its supposed value; the expense and the charge depend on the option of the persons. The cost of a thing must precede the price, and the expense must succeed the charge: we can never set a price on anything until we have ascertained what it has cost us; nor can we know or defray the expense until the charge be made. There may, however, frequently be a price where there is no cost, and vicc versa: there may also be an expense where there is no charge; but there cannot be a charge without an expense: what costs nothing sometimes fetches a high price; and other things cannot obtain a price equal to the first cost, Expenses
vary with modes of living and men's desires; whoever wants much, or wants that which is not easily obtained, will bave many expenses to defray; when the charges are exorbitant, the expenses must necessarily bear a proportion.

The real patriot bears his private wrongs, Rather than right them at the public cost.

Beller.
What else do we learn from this note? That the more expense is incurred by a nation, the more moaey will be required to defray it.

BOREE.

## He that saw

His patrimonial timber cast its leaf, Sells the last scantliag, and transfers the prics To some shrewd sharper, ere it buds agaia.

Cowper.
The lands of the noblesse are still uader the load of the greater part of the old feudal charges.

Burke.
Between the epithets costly and expensive there is the same distinction. Whatever is costly is naturally expensive, but not vice versa. Articles of furniture, of luxury, or indulgence are costly, either from their variety or their intrinsic value; everything is expensive which is attended with much expense, whether of little or great value. Jewels are costly; traveling is expensive. The costly treasures of the East are imported into Europe for the gratification of those who cannot be contented with the produce of their native soil: those who indulge themselves in such expensive pleasures often lay up in store for themselves much sorrow and repentance in the time to come.

Menalcas ordered him to be stripped of his costly robes, and to be clad in a russet weed.

Addison.
Who ever doubted that war is expensive and peace desirable?

Bobke.
In the moral acceptation, the attainment of an object is said to cost much pains; a thing is persisted in at the expense of health, of honor, or of life. The sacrifice of a man's quiet is the price which he must pay for the gratification of his ambition.
And she, once mistress of the realms aroaod, Now scattered wide, and nowhere to be fonod, As soon shall rise and reascend the throne
By native power and energy her own, As Nature, at her own peculiar cost,
Restore to man the glories he has lost. Cowper.
If ease and politeness be only attainable at the expense of sincerity in the mea, and chastity un the women, 1 flatter myself there are few of mo
roaders who would not think the purchase made at too high a price. Aаевсвомвт. Duration glves importance-swells the price. All angel, if a creature of a day,
What would he be? A triffe of no weight.
Youna.
Would a man build for eternity, that is, in other words, would he be saved, let him consider with himself what charges he is willing to be 3t, thst he msy be so.

Soutn.

## TO COVER, HIDE.

COVER, in French couvrir, Italian cur prire, Latin cooperio, compounded of co, con, or cum, and operio, to conccal thoroughly or by covering. HIDE, v. To conceal.

Cover is to hide as the means to the end : we commonly hide by covering; but we may easily cover without hiding, as also hide without covering. The ruling idea in the word cover is that of throwing or putting something over a body: in the word hide is that of keeping carefully to one's self, from the observation of others, In most civilized countries it is common to cover the head: in the Eastern countries females commonly wear vcils to hide the face.

Govered the allys Darkness profound
IIide me frum the face Of God, whom to behold was then my height Of happiness.

Milton.
Cover sometimes, particularly in the moral application, signifies to conceal ; but in that case it denotes the manner of concealing, namely, by overspreading; but hide denotes either the intention or desire to conceal, or the concealing what ought not to be seen.
Specious names are lent to cover vice.
Spectator.
IIe that has light within his own clear breast May sit $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$ the centre, and enjoy bright day ;
But he that hides a dark soul snd foul thoughts Bonighted walks under the mid-day sun.

Mifton.
COVER, SHELTER, SCREEN.
COVER properly denotes what serves as a cover, and in the literal sense of the verb from which it is derived (v. To cover). SHELTER, like the word shield, in German schild, comes from the old German schelen, to cover. SCREEN, from the Latin secerno, signifies to keep off or apart.

Cover is literally applied to many par. ticular things which are employed in cov: ering; but in the general sense which makes it analogous to the other terms, it includes the idea of concealing: shel ter comprehends that of protecting from some immediate or impending evil: screen includes that of warding off some trouble. A cover always supposes something which can extend over the whole surface of a body; a shelter or a screen may mere. ly interpose to a sufficient extent to serve the intended purpose. Military opera. tions are sometimes carried on under cover of the night ; a bay is a convenient shelter for vessels against the violence of the winds; a chair may be used as a screen to prevent the violent action of the heat or the external air.
Like princes unconfess'd in foreign courts, Who travel under cover, death assumes The name snd look of life, snd dwells smong us. Youno.
A cave was his only shelter from the inclem. ency of the weather.

Golnbmith.
Were moon and stars for villains only made, To guide yet screen them with tenebrious light?

Youno.
In the moral sense, a fair reputation is sometimes made the cover for the com. mission of gross irregularities in secret. When a person feels himself unable to withstand the attacks of his enemies, he sceks a shelter under the sanction and authority of a great name. Bad men sometimes use wealth and power to screen them from the punishment which is due to their offences.

There are persons who cover their own rudeness by calling their conduct honest bluntness.

Richanoson.
When on a bed of straw we sink together,
And the bleak winds shall whistle round our heads,
Wilt thou then talk to me thus?
Thus hush thy cares, and shelter me with love?
OTwAY.
It is frequent for men to adjudge that in an art impossible, which they find that art does not effect; by which means they sereen indolence. and ignorance from the reprosch they merit.

Bacon.
COVETOUSNESS, CUPIDITY, AVARICE.
COVETOUSNESS, from covet, and cu. pido, to desire, signifies having a desire. CUPIDITY is a more immediate derivative from the Latin, signifying the same thing. AVARICE, v. Avaricions.

All these terms are employed to express an illicit desire after objects of gratification; but covetousness is applied to property in general, or to whatever is valuable; cupidety and avarice only to money or possessions. A child may dis. play its couetousness in regard to the playthings which fall in its way; a man shows his cupidity in regard to the gains that fall in his way; we should, therefore, be careful to check a covetous dis. position in carly life, lest it show itself in the mors hateful character of cupidity in advanced years, Covetousness is the natural disposition for having or getting; eupidity is the acquired disposition. As the love of appropriation is an innate characteristic in man, that of accumulating or wantiug to accumulate, which constitutes covetousness, will show itself, in some persons, among the first iudications of character: where the prospect of amassing great wealth is set before a man, as in the case of a governor of a distant province, it will evince great virtue in him if his cupidity be not excited. The covetous man seeks to add to what he has; the avaricious man only strives to retain what he has: the covelous man sacrifices others to indulge himself; the avaricious man will sometimes sacrifice himsclf to indulge others; for generosity, which is opposed to covetousness, is sometimes associated with avarice.

Nothing lies on our hands with such uneasiness as time. Wretched and thoughtless creatures! In the anly place where covetou*ness were a virtue, we turn prodigals. Addison.

At last Swift's avarice grew too powerful for his kindness: he would refuse (his friends) a bottle of wine.

Johnson.
If prescription be once shaken, no species of property is secure, when it once becomes an object large enough to tempt the cupidity of indigent power.

Burke.
TO COUNTENANCE, SANCTION, SUPPORT.
COUNTENANCE signifies to keep in countenance. SANCTION, in French sanction, Latin sanctio, from sanctus, sacred, signifies to ratify a decree or ordinance; in an extended sense to make anything binding. SUPPORT, in French supporter, Latin supporto, compounded of sup or sub and porto, to bear, signifies to bear from underneath, to bear up.

Persons are countenanoed; things are sanctioned; persons or things are supported: persons are countenanced in their proceedings by the apparent approbation of others; measures are sanctioned by the consent or approbation of others who have due authority; measures or persons are supported by every means which may forward the object. There is most of encouragement is countenancing; it consists of some outward demonstration of regard or good-will toward the person: there is most of authority in sanctioning; it is the lending of a name, an authority, or an influence, in order to strengthen and confirm the thing: there is most of assistance and co-operation in support: it is the employment of means to an end. Superiors only can countenance or sanction; persons in all conditions may support: those who countenance evil-doers give a sanction to their evil deeds; those who support either an individual or a cause ought to be satisfied that they ars entitled to support.

A good inan acte with a vigor, and suffers with a patience more than human, when he believes himself countenanced ly the Almighty. Blair.

Men of the greatest sensc are always diffident of their private judgment, until it receives a sanction from the pnblic.

Adpison.
The apparent insufficiency of every individual to his own happiness or safety compels us to seek from one another assistance and support.

JoHnson,
COUNTRYMAN, PEASANT, SWAIN, RIND, RUSTIC, CLOWN.
COUNTRYMAN, that is, a man of the country, or one belonging to the country, is the general term applicable to all inhabiting the country, in distinction from a townsman. PEASANT, in French paysan, from pays, is employed in the same sense for any countryman among the inhabitants of the Continent, and is in consequence used in poetry or the grave style for a countryman. SWAIN in the Saxon signified a laborer, but it has acquired, from its use in poetry, the higher signification of a shepherd, or husbandman. HIND may, in all probability, signify one who is in the background, an inferior. RUSTIC, from rus, the country, signifies one born and bred in the conatry. CLOWN, contracted

## COUPLE

from colonus, a huabandman, aignifies, of course, a menial in the country.

All these terms are employed as epitheta to peraona, and principally to such as live in the country: the terms countryman and peasant are taken in an indifferent aenae, and may comprehcad peraona of different descriptions; they designate nothing more than habitual residence lu the country: the other terma are employed for the lower orders of countrymen, but with collateral ideas favorable or unfavorable annexed to them: swain, hind, both convey the idea of innocence in a humble station, aud are therefore always emplayed in poetry in a good aenae: the rustic and clown both convey the idea of that uncouth rudeneas and ignorance which is in reality found among the loweat orders of countrymen.

> Though, consldering my former condition, 1 may now be called a countryman, yet you cannot call me a rustio (as you would imply in your jetter) as long as I live in so civil and noble a famtly.
> Hownil.
> If by the poor measures and proportions of a man we may take an satimate of this great action (our Saviour's coming in the flesh), we shall quickly find how irksoms it is to fleah and blood "to have been happy," to descend some steps lower, to exchenge the estate of a prince for that of a peasant.
> Soorta.

As thus the snows arise, and foul and flerce All winter drives along the darken'd air, In his own loose revolving fields the swain Disastered stands.

Thomson.
The lab'ring hind his oxen shall diajoin.
Dryben.
In arguing too the parson own'd his skill,
For e'en though vanqulsh'd he coald argue still; While words of learned length and thundering sound
Amaz'd the gazing rustics rang'd around.
GoLnamita.
Th* astonish'd mother finds a vacant uest, By the hard hand of unrelenting olovons Robld.

Thomson.

## COUPLE, PAIR, BRACE.

COUPLE, in French couple, comes from the Latin copulo, to join or tie together, copula, in Hebrew cabel, a rope or a shackle, signifying things tied together; and as two things are with most convenience bound together, it has by custom been confined to this number. PAIR, in French paire, Latin par, equal, aignifies thinga that are equal, which can with propriety be aaid only of two things with regard to each other, BRACE, from tbe

French bras, arm, slgnifiea thinga locked together after the manner of the folded arms, which on that account are confined to the number of two.
From the above illustration of theso terma, it is clear that the number of twe, which is included in all of them, is, with regard to the first, entirely arbitrary; that with regard to the aecend, it arisea from the nature of the junction; and with regard to the third, it ariaes altogether from the nature of the objecta: couples and braces are made by coupling and bracing; pairs are either so of themaelves, or are made so by others: couples and braces always require a junction in order to make them complete ; pairs require aimilarity only to make them what they are: couples are joined by a foreign tie; even the being in company ia aufticient to make a couple; braces are produced by a close junction, or what is supposed to be so, which requirea them to go together, Couple ia applied to objects generally.
In the midst of these sorrows which I had in my heart, methought there passed by me a coupla of coaches with purpia ijvertes.

Admison.
Pair is applled to thinge that naturally go in pairs.

Six wings he wore, to shade
His Jineaments divine; the pair that clad
Each shoulder broad, cams mantling o'er his breast
With regal orbament. Militon.

Brace is applied to particular thinga, either themselves joined together or serving to join others together; as birds that are shot and are uaually linked together are termed a brace; whence in poetry the term is applied to animals or other objecta in a close atate of junction.
First hunter then, pursued a gentle brace, Goodliest of all the forest, hart and hind.

## Milten.

Couple is applied to persons of different sex who are bound to euch otber by the ties of affection or by the marriage tie.

Scarce any couple comes together, bat their nuptials are declared ia the newspuper with encomiums on each party.

Johnsom.
Pair is also applied to peraons aimilarly situated, but refera more to the moral tie from similarity of feeling;
whence the newly-married couple is in or. dinary discourse called the happy pair.
Your fortune, happy pair, already made, Leaves you no farther wish.

Dryden.
Pair is applied to persons in no other connection, and brace never except in the burlesque style.
Dear Sheridan ! a gentle pair Of Gaulstown lada (for such they are), Beaides a brace of grave divines, Adore the smoothnees of your linea.

Swipt.
COURAGE, FORTITUDE, RESOLUTION.
COURAGE, v. Bravery. FORTITUDE, in French fortitude, Latin fortitudo, is the abstract noun from fortis, strong. RESOLUTION, from the verb resolve, marks the act of resolving, or the state of being resolved.

Courage respects action, fortitude respects passion: a man has courage to meet danger, and fortitude to endure pain. Courage is that power of the mind which bears up against the evil that is in prospect; fortitude is that power which endures the pain that is felt: the man of courage goes with the same coolness to the mouth of the cannon, as the man of fortitude undergoes the amputation of a limb. Horatius Cocles displayed his courage in defending a bridge against the whole army of the Etruscans: Caius Mutius displayed no less fortitude when he thrust his hand into the fire in the presence of King Porsena, and awed him as much by his language as his action.

Courage seems to be more of a manly virtue ; fortitude is more distinguishable as a feminine virtue: the former is at least most adapted to the male sex, who are called upon to act, and the latter to the females, who are obliged to endure: a man without courage would be as ill prepared to discharge his duty in his intercourse with the world, as a woman without fortitude would be to support herself under the complicated trials of body and mind with which she is liable to be assailed.

What can be more honorable than to have courage enough to execute the commands of reason and conscience ?

Collier.
With wonted fortitude she bore the smart, And not a groap confesa'd her burning heart.

Resolution is a minor species of cour. age, or it is courage in the minor concerns of life: courage comprehends under it a spirit to advance; resolution simply marks the will not to recede: we require courage to bear down all the obstacles which oppose themselves to us; we require resolution not to yield to the first difficulties that offer.
Depending more upon hia courage that atrength, he had a great mind to venture into the midst of the enemy's fleet.

Camben.
The unusual extension of my muscles on this occasion made my face ache to such a degree, that nothing but an invincible resolution and perseverance could have prevented me from falling back to my monosyllables.

Addigon.

## COURSE, RACE, PASSAGE.

COURSE, from curro, to run, signifies either the act of running, or the space run over. RACE, from run, signifies the same act. PASSAGE, from to pass, signifies either the act of passing or the space passed over.

Course and race as acts imply the act of walking or running; passage the act of passing or going generally: as swift in the course, to win the race, to be lost in the passage. The course in this case may be the act of one alone; the race is always the act of one in competition with others.
Him neither rocks can crush, nor steel can wound, When Ajax fell not on th' ensanguined ground; In standing fight he mates Achilles' force, Excell'd alone in swiftness in the course. Pope.
The moment before starting, the atreet appeared full of people; nor did we conceive how the race could poasihly be performed.

Brynone.
Between his shonlders pierc'd the following dart, And held its passage through the panting heart.

Pope.
In the sense of the space gone over, course is to be compared with passage in the proper application, and with race in the improper. The course is the direction taken or chosen by any object, and applies to persons or things personified; as a person pursues a course.

So Mars omnipotent invades the plain (The wide destroyer of the race of man); Terror, his best loved son, attenda his courge, Arm'd with stern boldness, and enormous force.

Pors.
Or a river takes a counce

But if with bays and dams they strive to force Mis channel to a new and narrow course, No longer then within his banks he dwells.

Deniam.
Passage is the way either through or over an object, and applies only to inanimate objects.
Direct against which open'd from beneath, Just o'er the blissiul seat of paradise, A pasage down to earth, a passage wide.
milton.
Course, in the moral application, signifies the direction taken in the business of life; as to pursue a right or wrong conrse.
At the first fatal opening of this contest, the wisest course seemed to be to put an end as soon as possible to the immediate causes of the dispote.

Burke.
The race is that course of life which a person is supposed to run with others toward a certain object. It is used mostly in the spiritual sense.
Remote from towns he ran his godly race,
Nor e'er had changed, nor wished to change his piace.

Goldsmith.
COURTEOUS, COMPLAISANT, COURTLY.
COURTEOUS, from court, denotes properly belonging to a court, and by a natural extension of the sense, suitable to a cona't. COMPLAISANT, v. Com. plaisance.

Courteous in one respect comprehends in it more than complaisant; it includes the manner as well as the action; it is, properly speaking, polished complaisance: on the other hand, complaisance includes more of the disposition in it than courteousness; it has less of the polish, but more of the reality of kindness. Courteousness displays itself in the address and manners ; complaisance in direct good offices: courteousness is practised between strangers; complaisancc among friends.

His business was to be indiscriminately courteous and obsequious to all nien, to appear much abroad and in public places, to increase his acquaintance.

Hawkins.
To comply with the notions of mankind is in some degree the duty of a social being, because by compliance only he can please, and by pleasing oniy he can beconie useful ; but as the end is not to be lost for the sake of the means, we are not to give up virtue for complaisance. Jornson.

COURTLSY, though derived from the same word as courteous, is ill some de-
gree opposed to it in point of sense; lt denotes a likeness to a court, but not a likeness which is favorable: courtly is to courteous as the form to the reality; the courtly consists of the exterior only, the latter of the exterior combined with the spirit; the former, therefore, seems to convey the idea of insincerity when contrasted with the latter, which must necessarily suppose the contrary: a courtly demeanor, or a courtier-like demeanor, may be suitable on certain occasions; but a courteous demeanor is always desirable.
We cannot omit to observe this courtly (shall I call it ?) or good quality in him, that he was courteous, and did seem to study to oblige.

Steype.
Courtly may likewise be employed in relation to things, as belonging to a court; but courteous has always respect to persons: we may speak of a courtly style, or courtly grandeur ; but we always speak of courteous behavior, courteous language, and the like.
He had a troublesome I know
He had a troublesome old-sashion'd way
Thomson.

## CREDIT, FAVOR, INFLUENCE.

CREDI'T, from the Latin creditus, participle of credo, to believe or trust, marks the state of being believed or trusted. FAVOR, from the Latin faveo, and probably favus, a honey-comb, marks an agreeable or pleasant state of feeling toward an object. INFLUENCE, in French inAluence, Latin influentia, from influo, to How upon, marks the state or power of acting upon any object so as to direct or move it.

These terms mark the state we stand in with regard to others as flowing out of their sentiments toward ourselves: credit arises out of esteem; favor out of govuwill or affection; influence out of either credit or favor, or external circumstances: credit depends altogether on personal merit, real or supposed; favor may depend on the caprice of him who bestows it. The credit which we have with others is marked by their confidence in our judgment; by their disposition to submit to our decisions; by their reliance on our veracity, or assent to our opinions: the favor we have with others is marked by
their readiness to comply with our wishes; their subserviency to our views; attachment to our society: men of talent are ambitious to gain credit with their sovereigns by the superiority of their counsel : weak men or men of ordinary powers are contented with being the favorites of princes, and enjoying their patronage and protection. Credit redounds to the bonor of the individual, and stimulates him to noble exertions; it is beneficial in its results to all mankind, individually or collectively: favor redounds to the personal advantage, the selfish gratification of the individual ; it is apt to inflame pride and provake jealousy.
No man had credit enough with him to corrupt him in point of loyalty to the king, while he thought bimself wise enough to know what treason was.

Clarendon.
I have not the least purpose of undervaluing his good parts and qualities when I say that his first introduction into favor was solely from the mamdsomeness of his person.

Clarendon.
Credit and favor are the gifte of others; influence is a possession which we derive from circumstances: there will always be influence where there is credit or fovor, but it may exist independently of either: we have credit and faoor for ourselves; we exert influence over others: credit and favor serve one's own purposes; influence is employed in dirceting others: weak people easily give their credit, or hestow their favor, by which an influence is gained over them to bend them to the will of others; the influence itself may be good or bad, according to the views of the person by whom it is exerted.
Truth itself shall lose its credit, if delivered by a person that has none.

Soute.
Halifax, thinking this a lucky opportunity of securing immortality, made some advances of $f a-$ vor and some overtures of advantage to Pope, which he seems to have recelved with sullen coldness. Johison.
What motive could induce Murray to murder a prince withont capacity, without followers, withgut in filuence over the nobles, whom the queen, by her neglect, had reduced to the lowest state of contempt?

Robeatson.

## CRIME, VICE, SIN.

CRIME, in Latin crimen, Greek крı $\mu$, signifies a judgment, sentence, or punishmont; aud also the camse of the sentence or punishment, in which latter sense it is
here taken. VICE, in Latin vitivm, from vito, to avoid, signifies that which ought to be avoided. SIN, in Saxon symne, Swedish synd, German sunde, old German sun. ta, sunto, etc., like the Latin sontes, Greek ocvins, from $\sigma \iota \nu \omega$, to hurt, signifies the thing that hurts; sin being of all things the most burtful.

A crime is a social offence; a vice is a personal offence: every action which does injury to others, either individually or colloctively, is a crime; that which does injury to ourselves is a vice. Crime consists in a violation of homan laws; vice in a violation of the moral law ; $\sin$ in a violation of the Divine law: sin, therefore, comprehends both crime and vice; but there are many sins which are not crimes nor vices: crimes are tried before a human court, and pumished agreeably to the sentence of the judge; vices and sins are brought before the tribunal of the couscience; the former are punished in this world, the latter will be punished in the wordd to come, by the sentence of the Almighty : treason is one of the most atrocious crimes; drunkenness one of the most dreadful vices; religious bypocrisy one of the most beinous sins.

The most ignorant heathen knows and feels that, when he has committed an unjust or cruel action, he has committed a crime and deserves punishment.

Blatr.
If is man makes his vices phblic, though they be such as seem principally to affect himself (as drunkenness or the like), they then become, by the bad example they set, of permicions effects to sosiety.

Blacerpone,
Every single gross sact of ain is much the same thing to the conscience that e great blow or fall is to the head; it stuns and bereaves it of all use of its senses for a time.

South.

## CRIME, MISDEMEANOR.

CRIME, v. Crime. MISDEMEANOR signifies literally a wrong demeanor.

The former of these terms is to the latter as the genus to the species: a mis. demeanor is in the technical sense a minor orime. Honsebreaking is under all circumstances a crime; but shoplifting or pilfering amounts only to a misde. meanor. Corporal punishments are most commonly annexed to crimes; pecuniary punishments frequeatly to misdemeanors. In the vulgar use of these terms, misdemeanor is moreover distinguished from crime by not always sigmifying a viola.
tion of public law, but only of private morals; in which sense the former term implies what is done sgainst the state, and the latter that which offends individuals or smsll communities.
No arime of thine our present sofferings draws, Not thon, but Hesven's disposing will the cause. Pope.
I mention this for the sake of several rural squires, whose reading does not rise so high as to "the present state of England," and who are often apt to usurp that precedency which by the lawn of their country is not due to them. Their want of learning, which has planted them in this atstion, may in some measure excuse their $m L_{s}-$ demeanor.

ADDISON.

## CRIMINAL, GUILTY.

CRIMINAL, from crime, signifies belonging or relating to a crime. GUILTY, from guilt, signifies having guilt: guilt comes from the German gelten, to pay, and gell, s fine, debt.

Criminal respects the character of the offence; guildy respects the faet of committing the offence. The criminality of a person is estimated by all the circumstsnces of his conduct which present themselves to observation; his guilt rezuires to be proved by evidence. The mriminality is not a matter of inquiry, but of judgment; the guilt is often donbtful, if not positively concealed. The higher the rank of a person, the grester his criminality if he does not observe an upright and irreproschsble conduct: where a number of individuals are concerned in any unlawful proceeding, the difficulty of attsching the guilt to the real offender is grestly increased.

However criminal they may be with regard to society in genersl, yet with respect to one another, and to every person to whom they have once professed it, they have ever maintained the most unshaken fidelity.

BRydone.
Guilt hears appall'd with deeply troubled thought ;
And yet not arways on the guiliy head
Descends the fated tiash.
Thomson.
Criminal may be spplied as an epithet either to the person or that which is personal ; guilty is properly applied only to the person: a person, or his actious, looks, thoughts, intentions, may be crimival: the person bimself is groilty of whstever he sctually commits. What is criminal is against good morals; bat a person may be guilty of trivial crrors io indifferent matters.

True modesty avoids everything that is orim. inab; fslse modesty everything that is unfashionablc.

Addison.
It ia his praise that he is never quilty of thowe faults as a writer which he lays to the charge of others.

Cowpea.

## CRIMINAL, CULPRIT, MALEFACTOR, felon, convict.

All. these terms sare employed for a public offender; but the first conveys no more than this general idea; while the others comprehend some accessory idea in their signification. CRIMINAL (v. Criminal, guilty) is a general term, sud the rest are properly species of criminals. CULPRIT, from the Lstin culpa and prehensus, taken in a fsult, signifies the criminal who is directly charged with his offence. MALEFACTOR, compounded of the Latin terms male snd factor, signifies sn evil-doer, thst ls, one who does evil, in distiaction from him who does good. FELON, from felony, in Latin felonia, s capitsl crime, comes either from the Greek $\phi \eta \lambda \omega \sigma \mathrm{s}$, an imposture, because fraud snd villany are the prominent features of every capital offence, or from fcl , gall, to denote the mslignity of the offence. CONVICT, in Lstin convictus, participle of convinco, to convince or prove, signifies one proved or found guilty.

When we wish to spesk in general of those who by offences against the laws or regulations of society have exposed themselves to punishment, we denominate them criminals: when we consider them as slready brought before a tribunal, we call them culprits: when we consider them in regard to the moral turpitude of their chsracter, as the promoters of evil rather than of good, we entitle them malefactors: when we consider them as offending by the grosser violations of the law, they are termed felons: when we consider them as slready under the sentence of the lsw, we denominste them convicts. The punishments inflicted on criminals vary according to the nature of their crimes and the spirit of the laws by which they are judged: a guilty conscience will give a man the air of a calprit in the presence of those who have not authority to be either his sccusers or judges; it gratified the malice of the Jews to cause our blessed Saviour to be

## CRUEL

crucified between two malefactors: it is an important regulation in the internal economy of a prison to have felons kept distinct from each other, particularly if their crimes are of an atrocious nature : it bas not unfrequently happened that, when the sentence of the law has placed convicts in the lowest state of degradation, their characters have undergone so entire a reformation as to enable them to attain a higher pitch of elevation than they had ever enjoyed before.

If I attack the vicious, I shall only set npon them in a budy, and will not be provoked, by the worst usage 1 can receive from others, to make an example of any particnlar criminal.

Addison.
The jury then withdrew a moment, As if on weighty points to comment, And, right or wrong, resolv'd to save her, They gave a verdict in her favor. The oulprit, hy escape grown bold, Pilfers alike from young and old.

Moore.
For this the mulefactor goat was laid
On Bacehus' altar, and his forfeit paid. Dryden.
He (Earl Ferrers) expressed some displeasure at being executed as a common felon, exposed to the eyes of such a nultitude, Smollett.
Attendance none shall need, nor train, where nono Are to behold the judgment, but the judged :
Those two: the third best absent is condemn'd Conviet by flight, and rebel to alt law;
Conviction to the serpent none helongs. Mruton.

## GRITERION, STANDARD.

CRITERION, in Greek крırך $\rho \iota$, from $\pi \rho \imath \nu \omega$, to judge, signifies the mark or rule by which one may judge. STANDARD, from the verb to stand, signifies the point at which one must stand, or beyond which une must not go.

The criterion is employed only in matters of judgment; the standard is used in the ordinary concerns of life. The former serves for determining the characters and qualities of things; the latter cor defining quantity and measure. The language and manners of a person are the best criterion for forming an estianate of his station and education. In order to produce a uniformity in the mercantile transactions of mankind one with another, it is the custom of government to fix a certain standard for the regulation of coins, weights, and measures.

[^35], TEATMS.

Who would insure a tender and delicate sense of honor to beat almost with the first pulse of the heart, when no man conld know what would be the test of honor in a nation continually varying the standard of its coin?

The word standard may likewise be used figuratively in the same sense. The Bible is a standard of excellence both in morals and religion, which cannot be too closely followed. It is impossible to have the same standard in the arts and sciences, because all our performances fall short of perfection, and will admit of improvement.
Rate not the extension of the human mind By the plebeian standard of mankind. Jenyns.

## CRUEL, inHuman, barbarous, brutal, savage.

CRUEL, from the Latin crudelis and crudus, raw, rough, or untutored; IN. HUMAN, compounded of the privative in and human, signifies not human; BARBAROUS, from the Greek $\beta_{a p} \beta a \rho_{0}$, rude or unsettled-all mark a degree of bad feeling which is uncontrolled by cuiture or refinement. BRUTAL, signifying like the brute; and SAVAGE, from the Latin sovus, fierce, and the Hebrew zaal, a wolf, mark a still stronger degree of this bad passion.

Cruel is the most familiar and the least powerful epithet of all these terms; it designates the ordinary propensity which, if not overpowered by a better principle, will invariably show itself by the desire of inflicting positive pain on others, or abridging their comfort: inhuman and barbarous are higher degrees of cruelty; brutal and savage rise so much in degree above the rest as almost to partake of another nature. A child gives early symptoms of his natural crucliy by his ill-treatment of animals ; but we do not speak of his inhumanity, because this is a term confined to men, and more properly to their treatment of their own species, although extended in its sense to their treatment of the brutes: barbarity is but too common among children and persons of riper years. A person is cruel who neglects the creature he should protect and take care of: he is inhuman if he withhold from him the common marks of tenderness or kindness which are to be expected from one human being to
another ; he is barbarous if he find amusement in inflicting pain; he is brutal or savage according to the circumstances of aggravation which accompany the act of torturing.
Now be thy rage, thy fatal rage resign'd;
A cruel heart ill suits a manly mind.
Pope.
Relentless love the amiel mother led,
The blood of her unbappy babes to shed;
Love lent the sword, the mother struck the blow,
Inhwman she, but more inhuman thon.
Dhyden.
I have found out a gift for my fair,
I have found where the wood-pigeons breed, But let me that plunder forbear,

She will say 'twas a barbarous deed.
Shenstone.
The play was acted at the other theatre, and the brutul petulance of Cibber was confuted, though perhaps not shamed, by general applause.

Johnson.
Brothers by brothers' impious hands are slain ! Mistaken zeal, how savage is thy reign!

JENYNG.

## TO CRY, WEEP.

An outward indication of pain is expressed by both these terms, but CRY ( $v$. To call) comprehends an audible expression accompanied with teals or otherwise. WEEP, in low German wapen, is a variation of whine, which is an onomatopoia, and simply indicates the shedding of tears. Crying arises from an impatience in suffering corporeal pains; children and weak people commonly cry: weeping is occasioned by mental grief ; the wisest and best of men will not dis. dain sometimes to weep. Crying is as elfish as it is weak; it serves to relieve the pain of the individual to the annoyance of the hearer; weeping, when called forth by others' sorrows, is an infirmity which no man could wish to be without: as an expression of generous sympathy, it affords essential relief to the sufferer.
The babe clung crying to his nurse's breast, Scared at the duzzling helm and nodding crest.
Thy Hector, wrapt in everlasting sleep,
Shall neither hear thee sigh, nor see thee quesp. Pore.
TO CRY, SCREAM, SLIRIEK.
To CRY ( $v$, To call) indicates the utterance of an articulate or an inarticulate sound. SCREAM, which is a variation of cry, is a species of crying in the firgt sense of the word; and SHRIEK,
which is the same, is a species of crying in its latter sense. Crying is an ordinary mode of loud utterance resorted to on common occasions; one cries in order to be heard: screaming is an intemperate mode of crying, resorted to from an impatient desire to be heard, or from a vehemence of feeling. People scream to deaf people from the mistaken idea of making themselves heard; whereas a distinct articulation will always be more efficacious. It is frequently necessary to cry when we cannot render ourselves audible by any other means; but it is never necessary or proper to scream. Shriek may be compared with cry and scream, as expressions of pain; in this case to shriek is more than to cry, and less than to scream. They both signify to cry with a violent effort. We may cry from the slightest pain or inconvenience; but one shrieks or screams only on occasions of great agony, either corporeal or mental. A child cries when it has hurt its finger; it shrieks in the moment of terror at the sight of a frightful object, or screams until some one comes to its assistance.

Like a thin smoke he sees the spirit fly, And hears a feeble, lamentable cry. Pope. Rapacious at the mother's throat they fly, And tear the sercaming infant from her breast. Thomson.
The house is fllld with loud laments and cries, And shricks of women rend the vaulted throne.

Dryden.

## CULPABLE, FAULTY.

CULPABLE, in Latin culpabilis, comes from culpa, a fault or blame, signifying worthy of blame, fit to be blamed. FAULTY, from fault, signifies having faults.

We are culpable from the commission of one fault; we are faulty from the number of faults: culpable is n relative term; faulty is absolute: we are culpable with regard to a superior whose intentions we have not fulfilled; we are faulty whenever we commit any faults. A master pronounces his servant as colpable for not having attended to his commands; an indifferent person pronounces another as faulty whose faults have come under his notice. It is possible, therefore, to be faulty without being culpable, but not vice versa.

In the common busineas of life we find the memory of one like that of another, and honestly impute omissions not to involuntary forgetfulness, hut culpable inattention. Johnson.

In the consideration of human life the satiriat never falls upon persons who are not glaringly faudty.

SteELE.

## CULTIVATION, CULTURE, CIVILIZATION, REFINEMENT.

CULTIVATION, from the Latin cultus, denotes the act of cultivating, or state of being cultivated. CULTURE, from cultus, signifies the state only of being cultivated. CIVILIZATION signifies the act of civilizing, or state of being civilized. REFINEMENT denotes the act of refining, or the state of being refined.

Cultivation is with more propriety applied to the thing that grows; culture to that in which it grows. The cultivation of flowers will not repay the labor unless the soil be prepared by proper culture. In the same manner, when speaking figuratively, we say the cultivation of any art or science: the cultivation of one's taste or inclination may be said to contribute to one's own skill or the perfection of the thing itself; but the mind requires culture previously to this particular exertion of the powers.

Notwithstanding this faculty (of taste) must be in some measure born with us, there are several methods of cultivating and improving it.

Addison.
But tho' Heav'n
In every breast has sown these early seeds Of love and admiration, yet in vain Without fair culture's kind parental aid. Ahengide.

Civilization is the first stage of cultivation; refinemont is the last: we civilize savages by divesting them of their rudeness, and giving them a knowledge of such arts as are requisite for civil society; we cudtivate people in general by calling forth their powers into action and independent exertion; wo refine them by the introduction of the liberal arts. The introduction of Christianity has been the best means of civilizing the radest nations. The cultivation of the mind in serious pursuits tends to refine the sentiments without debilitating the character; but the cultivation of the liberal arts may be pursued to a vicious extent, so as to introduce an excessive refinement of feel-
ing that is incompatible with real manli ress.
To civilize the rude unpolish'd world
And lay it under the restraint of laws,
To make man mild and sociable to man, To cultivate the wild licentious savage With wisdom, discipline, and lib'ral arts,Th' embellishments of life : Virtues like these Make human nature shine. ADDison.
Poctry makes a principal amusement ameng unpolished nations, hut in a country verging to the extremes of reffnement, painting and music come in for a share.

Goldsmiti.

## CULTIVATION, TILLAGE, HUSBANDRY.

CULTIV ATION has a much more comprehensive meaning than either tillage on hresbandry. TILLAGE is a mode of cultivation that extends no farther than the preparation of the ground for the reception of the seed; cultivation includes the whole process by which the produce of the earth is brought to maturity. We may till without cultivating; but we cannot cultivate, as far as respects the soil, without tillage. HUSBANDRY is more extensive in its meaning than tillage, but not so extensive as cultivation. Tillage respects the act only of tilling the ground; husbandry is employed for the office of cultivating for domestic purposes. A cultivator is a general term, defined only by the object that is cultivated, as the cultivator of the grape, or the olive; a tiller is a laborer in the soll that performs the office for another: a husbandman is a bumble species of cultiva. tor, who himself performs the whole office of cultivating the ground for domestic purposes.

> o softly-swelling hills

On which the power of cultivation lies,
And joys to see the woudera of his toil!
Thomson.
These principles of good husbandry ran through his (Hesiod's) work, and directed him to the choice of tillage and merchandise for tlire subject of that which is the most excellent of them.

Deyden.
We find an image of the two states, the contemplative and the active, figured out in the persons of Abel and Cain, by the two primitive trades, that of the shepherd and that of the husbandman.
bacon

## CUNNING, CRAFTY, SUBTLE, SLY, WILY.

CUNNING, v. Art. CRAFTY signifies having craft, that is, according to the original meaning of the word, having a
knowledge of some trade or art; hence figuratively applied to the charaeter. 'SUBTLE, in Erench subtil, and Latin subtilis, thin, from seb and tela, a thread drawn to be fine; hence in the figurative se se in which it is here taken, fine or acute in thought. SLI is in all probsbility conneeted with slow and sleek, or mwooth: deliberation and smoothress entering very much into the sense of sly. WILI signifies disposed to wiles or stratagems.

All these epithets agree in erpressing an aptitude to employ peeuliar and seerct means to the attainment of an end; they differ prineipally in the secreey of the means, or the degree of circumvention that is employed. The cunning man shows his dexterity simply in coneealing; this requires little more than reservedness and taciturnity: the erafty man goes farther; he shapes his words and actions so as to lull suspicion: hence it is that a child may be cunning, but an old man will be crafty: a subtle man has more acuteness of invention than either, and all his schemes are hidden by a veil that is impenetrable to common observation: the curnaing man looks only to the concealment of an immediate object; the craftly and subtle man have a remote ohject to conceal: thus men are cunaing in their ordinary concerns; politicians are crafty or sabtle: but the former ane more so as to the end, and the latter as to the means. A man is cunning and crafty by deecis; he is subtle mostly by means of words alone, or words and actions oombined. Slymess is a vulgar kind of eamwing; the sly man goes cautiously and siliently to work. Wiliness is a species of coonming or craft, applicable only to cases of attack or defence.

There is still another socret that can never fail If you can once get it believed, and which is often practised by women of greater cunning than virfine: this is to change fidea for a while with the jealous man, and to turn his own passion upon tumself.

Addison.
Cunning is often to be met with in brates themselves, mo in persons who are but the rewest semoves from them.

Addison.
You will tind the rexamples to be few and tare of wicked, unprincipled men attaining fully the accomplishment of their crafty designs.

Blatr.
The part of Ulpsses, in Homer's Odygsey, is very much admired by Aristotle, as perplexing
that fable with very agreeable plots and intrice cies, not only by the many adventures in hi voyage and the subllety of his behavior, but by the various coocealments and discoveries of his person in several parts of his poem. Addison.

If you or your correspondent had consolted me In your discourse upon the eye, I could have told you that the eye of Leonora is slyly watchful while it looks negligent.

STBELE.
Implore his aid; for Proteua only knowa
The secret cause and cure of all thy woes;
But first the wily wizard muat be caught, For, unconstrain ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{d}$, be nothing tells for naught.

Derbex.
TO CURE, HEAL, REMEDY.
CURE, in Latin curo, signifies to take care of, that is, by distinetion, to take care of that which requires particular care, in order to remove an evil. HEAL, in German heilen, comes from heil, whole, signifying to make whole that which is unsound. REMEDY, in Latin remedium, is compounded of re and medeor, to curs or heal, which comes from the Greek $\mu \eta \delta o \mu a \iota$ and Midea, Media, the country which contained the greatest number of healing plants. The particle re is here hut an intensive.

To eare is employed for what is out of order; to heal for that which is broken : diseases are cured, wounds are healed; the former is a complex, the latter is a simple proeess. Whatever requires to be cured is wrong in the system; it requires many and varions applications internally and externally: whatever requires to be healed is occasioned externally by violence, and requires external applications. In a state of refinement men have the greatest number of disorders to be cured; in a savage state there is more occasion for the luealing art.
Will toys amuse when med'cines cannot cure.
Younc
Scarcely an ill to human life belongs,
But what our folties cause, or mutual wrongs ; Or, if ame stripes from Providence we feed, He strikes with pity, and but wounds to heal.

Jentis.
Cure is used as properly in the moral as the natural sense; heal in the moral sense is altogether figurative. The disorders of the mind are cured with greater difficulty than those of the body. The breaches which have been made in the affections of relatives toward each ather can be healed by nothing hut a Cbristian spirit of forbearance aud forgiveness

## CURIOUS

tf the frail body feels disorder'd pangs, Then drugs medicinal can give us ease; The soul, no Esculapian medicine can cure.

Gentleman.
Whst healing hand can pour the balm of peace Aua turn my sight undaunted on the tomb?

Young.
To remedy, in the sense of applying remedies, has a moral application, in which it accords most with cure. Evils are either cured or remedied, but the former are of a much more serious nature than tbe latter. The evils in society require to be oured; an omission, a deficiency, or a mischief, requires to be remedied. When bad habits become inveterate, they are put out of the reach of cure. It is an exercise for the ingenuity of man to attempt to remedy the various troubles and inconveniences which are daily occurring.

The poor are half as wretched as the rich, Whose proud and painful privilege it is At once to bear a double load of woe, To feel the stings of envy and of want: Outrageous want 1 both Indies cannot cure!

Youna.
Every man has frequent grievances which only the solicitude of friendship will discover and remedy.

Jounson.
CURE, REMEDY.
CURE ( $v$. To curc) denotes either the act of curing, or the tbing that cures. REMEDY is mostly employed for the thing that remedies. In the former sense the remedy is to the cure as the means to the end; a cure is performed by the application of a remedy. That is incurable for which no remedy can be found; but a cure is sometimes performed without the application of any specifie remedy. The cure is complete when the evil is entirely removed; the remedy is sure which by proper application never fails of effecting the cure. The cure of disorders depends upon the skill of the physician and the state of the patient; the efficacy of remedies depends upon their suitable choice and application: but a cure may be defeated, or a remedy made of no avail, by a variety of cireumstances independent of either.
Why should he choose these miseries to endure If death could grant an everlasting cure ?
'Tis plain there's something whispers in his ear (Tho' fain he'd hide it) he lhas much to fear.

JENYNS.
The great defect of Thomson's Seasons is want
of method: but for this I know not that there was any remedy.

JOHNsON.
A cure is sometimes employed for the tning that cures, which brings it nearer in sense to the word remedy, the former being applied to great matters, the latter to small. Quacks always hold forth their nostrums as infallible cures not for one but for every sort of disorder; experienos has, however, fatally proved that the rem. $e d y$ in most cases is worse than the disease.
Particular punishments are the cure for accldental distempers in the state. Buaxe.
The three lords agreed on proroguing the Parliament as the only remedy left in the present distemper.

Sir W. Teyple.

## CURIOUS, INQUISITIVE, PRYING.

CURIOUS, in French curieux, Latin curiosus, from cura, care, signifying full of care. INQUISITIVE, in Latin inquisitus, from inquiro, to inquire or search into, signifying a disposition to investigate thoroughly. PRYING, from pry, changed from the French prouver, to try, signifies the disposition to try or sift ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{o}$ the bottom.

The disposition to interest one's self in matters not of immediate concern is the idea common to all these terms. Curiosity is directed to all objects that can gratify the inclination, taste, or understanding; inquisitiveness to such things only as satisfy the understanding. The curious person interests himself in all the works of nature and art; he is curious to try effects and examine causes: the inquisitive person endeavors to add to his store of knowledge. Curiosity cmploys every means which falls in its way in order to procure gratification; the curious man uses his own powers or those of others to serve his purpose: inquisitiveness is indulged only by means of verbal inquiry; the inquisitive person collects all from others. A traveller is curious who examines everytbing for himself; he is inquisitive when he minutely questions others. Inquisitiveness is therefore to curiosity as a means to an cod; whoever is curious will naturally be inquisitive, but he who is inquisitive may be so either from curiosity or from other motives.

There is something in the mind of men which goes beyond bare curiosity, and even carrics a
shadow of fricndship with those great geniuses whom we hava known to excel in former agea. Pors.
The reasons of these institutions (the Christian festivals), though they might be forgotten and obscured by a long course of years, could not but be very well known by thosa who lived in the three first centuries, and be a means of informing tha inquisitive Pagana in the truth of our Saviour's history.

ADDIBON.
Curious and inquisitive may be both ased in a bad sense; prying is never used otherwise than in a bad sense. Inquisitive, as in the former case, is a mode of curiosity, and prying is a species of eager curiosity. A curious person takes unallowed means of learning that which he ought not to wish to know; an inquisitive person puts many impertinent and troublesome questions: a prying temper is unceasing in its endeavors to get acquainted with the secrets of others. Curiosity is a fault most frequent among females; inquisitiveness is most general among children; a prying temper belongs only to people of low character. A welldisciplined mind checks the first risings of idle curiosity: children should be tanght early to suppress an inquisitive temper, which may so easily become burdensome to others: those who are of a prying temper are insensible to everything but the desire of onveiling what lies hidden; such a disposition is often engendered by the unlicensed indulgence of curiosity in early life, which becomes a sort of passion in riper years.

A man of curiosity ia void of all faith, and it is better to trust letters or any important secrets to any one than to friends and famtliars of an inquisitive temper.

Pope.
By adhering tenaciously to his opinion, and exhibiting other inatances of a prying disposition, Lord George Sackville had rendered himself disagreeable to the commander-in-chief.

Smollett.

## CURSORY, HASTY, SLIGHT, DESULTORY.

CURSORY, from the Latin curro, signifies run over or done in running. HASIY signifies done in haste. SLIGHT is a variation of light. DESULTORY, from desilio, to leap, signifies leaped over.

Cursory includes both hasty and slight; it includes hasty inasmuch as it expresses a quick motion; it includes slight inasmuch as it conveys the idea of a partial action: a view may be either cursory or
hasty, as the former is taken by design, the latter from carelessness: a view may be either cursory or slight; but the for mer is not so imperfect as the latter: an author will take a cursory view of those points which are not necessarily connected with his subject; an anthor who takes a hasty view of a subject will mislead by his errors; he who takes a slight view will disappoint by the shallowness of his information. Between cursory and desth], tory there is the same difference as between running and leaping: we run in a line, but we leap from one part to another; so remarks that are cursory have still more or less connection, but remarks that are desultory are without any coherence.

Savage mingled In cursory conversation with the same steadiness of attention as otbers apply to a lecture.

Jonngon.
The emperor Macrinns had once resolved to abolish these reacripts (of the emperora), and retain only the general edicts; he could not bear tbat the hasty and crude answera of such princes as Commodus and Caracalla should be reverenced as laws.

Blackatone,
The wits of Charles's time bad seldom mora than alight and superficial views. Johnson.
If compassion ever be felt from the brute instinct of mninatructed nature, it will only produce affects desultory and transient. Jonnson

## CUSTOM, HABIT.

CUSTOM, in French coutûme, probably contracted from the Latin consuetum, participle of consuesco, to accustom. HABIT, in French habit, Latin habitudo, from habeo, to have, marks the state of having or holding.

Custom is a frequent repetition of thes same act ; habit the effect of such repetition: the custom of rising early in the morning is conducive to the health, and may in a short time become such a habit as to render it no less agreeable than it is useful. Custom snpposes an act of the will ; habit implies an involuntary morement: a custom is followed; a habit is acquired.
It is the custom of the Mohammedans, if they see any printed or written paper upon the gronnd, to take it up and lay it aside carefully, as not knowing but it may contain some piece of the Alcoran.

Addison.
If a loose and careless life has brought a man into habits of dissipation, and led him to neglect those religious duties which he owed to his Maker, let him return to the regular worship of God.

Custom ia applicable to bodies of men; habit is confined to the individual: every nation haa customs peculiar to itself; and every individual has habits peculiar to his age, station, and circumstances.

I dare not shock my reader with the deseription of the customs and manners of these barbarians (the Hottentots).

Hyghea.
The foree of education is so great, that we may mould the minds and manners of the young into what shape we please, and give the impresaions ,of such habits as shall ever afterward remain.

Atterbury.
Customary and habitual, the epithets derived from these worda, admit of a similar distination: the customary action is that which is repeated after the manner of a custom; the habitual action is that which is done by the force of habit.

This euatomary superiority grew too delicate for truth, and Swift, with all his penetration, allowed himsalf to he delighted with low flattery. JORNEON.
We liave all reason to believe that, amidst numberless inflrmities which attend humanity, what tha great Judge will chiefly regard is the habitthal prevailing turn of our heart and life.

Blaia.

## CUBTOM, FASHION, MANNER, PRACTICE.

CUSTOMS, FASHIONS, and MAN. NERS are all employed for communities of men: custom (v. Custom, habit) respects ostablished and general modea of action : fashion, in French fagon, from facso, to do or make, regards partial and transitory modes of making or doing things: manner, in the limited sense in which it is here taken, signifiea the manner or mode of men's living or behaving in their social interoourse.

Custom is authoritative; it standa in the place of law, and regulates the conduct of men in the most important concerns of life: fashion is arbitrary and capricious, it decides in matters of trifling import mannere are rational; they are the expressions of moral feelings. Customs have most force in a simple state of society; fashions rule most where luxury has made the greatest progress ; manners are most distinguishable in a civilized state of society. Customs are in their nature as unchangeable as fashions are variable; manners depend on cultivation and collateral circumstances; customs die away or are abolished: fashions
pass away, and new ones take their place; manners are altered either for the better or the worse.

The cuatom of representing the grief we have for the loss $0^{e}$ the dead by our habits, certainly had its rise from the real sorrow of such as were too much distressed to take the care they ought of their dress.

STEELE,
Of beasts, it is confess'd, the ape Comes nearest us in human ahape I Like man, he imitates each fashion, Aod malice is hia ruling passion. SWIPI Their arma, their arts, their mannera I disclose, And how they war, and whence the people rose.

Dryden.
PRACTICE, in Latin practica, Greek $\pi \rho a \kappa \tau \iota \kappa \eta$, from $\pi \rho a \sigma \sigma \omega$, to do, signifies actual doing or the thing done, that ia, by distinction, the regularly doing, or the thing regularly done, in which sense it is most analogous to custom; but the for. mer aimply conveys the idea of actual performance; the latter includea also the accesaory idea of repetition at stated pe, riods: a practice may be defined as fre quent or unfrequent, regular or irregular; but a custom does not require to he qualn ified by any such epithets: it may be the practice of a person to do acts of charity, as the accasion requires; but, when he uniformly does a particular act of charity at any given period of the year, it is properly denominated his custom.
Savage was so tonched with the discovery of his real mother, that it was his frequent praco tice to walk in the dark evenings for several hours before her door, with hopes of secing her as she might cross her apartments with a candle in har hand.

Johnaon.
Both practice and custom are general or partioular, but the former is absolute, the latter relative: a practice may be adopted by a number of persons without reference to each other; but a custom is always followed either by initation or prescription : the practece of gaming has always been followed by the vicious part of society; but it is to be hoped for the honor of man that it will never hecome a cuastom.

His answer was that he could say no more t us than that it was his custom so tu do; if he knew a better cuatom he would uhserve that.

Nuçolls.
The practioe having occasioned much scan* dal, it was decreed that the litanies should for the future be only used within the walls of the chorch,

Whatily

## D.

## Daily, diurnal

DAILY, from day and like, signifies after the manner or in the time of the day. DIURNAL, from dies, day, signifies belonging to the day.

Daily is the colloquial term which is applicable to whatever passes in the daytime; diurnal is the scientific term, which applies to what passes within or belongs to the astronomical day: the physician makes daily visits to hls patients; the earth is said by astronomers to have a diurnal motion on its own axis.
All creatures else forget their datly care, And sleep, the common gift of nature, share.

Dryden.
Half yet remains unsung, but parrow bound Within the visible diurnal aphere. Milton.

## DAINTY, DELACACY.

Thest terms, which are in vogue among epicures; have some shades of difference in their signification not altogether undeserving of notice. DAINTY, from dain, deign, in Latin dignus, worthy, is applied to that which is of worth or value-of course only to such things as have a superior value in the estimation of epicures; and consequently conveys a more positive meaning than DELICACY, inasmuch as a dainty may be that which is extremely delicate, a delicacy is sometimes a species of dainty; but there are many delicacies which are altogether suited to the most delicate appetite, that are neither costly nor rare, two qualities which are almost inseparable from a dainty: those who indulge themselves freely in dainties and delicacies scarcely know what it is to eat with an appetite; but those who are temperate in their use of the enjoyments of life will be enabled to derive pleasure from ordinary food.
My landlord's cellar, stock'd with beer and ale, Instantly brings the cloicest liquors ont,
Whether we ask'd for home-brew'd or for stont, For mead or cider ; or, with daintien fed, Ring for a flask or two of white or red. Swift. She turns, on hospitable thoughts intent, What choice to choose for delioucy best.

Mllon.
DANGER, PERIL, HAZARD.
DANGER, in French danger, from the Latin damnum, a loss or damage, signi-
fies the chance of a loss. PERIL, in French peril, comes from pereo, which signifies either to go over or to perish; and periculum, which signifies literally that which is undergone; designating a critical situation, a rude trial, which may terminate in one's ruin. HAZARD, v. Chance, hazard.

The idea of chance or uncertalnty is commos to all these terms; but the two former may sometimes be foreseen and calculated upon; the latter is purely contingent. Dangers are far and near, ordinary and extraordinary: they meet us if we do not go in search of them; periln are always distant and extraordinary. we must go out of our course to expose ourselves to them; in the quict walk of life, as in the most busy and tumultuous, it is the lot of man to be surrounded by danger; the mariner and the traveller who goes in search of unknown countries put themselves in the way of undergoing pervis both by sea and land.
Proud of the favors mighty Jove has shown, On certain dangers we too rashly run. Pope
From that dire deluge through the watery waste, Such length of yeara, such various perils past, At last escap'd, to Latium we repair. Dayden.

Danger and perll are applied to posi. tive evils; hazard respocts the possibili. ty of good as well as of evil. When we are involved in danger we are in a situation to lose what we wish to retain; when we run the hazard of a battle w: may either win or lose.
Ten thousand dangers lie in wait to thwart The proceas.

Cowper.
One was their care, and their delight was one; One common hasard in the war they shared.

Darden.
The same distinction exists between the epithets that are derived from these terms.

It is dangerous for a youth to act without the advice of his friends; it is perib. ous for a traveller to explore the wilds of Africa; it ls hazardous for a merchant to speculate in time of war: experiments in matters of policy or government are always dangerous; a journey through deserts that are infested with beasts of prey is perilous; a military expedition, conducted with inadequate means, is haz ardous.

Hear this, and tremble ! all who would be great, Yet. know not what attends that dangrous, wretched state.

JENYNS.
The grisly boar is singled from his herd,
A match for Hercnles; ronnd him they fly In circles wide, and each in passing sends His feather'd desth iuto his brawny sides; But perilous th' attempt.

Somervilie.
The previous steps being taken, and the time fixed for this hazardous attempt, Admiral Holmes moved with his squadron farther up the fiver about three leagues above the place appointed for the disembarkation, that he might deceive the enemy.

Smollett.

## DARING, BOLD.

-DARING signifies having the spirit to dare. BOLD, v. Audacity.

These terms may be both taken in a bad sense; but daring much oftener than bold; in either case daring expresses much more than bold: he who is daring provokes resistance and courts danger ; but the bold man is contented to overcome the resistance that is offered to him: a man may be bold in the use of words only, he must be daring in actions: he is bold in the defence of truth; he is daring in military enterprise
Too darin. proace ! an ? whither dost thou son? Ab! too forgetful of thy wi'e and son. Pope. Thus cursed steel, and more accursed cold, Gave mischef birth, and made thai mischief bold.

DRyden.
DARK, OBSCHRE, DIM, MYSTERIOUS.
DARK, in Saxon deore, is doubtless connected with the German dunkel, dark, and dunst, a vapor, which is a cause of darkness. OBSCURE, in carin obscurus, compounded of ob and scurus, Greek $\sigma \kappa \iota \varepsilon \rho \circ \underline{y}$ and $\sigma \kappa t a$, a shadow, signifies literally interrupted by a shadow. DIM is but a variation of dark, dunkel, etc.

Darkness expresses more than obscuri$t y$; the former denotes the total privation of light; the latter only the diminution of light. Dark is opposed to light ; obseure to bright: what is dark is altogetber hidden; what is obscure is not to be seen distinctly, or without an effort.

Darkness may be used eitber in a nataral or moral sense; obscurity only in the latter; in which case the former conveys a more unfavorable idea: darkness serves to cover that which ought not to be hidden; obscurity intercepts our view of that which we would wish to see: the former is the consequence of design ; the
latter of neglect or accident: the lettes sent by the conspirator in the gunpowdet plot to his friend was dark; all passagen in ancient writers which allude to circumstances no longer known must neeessarily be obscure: a corner may be said to be dark or obseure, but the former is used literally and the latter figuratively; the owl is obliged, from the weakness of its visual organs, to seek the darkest cor. ners in the daytime; men of distorted minds often seek obscure corners, only from disappointed ambition.
Why are thy speeches dark and tronbled As Cretan seas, when vex'd hy warring winds? Sмтт.
He that reads and grows no wiser seldom sngpects his own deficiency, hut complains of hard words and obscure sentences.

Johnson.
Dim expresses a degree of darkness, but it is employed more in relation to the person seeing than to the object seen. The eyes are said to grow dim, or the sight dim. The light is said to be dim, by which things are but dimly seen.
The stars shall fade away, the sun himself Grow dim with age, and nature sink in years, Bnt thon shalt flourish in immortal youth.

Addison.
MYSTERIOUS denotes a species of the dark, in relation to the actions of men; wherc a veil is intentionally thrown over any object so as to render it as incomprehensible as that which is sacred. Dark is an epithet taken always in the bad sense, but mysterwous is always in an indifferent sense. We are told in the Sacred Writings that men love darkness rather than light, because their deeds are evil. Whatever, thorefore, is dark in the ways of men is naturally presumed to be evil; but things may be mysterious in the events of human life without the express intention of an individual to render them so. The speeches of an assassin and conspirator will be dark: any intricate affair, which involves the characters and conduct of men, may be mysterious. The same distinction exists between these terms when applied to the ways of Providence, which are said to be sometimes dark, inasmuch as they present a cloudy aspect ; and mostly mysterious, inasmuch as they are past finding out.

Randolph, an agent extremely proper for conducting any dark intrigue, was dispatched intu

Scotland, and, residing secretly among the lords of the congregation, olsserved and quickened their motions.

Roneltison.
The affection which Mary in her letter expresses for Bothwell fully accounts for every suhsequent part of her conduct, which, withont admitting this circumstance, appears altogether mysterious and inconsistent.

Rorertson.

## DEADLY, MORTAL, FATAL.

DEADLY or DEAD.LIKE signifies like death itself in its effects. MORTAL, in Latin mortalis, signifies belonging to death. FATAL, in Latin fatalis, signifies according to fate.

Deadly is applied to what is productive of death; mortal to what terminates in or is liable to death; fatal applies not only to death, but everything which may be of great mischief. A poison is deadly; a wound or a wounded part is mortal; a step in walking, or a step in one's conduct, may be fatal. Things only are deadly; creatures are mortal. Hatred is deadly; whatever has life is mortal. There may be remedies sometimes to counteract that which is deadly; but that which is mortal is past all cure; and that which is fatal cannot be retrieved.
On him, amidst the flying numbers found, Eurypilns inflicts a deadly wennd.

Pope,
For my own part, I never conld think that the soul, while in a mortal hody, lives.

Hughes, after Xenophon.
O fatal change! become in one sad day A senseless corse ! inanimated clay.

Pope.

## DEAL, QUANTITY, PORTION.

DEAL, in Saxon dcel, Dutch deel, and German theil, from doelen, theilen, etc., to divide, signifies literally the thing divided or taken off. QUANTITY, in Latin quantitas, comes from quantus, signifying how much. PORTION, through the Latin pars and portio, comes from the Hebrew parish, to divide, signifying, like the word deal, the thing taken off.

Deal always denotes something great, and cannot be coupled with any epithet that does not express much: quantity is a term of relative import; it either marks indefinitely the how, or so much of a thing, or may be defined by some epithet to express much or little: portion is of itself altogether indefinite, and admits of being qualified by any epithet to express much or little: deal is a term confined to familiar use, and sometimes substituted
for quantity, and sometimes for portion. It is common to speak of a deal or a quantity of paper, a great deal or a great quantity of money; likewise of a great deal or a great portion of pleasure, a great deal or a great portion of wealth: and in some cases deal is more usual than either quantity or portion, as a deal of heat, a deal of rain, a deal of frost, a deal of noise, and the like; but it is admissi. ble only in the familiar style.
This, my inquisitive temper, or rather impertinent humor, of prying into all sorts of writing, with my natural aversion to lequacity, gives me a good deal of employment when 1 enter any house in the country.

AdDison.
There is never roem in the werld for more than a certain quantity or measure of renown.

JOENSON.
Portion is employed only for part of that which is detached from the whole; quantity may sometimes be employed for a number of wholes. We may speak of a large or a small quantity of books; a large or a small quantity of plants or herbs; but a large or small portion of food, a large or small portion of color.
The jars of gen'rous wine, Acestes' gift, He set ahroach, and for the feast prepar'd, In equal portion with the ven'son shar'd. Dryden.
There he of them, that will themselves langh. to set on some quantity of barren spectators to langh too.

Shakspeare.

## DEATH, DEPARTURE, DECEASE, DEMISE.

DEATH signifies the act of dying. DEPARTURE signifies the act of depart ing. DECEASE, from the Latin decedo, to fall off, signifies the act of falling away. DEMISE, from demitto, to lay down, signifies literally resigning pos session.

Death is a general or a particular term; it marks, in the abstract sense, the extinction of life, and is applicable to men or animals; to one or many. Departure, decease, and demise are particular expressions suited only to the condition of human beings. We speak of death in reference to what happens before or at the time; we speak of the death of men generally, or of the death of individuals; we speak of the circumstances of death, its causes and effects Departure is a Christian term, which can
ries with it au idea of a passage from one life to another. Death of itself has always something terrifie $\ln$ it; but the Gospel has divested it of its terrors: the hour of departure, therefore, for a Christian, is often the happiest period of his mortal exlstence.

> How quickly would the honors of illustrious men perish after death, if their souls performed nothing to preserve their tame!

Hoores, aftea Xenophon.
Tha loss of our friends impressea upon us houriy the necsssity of our own departure.

Decease presents only the ldea of leaving life to the survivors. It is either a technical term in law for death, or it is used in common discourse for the falling off from the number of the living. Property is in perpetual occupancy; at the decease of one possessor it passes into the hands of another.

Though men sea avary day people go to their tong homo, they ars not so apt to he alarmed at that, as at the decedas of those who have lived longer in their sight.

Strele.
Demise signifies properly a putting off, and in this acceptation the putting off mortallity; it is therefore appropriately nsed for princes, to denote that they at the same time put off or resign an earthly crown.

So tender is the law of aupposing even a possibility of the King's doath, that his natural dissolution is generally called his demiae.

Blackstone.
As an epithet, dead is used collectivey; departed is used with a noun only; deceased generally without a noun, to denote one or more, aocording to the connection. There is a respect due to the dead, which cannot be violated without offence to the living. It is a pleasant reflection to conceive of departed spirits, as taking an interest in the concerns of those whom they have left. All the marks on the body of the dereased indi. cated that he had met with his death by sorne violence.

The living and the dead, at his command, Ware coupled faca to face, and hand to hand.

Dryden.
The sophistic tyranta of Paria are lond in their declamations against the departed ragal tyrauts, who in former ages have vexed the world.

Bubre.

It was emacted in the reign of Edward I. thas the ordinary ahall be bound to pay the debts of the intestate, in the asme manner that executors were bound in case the deceased left a will.

Blackstones

## TO DEBATE, DELIBERATE.

These terms equally mark the acts of pausing or withbolding the decision, whether applicable to one or many. To DEBATE ( $v$. To argue, dispute) supposes always a contrariety of opinion; to DELIBERATE (v. To consult, deliberate) supposes simply the weighing or estimating the value of the opinion that is offered Where many persons have the liberty of offering their opinions, it is natural to expect that there will be debating; when any subject offers that is complicated and questionable, it calls for mature deliberation. It is lamentable when passion gets such an ascendency in the mind of any one, as to make him debate which course of conduct he shall pursue between vir. tue and vice; the want of deliberation whether in private or public transactions, is a more fruitful source of mischief than almost any other.
To seek sage Nestor now, the chief resolves ; With him in wholesome counsel to debate What yet remains to save the sinking state.

Pope,
-When man's iffe is in dabate,
The judge can ne'er too iong deliberate.
Dryder.
DEBILITY, INFIRMITY, IMBECILITY.
DEBILITY, in Latin debilitos, from de. bilis, or de privative and habilis, signifies a deftciency; or not having. INFIRM. ITY, in Latin infirmitas, from inflimus, or in prlvative and fiomus, strong, signi. fies the absence of strength. IMBECIL. ITY, in Latin imbecillitas, from imbecillis, or in privative and becillis, bacillum, or baculus, a staff, slgnifies not having a staff.

All these terms denote a species of weakness, but the two former, partieu. larly the first, respect that which is phys. ical, and the latter that which is either physical or mental. Debility is const1tutional, or otherwise; imbecility is always constitutional; infirmity is accidental, and results from sickness, or a decay of the frame. Debility may be either general or local ; infirmity is al. ways local; imbecility always general

Debility prevents the active performance of the ordiaary functions of nature; it is a deficiency in the muscular power of the body: infirmity is a partial want of, power, which interferes with, but does not necessarily destroy, the actlvity: im . becility lies in the whole frame, and renders it almost entirely powerless. Young people are frequently troubled with debilities io their ankles or legs, of which they are never cured. Old age is most exposed to infirmities; but there ls no age at which human beings are exempt from infirmity of some kind or another. The imbecility natural to youth, both in body and mind, would make them willing to rest on the strength of their elders, if they were not too ofted misled by a mischievous confidence in their own strength.
As increasing years debilitate the body, ao they weaken the force and diminish the warmth of the affectiona. Blail.
This is weakness, not wisdom, I own, and on that account fitter to be trusted to the bosom of a friend, where I may aafaly lodge all my infirmum ities.

Atteraday.
It is seldom that we are otherwise than by affiction awakened to a rense of onr imbecility.

Јонмвол.

## debt, due.

DEBT and DUE, in French $d \hat{u}$, are both derived from the Latin debitum, participle of debeo, to owe. Debt is used only as a substantive; due either as a substantive or an adjective. As a substantive, debt is commonly applied to that which is owing from the person spoken of; due is always applied to that which is owing to the person: to pay one's debts, and receive one's due. So in the moral application, to pay the debt of nature, that is, what is due or owing to nature; to give every man his due.

Thongh Christ was as pure and undefled, without the least spot of sin, as purity and innocence itself, yet he was pleased to make himself the greatest sinner in the world by impntation, and render himself a surety responsible for our debts.

Sotrs.
The ghosts rejeeted are th' unhappy crew,
Deprir'd of sepulchres and fun'ral due.
Dryden.
DECAY, DFCLINE, CONSUMPTION.
DECAY, in French déchair, from the Latin decado, signifies literally to fall off or away. DECLINE, from the Latin de.
clino, or de and clino, signifies to turn away or lean aside. The direction ex. pressed by both tbese actions is very similar; it is a downward movement, but decay expresses more than decline. What is decayed is fallen or gone; what declines leads toward a fall, or is going; when applied, therefore, to the same objects, a decline is properly the commence. ment of a decay. The health may expe! rience a decline at any period of life from a variety of causes, but it naturally experiences a decay in old age.

Some have the art of converting even the aigns of national prosperity into symptoms of deoay and ruin.

Boake.
Forget not thy helpless infancy nor the frowardness of thy youth: and bear with the infirmities of thy aged parents, assist and support them in the decline of life.
economy of himan Life.
CONSUMPTION (v. To consume) implies a rapid decay. By decay tbings lose their perfection, their greatness, and their consistency; by decline they lose their strength, their vigor, and their lustre; by consumption they lose their existence. Decay briags to ruin; decline leads to an end or expiration. There are some things to which decay is peculiar, and some things to which decline is peculiar, and other things to which both decay and decline belong. The corruption to which material eubstances are particularly exposed is termed decay: the close of life, when health and strength begin to fall away, is termed the deciine: the decay of states in the moral world takes place by the same process as the decay of fabrics in the natural world; the decline of empires, from their state of elevation and splendor, is a natural figure drawn from the decline of the setting sun. Consumption is seldom applied to anything but animal bodies ex. cept figuratively.

The seas ahall waste, the skies in amoke decay, Rocks fall to dust, and monntaina melt away ; But fix'd his word, his saying power remains, Thy realm forever lasts, thy own Messiah reigns.

Pofe.
After the death of Julios and Augnstue Cexsar the Roman Empire declined every day. Socts.
By degrees the empire shirivelled and pined away; and from suoh a aurfeit of immoderate prosperity passed at length into a final consumption.

SoUTH

## DECEIT, DECEPTION.

DECEIT and DECEPTION are both derived from the verb deceive ( $v$. To deceive), and hoth imply the act of deceiving; with this difference, that the deceit is practised from an expressly bad motive, but deception may be from either bad or indifferent motives. A person is therefore said to he guilty of deceit who has sought to deceive another for his own purposes; but deceptions may be practised in a diversity of ways, and from a diversity of motives.

I mean to plunge the boy in pleasing sleep, And ravish'd in Idalian bow'ra to keep, Or high Cythera, that the aweet deceit May pass aoseen, and noue prevent the cheat.

Dryden.
And now, with nervea new braced and spirits cheered,
We tread the wilderness, whose well-rolled walks,
With curvature of slow and easy sweep,
Deception innocent-give ample space
To narrow hounds.
Cowpea.
Deceit is always a personal act, and if there be an habitual propensity to deceiving, the deceit is then a characteristic of the person; a deceiver is full of deceit. Deception frequently denotes the state of being deceived; it is the effect of any agency, whether from accident or design. Deceit is applied to cases where the understanding is intentionally deceived; but there may be a deception on the senses as well as on the understanding.

He often made use of dissimulation, seldom of deceit, for he knew how to conceal without counterfeiting virtues.

Gutarie.
All the joy or sorrow for the happiness or calamities of others is produced by an act of the imagination that realizes the event, however fictitions, so that we feel, while the deception lasts, whatever emotions would be excited by the same good or evil nappeniag to ourselves.

Jonsson.
Deceitful and deceptive are employed with this distinction : a person is said to be deccitful, and a thing deceptive.

[^36]DECEIT, DUPLICITY, DOUBLE-DEALING.
DECEIT ( $v$. Deceit, deception). DU. PLICITY signifies doubleness in dealing, the same as DOUBLE-DEALING. The two former may be applied either to habitual or particular actions, the latter only to particular actions. There may he much deceit or duplicity in a person's character or in his proceedings; there is double-dealing only where dealing goes forward. The deceit may be more or less veiled; the duplicity lies very deep, and is always studied whenever it is put into practice. Duplicity, in reference to actions, is mostly employed for a course of conduct; double-dealing is but another term for duplicity on particular occasions. Children of reserved characters are frequently prone to deceit, which grows into consummate duplicity in riper years: the wealthy are often exposed to much duplicity when they choose their favorites among the low and ignorant.

The arts of decsit do continually grow weaker and less serviceable to them that use them.

Thlotson.
Necesslty drove Drydea Into a duplicity of character that is paiuful to reflect upon.

Cumberland.
Maskwell (in the Double-Dealer) discloses by aoliloquy that his motive for double-dealing was founded in his passion for Cynthia.

Comberland.

## DECEIT, FRAUD, GUILE.

DECEIT (v. Deceit, deception) is allied to FRAUD in reference to actions; to GUILE in reference to the character.

Deceit is here, as in the preceding article, indcterminate when compared with fraud, which is a specific mode of deceiving; deceit is practised only in private transactions; fraud is practised toward bodies as well as individuals, in public as well as private: a child practises deceit toward its parents; frouds are practised upon government, on the public at large, or on tradesmen : deceit involves the violation of moral law, fraud that of the criminal law. A servant may deceive his master as to the time of his coming or going, but he defrauds him of his property if he obtains it by any false means.
With such deceits he gain'd their easy hearts, Too prone to credit his perfidious arts. Diyden

The story of the three books of the Slhyls sold to Turquin was ail a fraud devised for the convenience of state.

Prideaux.
Deceit as a characteristic is indefinite in magnitude; guile marks a strong degree of moral turpitude in the individual. The former is displayed in petty concerns: the latter, which contaminates the whole character, displays itself in inextricahle windings and turnings that are suggested in a peculiar manner by the author of all evil. Deceitful is an epithet commonly and lightly applied to persons in general; but guileless is applied to characters which are the most diametrically opposed to, and at the greatest possible distance from, that which is false.

Was it for force or guile, Or some religious end, you rais'd this pilie?

Dayden.
TO DECEIVE, DELUDE, IMPOSE UPON.
DECEIVE, in French décevoir, Lstin decipio, compounded of de privative and capio, to take, signifies to take wrong. DELUDE, in Latin deludo, compounded of $d e$ and ludo, signifies to play upon or to mislead by a trick. IMPOSE, in Latin imposui, perfect of impono, signifies literally to lay or put upon.

Falsehood is the leading feature in all these terms; they vary, however, in the circumstances of the action. To deceive is the most general of the three; it signifies simply to produce a false conviction; the other terms are properly species of deceiving, including accessory ideas. Deception may be practised in various degrees; deluding is always something positive, and considerable in degree. Every false impression produced by external objects, whether in trifles or important matters, is a deception; but delusion is confined to errors in matters of opinion. We may be deceived in the color or the distance of an object; we are deluded in what regards our principles or moral conduct.
I would have all my readers take care how they mistake thenselves for nacommon geniuses and men above rule, since it is very easy for them to be deceived in this particular.

Budoell.
Dsluded by a seeming excellenee. Roscommon.
A deception does not always suppose a fault on the part of the person deceived,
but a delusion does. A person Is some. times deceived in cases where deception is unavoidable; be is deluded through a voluntary blindness of the understanding: artful people are sometimes capable of deceiving so as not even to excite sus picion; their plausible tales justify the credit that is given to them: when the ignorant enter into nice questions of politics or religion, it is their ordinary fate to be deluded.

> I now believ'd

The happy day approach'd, nor are my hopes $\begin{aligned} & \text { er. }\end{aligned}$ ceiv'd.

DAYDEN.
Who therefore seeks in these True wisdom, finds her not, or, by clelusion, Far worse, her false resemblance oniy meets.

Youna.
Deception is practised by an individual on himself or others; a delusion is com. monly practised on one's self; an imposition is always practised on another. Men deceive others from a variety of motives; they always impose upon them for purposes of gain, or the gratification of ambition. Men deceive themselves with false pretexts and false confidence; they delude themselves with vain hopes and wishes.

Wanton women, in their eyes, Men's deceivings do comprise.

> Greens

I, waking, view'd with grief the rising snn, And fondly monrn'd the dear delusion gone.

> Prioa.

As there seem to be in this manuscript some anachronisme and deviations from the ancient orthography, I am not satisfied myseif that it is anthentic, and not rather the production of one of those Grecian sophisters who have imposed upon the worid severai spurious works of this nature.

Admison.

## DECEIVER, IMPOSTOR.

Between the words DECEIVER and IMPOSTOR ( $v$. To deceive) there is a sim. ilar distinction. A deceiver is any one who practises any sort of deception; but an impostor is a deceiver who studionsly deceives by putting on a false appear. ance. The deceiver practises deception on individuals or the public; the impostor most commonly on the public at large. The false friend and the faithless lover are deceivers; the assumed nobleman who practises frauds under his disguise, and the pretended prince who lays claim to a crown to which he wos never born, are impostors.

That tradition of the Jews, that Christ was atulen ont of the grave, is ancient: It was the invention of the Jews, and denies the integrity of the witnesses of his resurrection, making them deceloers.

Thleonon.
Our Saviour wronght hia miracles frequently, and for a long time togethar: a time snfficient to have detected any impostor in. Tillotaon.

## DECENCY, DRCORUM.

Thongh DECENCY and DECORUM tre both derived from the same word ( $v$. Becoming), they have acquired a distinction in their sense and application, Decency respects a man's conduct; decorum his behavior: a person conducts himself with decency: he behaves with decorum. Indecency is a vice; it is the violation of public or private morals: indecorum is a fault; it offends the feelings of those who witness it. Nothing but a depraved mind can lead to indecent practices ; indiscretion and thoughtlessuess may sometimes give rise to that which is indecorous. Decency enjoins upon all relatives, accordlng to the proximity of their relatlonship, to show certain marks of respect to the memory of the dead: regard for the feelings of others enjoins a certain outward decorum upon every one who attends a funeral.

Even religion itself, unlesa decenoy be the handmaid which waits upon her, la apt to make people appear gallty of sourness and ill-humor.

Spectator.
I will admit thal a fine woman of a certain rank cannot hava too many real vicea; but at the same time I do Insist upon it that it is essentially her Intereat not to have the appearance of any one. This decorum, 1 confeas, will conceal her conquests; but, on the other hand, if ahe will be pleased to reflect that those conquests are known sooner or later, she will not upon an average find herself a loser.

Chesterfielo.

## TO DECIDE, DFTERMINE, CONCLUDE UPON.

DECIDE, from the Latin decido, compounded of de and ceedo, signifies to cut off or cut short a business. DETERMINE, from the Latin determino, compounded of $d e$ and terminus, a term or boundary, signifies to fix the houndary. CONCLUDE, v. To close, finish.

The idea of bringing a thing to an end is common in the signification of all these words; but to decide expresses more promptitude than to determine: we may decide instantaneously, but we must take more or less time to determine; we may
deoide any single polnt either by an act of external force or by a sudden act of the mind; but, in determining any questlon, its extent, limits, and every circum. stance must be taken into consideration; determining is therefore an act of deliberation. To decide is an act of greater authority: a parent decides for a child, but subordinates sometimes determine in the absence of their employers. Points of law are decided by the judge, points of fact are determined by the jury. To de cide is therefore properly applied to al matters of dispute where more or less power or force is required to bring it to an end; to determine to all matters of conduct which may more easily be brought to an end.
With mutual blood th' Ansonian aoll la dyed, While on its borders each their claims deade. Drypen.
Thase circumstancea, with the lateness of the hour and the neceasity of securing the prizes, determined the conquering admiral to bring to.

Clarre.
To determine and decide are applied to practical matters; to conclude upon to speculative as well as practlcal matters, as to decide the fate of persons, to determine anything that interests one, to conclude that a thing is right or wrong, just or unjust, and the like.
Evel now expect great tidings, which perhaps of us will soon determine, or impose
New lawa to be ohserved.
MLnton
But no frail man, however great or hlgh,
Can be ooncluded blest before he dia.
Adplaox.
In respect to practical matters, to determine is either said of that which is subordinate, or it is a partial act of the mind; to conclude is said of the grand result; it is a complete act of the mind. Many things may be determined on which are either never put into execution, er remain long unexecuted; but that which is concluded on is mostly followed hy im. mediate action. To conclude on is properly to come to a final determination.
Is it concluded he shall be protector? It is determined, not concluded yet, Bit so it must be, if the king miscarry.

SHAREPEARE.
DECIDED, DETERMINED, RESOLUTE.
A Man who is DECIDED (v. To devide) remains in no doubt: he who is DETER

MINED is uninfluenced by the doubts or questions of others: be who is RESOLUTE (v. To determine, resolve) is uninfluenced by the consequences of his actions. A decided character is at all times essential for a prince or a minister, but particularly so in an unsettled period; a defermined character is essential for a commander or any one who has to exercise authority ; a resolute character is esaential for one who is engaged in dangerous enterprises. Pericles was a man of a decided temper, which was well fitted to direct the affairs of government in a season of turbulence and disquietude : Titus Manlius Tonquatus displayed himself to be a man of a determined character when he put to death his victorions son for a breach of military discipline: Brutus, the murderer of Cæsar, was a man of a resolute temper.

Almost all the high-bred republicams of my time have, after a short space, become the most lecided thorough-paced courtiers. Bgrke.
A race determined, that to death contend;
So fierce these Greeks their last retreats defenu.
Pope.
Most of the propositions we think, reason, discolirse, nay act upon, are such as we cannot have undouhted knowledge of their truth : yct some of them border so near upon certainty that we make no doubt at all about them ; but assent to them as firmly, and act according to that assent as resolutely, as if they were infallibly demonstrated.

Locte.

## DECIDED, DECISIVE.

DECIDED marks that which is actually decided: DECISIVE that which appertains to decision. Decided is employed for persons or things; decisive only for things. A person's aversion or attachment is decided; a sentence, a judgment, or a vietory, is decisive. A man of a decid$e d$ character always adopts docisive mcasures. It is right to be decidedly averse to everything which is immoral: we should be cautious not to pronounce decisively on any point where we are not perfectly - lear and well grounded in our opinion. In every popular commotion it is the duty of a good subject to take a decided part in favor of law and order: such is the nature of law, that if it were not decisive it would be of no value.

A politic csution, a guarded circumspection, were ameng the ruling principles of our forefathers in their most deeided conduct. Bdrie.

The sentence of superior judges is final, deci sive, and irrevocable.

Blackstone,

## DECISION, JUDGMENT, SENTENCE.

DECISION signifies literally the act of deciding, or the thing decided upon (v. To decide). JUDGMENT signifies the act of judging or determining in general (v. To decide). SENTENCE, in Latin sententia, signifies the opinion held or maintained.

These terms, though very different in their original meaning, are now employed so that the two latter are species of the former: a final conclusion of any businesa is comprehended in them all; but decision conveys none of the collateral ideas which is expressed by judgment and sentence: a decision has no respect to the agent; it may be said of one or many; it may be the decision of the court, of the nation, of the public, of a particular body of men, or of a private individual; but a judgment is given in a public court, or among private individuals: a sentence is passed in a court of law, or at the bar of the public. A decision specifies none of the circumstances of the action: it may be a legal or an arbitrary decision; it may be a decision according to one's caprice, or after mature deliberation: a judgment is always passed either in a court of law, and consequently by virtue of authority, or it is passed by an individual by the authority of his own judgment: a sentesce is passed either by the authority of law, or at the discretion of an individual or of the public.
The decisione of the judges, in the several courts of justice, are the prineipal and most authoritative evidence that can be piven of the existence of such a custom as shall form a part of the common law.

BLACKGTONE.
It is the greatest folly to seek the praise or approbation of any being besides the supreme Being : because no other being can make a right judgment of us.

Addison.
The guilty man has an honor for the judge who with fustice pronounces against thim the sentence of death itself.

Steele.
A decision is given, it is that which decides, and, by putting an end to all dispute and doubt, enables a person to act. A judgment is formed, it respects the guilt or innocence, the moral excellence or defects, of a person or thing; it enables a person to think. A sentence is pronounced or passed; it respects all mattera gener.
ally, and determines what are the sentiments of those by whom it is pronounced. Some points are of so eomplicated a nature that no decision can be given upon them; some are of so high a nature that they can be decided only by the bighest authority; men are forbidden by the Christian religion to be severe in their judgments upon one another; the works of an author must sometimes await the sentence of impartial posterity before their value can be duly appreciated.

For pleasure and revenge Have ears more deaf than adders to the voice Of any true decision.

Shakspeare.
Do you judge, from comparing the present utate of the world with your natural notions of God, that there must needs be another state in which justice shall take place? You reason right, and the Gospel confirms the judgment. Sherloce.
By inuring himself to examine all things, whether they be of consequence or not, the critic never looks upon anything but with a design of passing sentence npon it.

Tatler.

## DECLAIM, INVEIGH.

DECLAIM, in Latin declamo, that is, de and clamo, signifies literally to cry aloud in a set form of words. INVEIGH, $v$. Abusc, invective.

The sense in which these words agree is that of using the language of displeasure against any person or thing: declaim is used gencrally, inveigh particularly: publie men and public measures are subjects for the declaimer; private individuals afford subjeets for inveighing against: the former is under the influence of particular opinions or prejudices; the latter is the fruit of personal resentment or displeasure: politicians dedaim against the conduct of those in power, or the state of the nation; they inveigh against individuals who have offended them. A declaimer is noisy: he is a man of words; he makes long and loud speeches: an inveigher is virulent and personal; he enters into private details, and often indulges his malignant feelings under an affected regard for morality.

The grave and the merry have equally thonght themselves at liberty to conclude, either with $d e$ elamatory complaints or satirical censures of female folly.

Johnson.
Scarce were the flocks refresh'd with morning dew,
When Damon, stretch'd beneath an olive shade,

And wildly starting upward, thus inveioh'd Against the conscious gods.

Drydek

## TO DECLARE, PUBLISH, PROCLAIM.

DECLARE, in Latin declaro, compounded of de and claro, to clear, signifies literally to make clear or show plain. ly to a person. PUBLISH, v. To an nounce. PROCLAIM, in Latin proclamo. compounded of pro and clamo, sigaifies to cry before or in the ears of others.

The idea of making known is commor to all these terms: this is simply the sig. nification of declare, but the other two inelude accessory ideas. The word declard does not express any particular mode or circumstance of making known, as is im. plied by the others: we may declare pub. licly or privately; we publish and pro. claim only in a public manner: we may declare by word of mouth, or by writing: we publish or proclaim by any means that will render the thing most general. ly known. In declaring, the leading idea is that of speaking out that which passes in the mind; in publishing, the leading idea is that of making public or common; in proclaiming, the leading idea is that of crying aloud: we may, therefore, often declare by publushing and proclaiming: a declaration is a personal act, it concerns the person declaring, or him to whom it is declared; its truth or falsehood depends upon the veracity of the speaker: a pub. lication is of general interest; the truth or falsehood of it does not always rest with the publisher: a proclamation is altogether a public act, in whieh no one's veracity is implicated. Facts and opinions are declared; events and cireumstances are published; the measures of government are proclaimed: it is folly for a man to declare anything to be true which be is not certain to be so, and wickedness in him to declare that to be true which he knows to be false: whoever publishes all he hears will be in great danger of mublishing many falsehoods; whatever is proclaimed is supposed to be of sufficient importance to deserve the notice of all who may hear or read.
The Greeks in shouts their joint assent declara, The priest to rev'rence aud release the fair.

## Pops,

I am surprised that none of the fortane-tell
ers, or, as the French call them, the Dineurs de bonne aventure, who publish their bills in every quarter of the town, have not turned our lotteries to their advaatage.

AdDison.
Nhe sacred heralds now, proclainting lond The monareh's will, suspend the list'niog crowd. POPE.
A declaration is always a personal act, whether relating to public or private matters: a publication and a proclamation may be both indirect actions made by sny channel the fittest to make a wide communication. In cases of war or peace, princes are expected to declare themselves on one side or the other; in the political world intelligence is quickly published through the medium of the public papers ; in private life domestic occurrences are published with equal celerity through the medium of tale-bearers; proclaiming is not confined to political matters: whatever is made known after the manner of a proclamation is said to be proclaimed: joyful news is proclaimed, and where private matters which ought not to be known are published to the world people are said to proclaim their own shame.

There is one case In which it would be madness not to give eredit to the most deceitful of men; that is, when they make declarations of hostility against us.

Burke.
Suon, I believe,
His second marriage shall be pubilished.
Shakspeare.
Those who attempt by outrage and violence to deprive men of any advantage which they hold under the laws, and to destroy the natural order of life, proolaim war against them. Burke.

## DECREE, EDICT, PROCLAMATION.

DECREE, in French décret, Latin decretus, from decerno, to give judgment or pass sentence, signifies the sentence or resolution that is passed. EDICT, in Latin edichus, from edico, to say out, signifies the thing spoken out or sent forth. PROCLAMATION, v. To declare.

A decree is a more solemn and deliberative act than an edzet; on the other hand, an edict is more authoritative than a decree. A decree is the decision of one or many; an edict speaks the will of an individual: councils and senates, as well as princes, make decrees, despotic rulers issue edicts. Decrees are passed for the regulation of public and private matters; they are made known as occasion re-
quires, but are not always public; edicts and proclamations contain the commands of the sovereign authority, and are directly addressed by the prince to his people. An edict is peculiar to a despotic government; a proclamation is common to a monarchical and aristocratic form of government: the ukase in Russia is a species of edict, by which the emperor makes known his will to his people; the king of England communicates to his subjects the determinations of himself and his council by means of a proclamation.

## There is no power in Venice

Can alter a decree establish'd;
"Twill be recorded for a precedent. Sharspeaze.
This statute or act of parliament is placed among the records of the kingdom, there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was necessary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts. Blachstone.
From the same original of the king's being the fountain of justice, we may also deduce the prerogative of issuing proclamations, which is vested in the king alone.

Blackstone.
The term decree is applied figuratively; the other terms are used, for the most part, in their proper sense only.
Are we condemn'd, by fate's unjust deoree,
No more our houses and our homes to see?
Dryden.
TO DEDICATE, DEVOTE, CONSECRATE, HALLOW.
DEDICATE, in Latin dedicatus, participle from $d e$ and dico, signifies to set apart by a promise. DEVOTE, in Latin devotus, participle from devoveo, signifies to vow for an express purpose. CONSECRATE, in Latin consecratus, from consecro or con and sacro, signifies to make sacred by a special act. HALLOW, from holy, in German heilig, signifles to make holy.
There is something more solemn in the act of dedicating than in that of devotiang; but less so than in that of consecrating. To dedicate and devote may be employed in both temoporal and spiritual matters; to consecrate and hallow only in the spiritual sense: we may dedicate or devote anything that is at our disposal to the service of some object; but the former is employed mostly in regard to superiors, and the latter to persons without distinction of rank: we dedicate a bouse to the sen

## DEED

vice of God; or we devote our time to the benefit of our friends, or the relief of the poor : we may dedicate or devote ourselves to an object; but the former always implies a solemo setting apart springing from a sense of duty; the latter an entire application of one's self from zeal and affection; in this manner he who dedicates himself to God abstracts himself from every object which is not im. mediately connected with the service of God; he who devotes himself to the ministry pursues it as the first object of his attention and regard. To consecrate is a species of formal dedication by virtue of a religious observance; it is applicable mostly to places and things connected with religious works: hallow is a species of informal consecration applied to the same objects: the church is consecrated; particular days are hallowed.

Warn'd by the seer, to her offended name
We rais'd and dedicated this wond'rous frame. Dhyden.
Gilbert West settled himself in a very pleasant house at Wickham, in Kent, where he devoted himself to piety.

Johnson.
The greatest conqueror in this holy nation did not only compose the words of his divine odes, but generally set them to music himself; after which his works, though they were consecrated to the tabernacle, became the national entertainment.

Addison.
Without the walls a ruin'd temple stands,
To Ceres hallowed once.
Dityen.

## TO DEDUCT, SUBTRACT.

DEDUCT, from the Latin deductus, participle of deduco, and SUBTRACT, from subtractum, participle of subtraho, have both the sense of taking from, but the former is used in a general, and the latter io a technical sense. He who makes an estimate is obliged to deduct; he who makes a calculation is obliged to subtract. The tradesman deducts what has been paid from what remains due; the accountant subtracts small sums from the gross amount.

[^37]
## DEDUCTION, ABATEMENT.

Bотн these words imply a taking off from something, but the deduction is made at the discretion of the person deducting; while the abatement is made for the convenience or at the desire of the person for whom it is made. A person may make a deduction in an account for various reasons, but he makes an abate ment in a demand when it is objected to as excessive; so an abatement may be made in a calculation when it is sup. posed to he higher than it ought to be.

If I am correctly informed, the rise in the last year (in the produce of the taxes), after every deduction that can be made, affords the most consoling and encoaraging prospect. Bures.
Win come a day (hear this and quake, ye potent great onea!)
When you yourselves ahall atand before a Judge Who in a pair of scales will weigh your actions Without abatement of one grain.

Beatmont and Fletcher.

## DEED, EXPLOIT, ACHIEVEMENT, FEAT.

DEED, from $d o$, expresses the thing doae. EXPLOIT, in French exploit, most probably changed from explicatus, signifying the thing unfolded or displayed. ACHIEVEMENT, from achieve, French achever, to finish, signifies what is accomplished or completed. FEA'T, in French fait, Latin factum, from facio, signifies the thing done.

The three first words rise progressively on each other: deeds, compared with the others, is employed for that which is ordinary or extraordinary; exploit and achievement are used only for the extraordinary; the latter in a higher sense than the former. Deeds must always be characterized as good or bad, magnanimous or atrocious, and the like, except in poetry, when the term becomes elevated.
Great Pollio! thou for whom thy Rome prepares The ready triumph of thy finish'd wars; Is there in fate an hour reserv'd for me To aing thy deeds in nambers worthy thee?

Dryden.
Exploit and achievement do not necessarily require such epithets; they are always taken in the proper sense for something great. Exploit, wheu compared with achievement, is a term used in plain prose; it designates not so much what is great as what is real : achievement is
most adapted to poetry and romance; an exploit is properly a single act, and refers to the efforts of the individual performing it; an achievement may involve many acts and circumstances ; in the execution it refers us to the point gained, as also to the difficulties of gaining it. An exploit marks only personal bravery in action; an ackievement denotes elevation of character in every respect, grandeur of design, promptitude in execution, and valor in action. An exploit may be executed by the design and at the will of another; a common soldier or an army may perform exploits. An achievement is designed and executed by the achiever: Hercules is distinguished for his achievements; and in the same manner we speak of the achievements of knight-errants or of great commanders.
High matter thon enjoin'st me, 0 prime of man : Sad taak and hard: for how slaall I relate To human sense th' invisihle explotots of warring spirits?

Mutos.
Great spoils and trophes, gain'd by thee, they bear,
Then Jet thy own achievements be thy share.
Darden.
Feat approaches nsarest to exploit in signification; the former marks skill, and the latter resolution. The feats of chivalry displayed in justs and tournaments were in former times as much esteemed as warlike exploits.

Much I have heard Of thy prodiglous might, and feata perform'd. Muton.
Exploit and feat are often used in derision, to mark the absence of skill or bravery in the actions of individuals. The soldier who affects to be foremost in situations where there is no danger cannot be more properly derided then by terming his action an exploit; he who prides himself on the display of skill in the performance of $n$ paltry trick may be laughed at for baving performed a feat. The same words may also be applied in an indifferent sense to familiar objects, as the exploits of a freebooter, or feats of horsemanship.

[^38]performed his foats with such a solemnity of manner, that in him too I had an agreeable com panion.

Cowper

## TO DEFACE, DISFIGURE, DEFORM.

DEFACE, DISFIGURE, and DEFORM signify literally to spoil the face, figure, and form. Deface expresses more than either deform and disfigure. To deface is an act of destruction; it is the actual destruction of that which bas before existed: to disfigure is either an act of destruction or an erroneous execution, which takes away the figure: to deform is altogether an imperfect execution, which renders the form what it should not be. A thing is defaced by design; it is disfigured either by design or accident; it is deformed either by an error or by the nature of the thing. Persons only deface; persons or things disfogure; things are most commonly deformed of themselves. That may be defaced, the face or external surface of which may be injured or destroyed ; that may be diafig. ured or deformed, the figure or form of which is imperfect or may be rendered imperfect. A fine painting or piece of writing is defaced which is torn or besmeared with dirt: a fine building is disfigured by any want of symmetry in its parts: a building is deformed that is made contrary to all form. A statue may be defaced, disfigured, and deformed: it is defaced when any violence is done to the face or any outward part of the body; it is disfigured by the loss of a limb; it is deformed if made contrary to the perfect form of a person or thing to be represented. Inanimate objects are mostly defaced or disfigured, but seldom deformed; animate objects are eitber disfigured or deformed, but seldomer defaced. A person may disfigure himself by his dress; he is deformed by the hand of nature.

Yet she had heard an ancient rumor fiy (Long cited by the people of the sky),
That times to come should see the Trojan race Her Carthage ruin and her tow'rs doface.

DRYDEN.
It is but too obvious that errors are committed in this part of religion (devotion). These frequently disfigure its appearance before the world, and subject it to unjust reproach. BLair.

A beauteous maid above; bnt magic art, With barking dogs, deform'd her netber part.

DEYDEK

TO DEFEAT, FOIL, DISAPPOINT, FRUSTRATE.
DEFEAT, v. To beat, defeat. FOIL may probably come from fail and the Latin fallo, to deceive, signifying to make to fail. FRUSTRATE, in Latin frustratus, from frustra, signibes to make vain. DISAPPOINT, from the privative dis and the verb appoint, signifies literally to do away what has been appointed.

Defeat and foil are botb applied to matters of enterprise; but tbat may be defeated which is only planned, and that is foiled which is in the act of being executed. What is rejected is defeated: wbat is aimed at or purposed is frustrated: what is calculated on is disappointed. The best concerted schemes may sometimes be easily defeated: where art is employed against simplicity, the latter may be easily foiled: when we aim at what is above our reach, we must be frustrated in our endeavors: when our expectations are extravagant, it seems to follow, of course, that they will be disappointed. Design or accident may tend to defeat, design only to foil, accident only to frustrate or disappoint. The superior force of the enemy, or a combination of untoward events which are above the control of the commander, will serve to defeat the best concerted plans of the best generals: men of upright minds can seldom foil the deep-laid schemes of knaves: when we see that the perversity of men is liable to frustrate the kind intentions of others in their behalf, it is wiser to leave them to their folly: the cross accidents of buman life are a fruitful source of disappointment to those who suffer themselves to be affected by them.

The very parposes of wantonness are defeated by a carriage which has so much boldness.

Stecle.
The devil haunts those most where he hath greatest hopes of success; and is too eager and intent upon mischief to employ his time and temptations where he hath been so often foiled.

Tiklotson.
Let all the Tuscans, all th' Arcadians Join,
Nor these nor those shall frustrate my design.
Dhyden.
It seems rational to hope that minds qualified for great attainments should first endeavor their own benefit. But this expectation, however plauulble, has been very frequently disappointed.

Johmbon.

## DEFECTION, REVOLT.

DEFECTION, from the Latin duficia signifies the act of falling off, or becoming deficient toward some abject. RE VOLT, compounded of re and volt, in French voltiger, to bound, and the Latin volo, to fly, signifies a bounding back from an object to which one bas been attached.
Defection is a general, revolt a specific term, that is, it denotes a species of defec tion. Defection is applicable to any person or thing to which we are bound by any obligation ; revolt is applicable only to tbe government to which one is bound. There may be a defection from religion, or any cause that is held sacred : a revolt is only against a monarch, or the supreme authority.

When attacked in Skipton Castle by Aske and his fellow-rebels, amidst a general defection of the dependents of bis family, he bravely defended it against them all.

Whitaker.
Some of the members of the old conncil of state, together with the old speaker Lenthal, hy advice together, finding the revolt of the soldiers from Fleetwood, gave out orders for the forces to rendezvous in Lincoln's-Inn-Fields.

Whitelocee.
Defection does not designate the mode of the action; it may be quietly made or otherwise: a revolt is an act of violence, and always attended witb violence. The defection may be the act of one; a revolt is properly the act of many. A general may be guilty of a defection who leaves the party to which he has bitherto adhered; a nation or a community may commit an act of revolt by sbaking off the authority under which they have lived. A defection, being mostly the act of an individual, or one part of a community against the whole, is mostly a culpable act; but a revolt may be a justifiable measure, when one nation revolts against another, under whose power it has been brought by force of arms: the Roman people were guilty of a defection when they left the senate and retired to mount Aventine: the Germans frequently attempted to recover their liberty by revolting against the Romans.

At the time of the general defection from Nero, Virginius Rufus was at the head of a very powerful army in Germany, which had pressed him to accept the title of emperor, but he constaptly refased it,


No sooner was Philip dead than the Greciana rovolted, and endeavared to free themaclves from the Macedonian yoke.

Potten.

## DEFECTIVE, DEFICIENT.

DEFECTIVE expresses the quality or property of having a defect (v. Blemish): DEFICLENT is employed with regard to the thing itself that is wanting. A book may be defcctive, in consequence of some leaves being deficient. A deficioncy is therefore often what constitutes a defect. Many things, however, may be defectivc without having any deficiency, and vice versa. Whatever is misshapen, and fails either in beauty or utility, is defective; that which is wanted to make a thing complete is deficient. It is a defect in the eye when it is so constructed that things are not seen at their proper distances; there is a deficiency in a tradesman's accounts when one side falls short of the other. That which is defective ls most likely to be permanent; but a deficiency may be only occasional and easily rectified.
Providence, for the moat part, sets ua upon a level; if it renders us perfect in one accomplishment, it generally leaves us defective in another.

Addigon.
If there be a deficiency in the apeaker, there will not be sufficient attention and regard paid to the thing spoken.

Swift.

## TO DEFEND, PROTECT, VINDICATE.

DEFEND, v. Apology. PROTECT, in Latin protectum, participle of protego, compounded of pro and tego, signifies to put anything before a person as a covering. VINDICATE, v. To assert.

Defend is a general term; it defines nothing with regard to the degree and manner of the action : protect is a particular and positive term, expressing an action of some considerable importance. Persons may defend others without distinction of rank or station: none but superiors or persons having power can proteet others. Defence is an occasional action; protection is a permanent actioo. A person may be defended in any particular case of actual danger or difficulty; he is protected from what may happen as well as what does happen. Defence respects the evil that threatens; protection involves the supply of necessities and the affording comforts.

A master may justify an asaault in defence of his servant, and a servant in defence of his master.
blaceatone.
Thcy who protected the weaknesa of our infancy are entitled to our protection in their old age.

Blacestone.
Defence requires some active exertion either of body or mind; protection may consist only of the extension of power in behalf of any particular individual. A defence is successful or unsuccessful ; a protection weak or strong. A soldier dsfends his country; a counsellor defends his client: a priace protects his subjeets.

Savage (on hia trial for the murder of Sinelair) did not deny the fact, but endeavored to justify it by the necessity of self-defence, and the hazard of his own life if he had lost the opportunity of giving the thrust.

Johnson.
Firat give thy faith and plight, a prince'a word, Of sure protection by thy power and aword; For I must speak what wisdom would conceal, And truth invidious to the great reveal. Pope.

In a figurative and extended sense, things may either defend or protect with a similar distinction: a coat defends us from the inclemencies of the weather; houses are a protection not only against the changes of the seasons, but also against the violence of men.
How shall the vine with tender leaves defend Her teeming cluaters when the rains descend?

Dryden.
Some to the holly hedge
Nestling repair, and to the thicket some;
Some to the rude pratection of the tharn
Commit their feehle offspring. Tromson.
To vindicate is a species of defence only in the moral sense of the word. Acts of importance are defended: those of trifling import are commonly vindicated. Cicero defended Milo against the charge of mur. der, in which he was implicated by the death of Clodius ; a child or a servant vindicates himself when any blame is attached to him. Defence is employed either in matters of opinion or conduct; vindicate only in matters of conduct. Some opinions are too absurd to be openly defend. ed; he who vindicates the conduct of another should be fully satisfied of the innocence of the person whom he defends.
While we can easily defond onr character, we are no more disturbed at an accusation, than we are alarmed by an encmy whom we are sure to conquer.

Johnson.
In this poem (the Epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot) Pope seems to reckon with the public. Ho aire
dicates himself from censures, and, with dignity ratber than arrogance, enforces bis own claima to kindness and respect.

Johnaon.

## DEFENDANT, DEFENDER.

The DEFENDANT defends himself $(v$. To defend): the DEFENDER defends another. We are defendants when any charge is hrought against us which we wish to refute: we are defenders when we undertake to rebut or refute the charge brought against any person or thing.
Of what consequence could it be to the canse whether the connsellor did or did not know the defendant:

Smollett.
The abbot of Paisley was a warm partisan of France, and a zealous dejender of the established religion.

Robertion.

## DEFENDER, ADVOCATE, PLEADFR.

A DEFENDER exerts himself in favor of one that wants support: an ADVOCATE, from the Latin advoco, to call or speak for, signifies one who is called to speak in favor of another; he exerts himself in favor of any cause that offers: a PLEADER, from plea or excuse, signifies him who pleads in behalf of one who is accused or in distress. A defender attempts to keep off a threatened injury by rebutting the attack of another: an advocate states that which is to the advantage of the person or thing advocated: a pleader throws in pleas and extenuations; he bleuds entreaty with argument. Oppressed or accuscd persons and disputed opinions require defenders; that which falls in with the humors of men will always have advocates; the unfortunate and the guilty require pleaders.

But the time was now come when Warburton was to cbange his opinion, and Pope was to find a defender in him who had contributed so much to the exaltation of his rival.

Jonnaon.
It is said that some endeavors were used to incense the Queen against Savage, but he found advocates to obviate at least part of their effect. Johnson.
He thought he was bound to justify the court In all debates in the House of Lords, whicb he did with the vehemence of a pleader rather than with the solemnity of a senator.

Burnet.
The term pleader is used sometimes, like that of defender, in the general sense. Valeria and Volumnia, the mother and wife of Coriolanus, were powerful and successful pleaders in behalf of the Roman republic.

So fair a pleader any cause may gain.
Daydex
DEFENSIBLE, DEFENSIVE.
DEFENSIBLE is employed for the thing that is to be defended; DEFENSIVE for the thing that defends. An opinion or a line of conduct is defensible; a weapon or a military operation is defensive. The defensible is opposed to the indefensible; and the defensive to the of. fensive. It is the height of folly to attempt to defend that which is indefensible; it is sometimes prudent to act on the defensive, when we are not in a condition to commence the offensive.

> Impressing is only defensible from public necessity, to which all private considerations mnat give way.
> blaczatone.
> A king, circumstanced as the present (king of France), has no generous interest that can excite him to action. At best his coudnct will be passive and defensive.

> Burie.

## DEFINITE, POSITIVE.

DEFINITE, in Latin definitum, participle of definio, compounded of $d e$ and finis, signifies that which is bounded by a line or limit. POSITIVE, in Latin positivus, from pono, to place, signifies that which is placed or fixed.

Definite signifies that which is defined, or has the limits drawn or marked out; positive that which is placed or fixed in a particular manner: definite is said of things as they present themselves or are presented to the mind, as a definite idea, a definite proposal ; positive is said of a person's temper of mind; a person is positive as to his opinions, or an assurance is positive which serves to make one positive. In respect to a man's self, his views ought to be definite to prevent him from being misled, but he ought not to be positive in matters that admit of doubt. In respect to others, the more definitc the instructions which are given, the less danger there is of mistake; the more positive the information communicated, the greater the reliance which is placed upon it.
We are not able to judge of the degree of conviction which operated at any particular time npon our own thonghts, but as it is recorded by some certain and definite effect. Jonnson.

The Earl Rivers being now, in his own opinlon, on his death-bed, thought it his duty to pro.

Tide for Savage among his other natural children, and therefore demanded a positive account of him.

JOLINSON.

## DEFINITION, EXPLANATION.

A DEFINITION is properly a species of EXPLANATION. The former is used scientifically, the latter on ordinary occasions; the former is confined to words, the latter is employed for words or things. A definition is eorrect or precise; an explanation is general or ample. The definition of a word defines or limits the extent of its signification; it is the rule for the scholar in the use of any word: the explanation of a word may include both definition and illustration : the former admits of no more words than will include the leading features in the meaning of any term; the latter admits of an unlimited scope for diffuseness on the part of the explainer.

As to politeness, many have attempted definitions of it; I helieve it is best to he known by description, definition not being able to comprise it.

Lord Chatham.
If yon are forced to desire further information or explanation upon a point, do it with proper apeiogies for the trouble you give.

Lord Chatham.

## DEITY, DIVINITY.

DEITY, from dous, a god, signifies a divine person. DIVINITY, from divinus, signifies the divine essence or power; the deities of the heathens had little of divinity in them; the divinity of our Saviour is a fundamental article in the Christian faith.

The first original of the drama was religious worship, consistiag only of a chorus, which was nothing else but a hymn to a deity. AdDison.

Why shrinks the soul
Back on herself, and startles at destruction?
'Tis the divinity that stirs within us. Addison.

## DEJECTION, DEPRESSION, MELANOHOLY.

DEJECTION, from dejicio, to cast down, and DEPRESSION, from deprimo, to press or sink down, have both regard to the state of the animal spirits. MELANCHOLY, from the Greek $\mu \varepsilon \lambda a \gamma \chi^{0} \lambda \iota \alpha$, black bile, regards the state of the humors in general, or of the particular humor called the bile.

Dejection and depression are occasional,
and depend on ontward circumstances; melancholy is permanent, and lies in ths constitution. Depression is but a degree of dejection: slight circumstances may occasion a depression; distressing events occasion a dejection: the death of a near and dear relative may be expected to produce dejection in persons of the greatest equanimity; lively tempers are most liable to depressions; melancholy is a disease which nothing but clear views of religion can possibly correct.
So bursting frequent from Atrides' breast,
Siglis following sighs his inward fears confest ; Now o'er the fields dejected he surveys
From thonsand Trojan fres the mountain blaze.
Pope.
I will only desire you to allow me that Hector was in an absolute certainty of death, and depressed over and ahove with the conscience of being in an ill canse.

Pope.
I have read somewhere in the history of ancient Greece that the women of the conntry were seized with an nnacconntable melancholy, which disposed several of them to make away with themsclves.

Addison.
TO DELAY, DEFER, POSTPONL, PROCRASTINATE, PROLONG, PROTRACT, RETARD.
DELAY, compounded of de and lay, signifies to lay or keep back. DEFER, compounded of $d e$ and fer, in Latin fero, signifies to put off. POSTPONE, componnded of post and pone, from the Latin pono, to place, signifies to place behind or after. PROCRASTINATE, from pro, for, and cras, to-morrow, signifies to take to-morrow instead of to-day. PROLONG signifies to lengthen out the time, and PROTRACT to draw out the time. RETARD, from re, intensive, and tardum, slow, to make a thing go slow.

To delay is simply not to commence action; to defer and postpone are to fix its commencement at a more distant period: we may delay a thing for days, hours, and minutes; we defer or postpone it for months or weeks. Delays mostly arise from the fault of the person delaying; they are seldom reasonable or advantageous: deferring and postponing are discretionary acts, which are justified by the circumstances; indolent people are most prone to delay; wben a plan is not maturely digested, it is prudent to defer its execution until everything is in an entire state of preparation. Procrastina
tion is a culpable delay arising solely from the fault of the procrastinator: it is the part of a dilatory man to procrastirate that which it is both his interest and duty to perform.

## At thirty man snspects himself a fool, <br> Knows it at forty, and reforms his plan; <br> At fifty chides his infamone delay. Youno.

Never diefer that till to-morrow which you can do to-day.

Budgell.
When I postponed to another snmmer my jonrney to England, could I apprebend that I never shonld see her again?

Gibbon.
Procrastination is the thief of time. Yodno.
We delay the execution of a thing; we prolong or protract the continuation of a thing; we retard the termination of a thing: we may delay answering a letter, prolong a contest, protract a lawsuit, and retard a publication.

From thee hoth old and young with profit learn The bounds of good and evil to discern: Unhappy he who does this work adjourn, And to to-morrow would the search delay; His lazy morrow will be like to-day. Dnyden. Perhaps great Hector then had found his fate, But Jove and destiny prolonged his date.

Pope.
To this Enryalns: "You plead in vain, And but protract the cause you cannot gain."

Vinoll. I see the layers then
Of mingled moulds of more retentive earths, That, while the stealing moisture they transmit, Retard its motion and forbid its waste.

Thombon.
to delegate, depute-delegate, DEPUTY.

DELEGATE, in Latin delegatus, from delego, signifies to send on a mission; DEPUTE, from deputo, to assign a business to. To delegate is applied to the power or office which is given ; depute to the person employed. Parents delegate their office to the instructor; persons are deputed to act for others.

## But this,

And all the much transported muse can sing, Are to thy beauty, dignity, and nse, Unequal far, great delegated source Of light, and life, and grace, and joy below.

Thomeon.
The assembling of persons deputed from people at great distances is a trouble to them that are sent, and a charge to them that send.

Temple.
As nouns, delegate and deputy are applied only to persons. The delegate is
the person commissioned, who is bound to act according to bis commission; the deputy is the person deputed, who acts in the place of another, but may act according to his own discretion or otherwise, as circumstances require. A delegate is mostly chosen in public matters and on particular occasions: as delegates sent from a besieged town to the camp of the besiegers; deputies are those who are $d \theta$ puted to act officially and regularly for others; as deputies sent to any public assembly.

Let chosen delegates this hour be sent, Myself will name them, to Pelides' tent. Pope.

Every member (of parliament), though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm ; and therefore he ia not bound, like a deputy in the United Provinces, to consult with his constituents on any particular point.

Blackstone.

## DELIGHTFUL, CHARMING.

DELIGHTFUL is applied either to material or spiritual objects; CHARMING mostly to objects of sense. When they both denote the pleasure of the sense, delightful is not so strong an ex. pression as charming: a prospect may be delightful or charming; but the latter rises to a degree that carries the senses away captive. Of music we should rather say that it was charming than delightfull, as it acts on the senses in so powerful a manner: on the other hand, we should with more propriety speak of a delightful employment to relieve distress, or a delightful spectacle to see a family living together in love and harmony.

Though there are several of those wild scenes that are more delightful than any artificial ahows, yet we find the works of nature atill more pleassint the more they resemble those of art.

ADDISON.
Nothing can be more magnificent than the figure Jupiter makes in the frst Iliad, nor more charming than that of Venus in the first Aneid.

ADDIGON:

## TO DELINEATE, SKETCH.

DELINEATE, in Latin delineatus, participle of delineo, signifies literally to draw the lines which include the contents. SKETCH is in Italian schizzo, French esquisse, German skizze, which is connected with the words shoot and squirt; schizzare is in Italian to squirt.

Both these terms are properiy employ.
ed in the art of drawing, and figuratively applied to moral subjecta to express a apecies of descriptions: a delineation expresses somethiog more than s sketch; the former conveying not merely the genersl outlines or more prominent features, but also as much of the details as would aerve to form a whole; the latter, however, seldom contsins more than some brosd touches, by which an imperfect ides of the subject ia conveyed. A delineation, therefore, may be characterized as sccurate, and a sketch as hasty or imperfect: an sttentive observer who has passed some years in a country may be ensbled to give an accurate delineation of the laws, customs, manners, snd character of its inbabitanta; a traveller who merely passes through can give only a hasty sketch from what passes before his eyes.

When the Spaniards first arrived in America, expresses were sent to the emperor of Mexico in paint, and the news of his country delinaated by the strokes of a pencil.

Addison.
Sketch out a rough draught of my country, that I may be able to judge whether a return to it be really eligible.

Attergury.

## to deliver, rescue, save.

DELIVER, in French délivrer, from the Latin de and libero, signifies to make free. RESCUE, in old French rescous, comes from rescourrir, to recover. SAVE signifiee literally to make safe.
The ides of taking or keeping from any evil is common to these terms; but to deliver and rescue signify most properly to take, and save to kecp from evil. To deliver is a genersl term, not defining either the mode or objeet of the sction. One may be delivered from any evil, whether great or small, snd in sny manner: to rescue is to deliver from a great impending danger or immediate evil; as to reseue from the hands of robbers, or from the jaws of a wild besst.

[^39]active or psssive meana. A person ls delivered from the hands of an enemy by force or stratagem: be saves his life by flying.
In our greatest fears and troubles we may ease our hearts by reposing ourselves upon God, in confidence of his support and deliverance.

## Tillonson.

Now shameful flight alone can save the host, Our blood, our treasure, and our glory lost.

POPE.

## DELIVERANCE, DELIVERY,

Are drawn from the same verb (v. To deliver), to express its different senses of taking from or giving to: the formor denotes the taking aomething from onc's self; the latter implies giving something to another. To wish for a DELIVERANCE from that which is hurtful or painful is to a cortain extent justifiable: the careful DELIVERY of property into the bands of the owner will be the first object of concern with a faithful agent.
Whate'er befalls, your life shall be my care, One death, or one deliverance, we will share.

Daydex.
With our Saxon ancestors the delivery of a turf wus a necessary solemnity to establish the conveyance of lands.

Blackstone.
TO DEMAND, REQUIRE.
DEMAND, v. To ask. REQUIRE, in Latin requiro, compounded of $r e$ and qucero, signifies to seek for or to seek to get bsck.

We demand thst which is owing and ought to be given; we require that which we wish snd expect to have done. A demand is more positive than a requisition; the former properly admits of no question; the latter is liable to be both questioned and refused: the creditor makes a demand on the debtor; the master requires a certain portion of duty from his servsut : it is unjust to demand of a person what be has no right to give; it is unressonable to require of him what it is not in his power to do. A thing is commonly demanded in express words; it is required by implication: a person domands admittance when it is not voluntarily granted; he requires respectful deportment from those who are subordinate to him.
Hear, all ye Trojans! all ye Grecian bands,
What Paris, author of the war, demands. Pops.

## DEMUR

Now, hy my sov'relgn and his fate I swear, Renown'd for faith in peace, and force in war, Oft our alliance other lands desir'd, And what we seek of you, of us requir'd.

Dryden.
In the figurative application the same sense is preserved: things of urgency and moment demand immediate attention ; difficult matters require a steady attention.

Surely the retrospect of life and the extirpation of lusts and appetites deeply rooted and widely spread may be allowed to demand some secession from husiness and folly. Jounaon.
Oh then how blind to all that truth requires, Who think it freedom when a part aspires!

Goldsmith.

## TO DEMOLISH, RAZE, DISMANTLE, DESTROY.

The throwing down what has been built up is the common idea included in all these terms. DEMOLISH, from the Latin demolior, and moles, a mass or structure, signifies to decompound what has been fabricated into a mass. RAZE, like erase ( $v$. To blot out), signifies the making smooth or even with the ground. DISMANTLE, in French démanteler, signifies to deprive a thing of its mantle or guard. DESTROY, from the Latin destruo, compounded of the privative de and struo, to build, signifies properly to pull down.

A fabric is demolished by scattering all its component parts; it is mostly an unlicensed act of caprice; it is razed by way of punishment, as a mark of public vengeance; a fortress is dismantled from motives of prudence, in order to render it defenceless; places are destroyed by various means and from various motives, that they may not exist any longer. Individuals may demolish; public authority causes an edifice to be razed with the ground; a general orders towers to be dismantled and fortifications to be destroyed.
From the demolish'd tow'rs the Trojans throw
Huge heaps of stones, that falling crush the foe.
Dryden,
Great Diomede has compass'd ronnd with walls The city which Argyripa he calls,
From lis own Argos nam'd; we touch'd with joy The royal hand that raz' $d$ unhappy Troy.

Dryden.
$0^{*}$ er the drear spot see desolation spread,
And the dismantled walls in ruins lie. Moore.

We, for myself I speak, and all the name of Gfecians, who to Troy'a destruction came, Not one but suffered and too dearly bought The prize of honor which in arms he aought.

Dbydex
to demur, hesitate, pause.
DEMUR, in French demeurer, Latin demorari, signifies to keep back. HESITATE, in Latin hesitatum, participle of hoesito, a frequentative from hareo, signifies to stick or remain a long time back. PAUSE, in Latin pausa, from the Greek $\pi a v \omega$, to cease, signifies to make a stand.

The idea of stopping is common to these terms, to which signification is added some distinct collateral idea for each: we demur from doubt or difficulty; we hesitate from an undecided state of mind; we pause from circumstances. Demurring is a matter of prudence, it is always grounded on some reason; hesitating is rather a matter of feeling, and is oftener faulty than otherwise: when a proposition appears to be unjust, we demur in supporting it, on the ground of its injustice; when a request of a dubious nature is made to us, we hesitate in complying with it: prudent people are most apt to demur; but people of a wavering temper are apt to hesitate: demurring may be often unnecessary, but it is seldom injurious; hesitating is mostly injurious when it is not necessary. Demurring and hesitating are both employed as acts of the mind; pausing is an external action: we demur and hesitate in determining; we pause in speaking or doing anything.

In order to hanish an cvil put of the world that does not only produce great uneasiness to private persons, hut has also a very bad influence on the public, I shall endeavor to show the folly of demurring.

Adnison.
I want no solicitations for me to comply where it would he ungenerous for me to refuse; for can I hesitute a moment to take upon myself the protection of a daughter of Correllins?

Melmota's Letters df Pliny.
Think, oh think,
And ere thon plunge into the vast abyss, Pause on the verge awhile, look down and see Thy future mansion.

Porteds.

## DEMUR, DOUBT, HESITATION, OBJECTION.

DEMUR, v. To demur. DOUBT, in Latin dubito, from duo and ito, or eo, to go, signifies to go two ways. HESITA.

TION, v. To demur. OBJECTION, from objicio, or ob and jacio, to throw in the way, aignifies what is thrown in the way so as to stop our progress.

Demurs often occur in matters of deliberation; doubt in regard to matters of fact; hesitation in matters of ordinary conduct; and objections in matters of common consideration. Artabanes made many demurs to the proposed invasion of Groece by Xerxes.

Certainiy tho highest and greatest concerns of a temporal life are infinitely less valuable than those of an oternal, and consequently ought, without any demur ait all, to be eacrificed to them, whenever they come in competition with them.

Souta.
Doubta have bean suggested reapectIng the veraoity of Herodotus as a historian.

Our doubts are traitors, And make us lose, by fearing to attempt, The good we oft might win. Shazepeare.

It is not propar to ask that whioh oannot be granted without hesitation; and it is not the part of an amiahle disposition to make a hesitation in complying with a reasonable request.

A spirit of revenge makes him curse the Greolans, in the seventh book, wheu they hesitato to accept Hector's chellenge.

Pope,
Thare are but few thlngs whlch we elther attampt to do or recommend to others that are not liable to soms kind of an objection.

When that lord perplexed their councila and designs with inconventent objeotions in law, the anthority of the Lord Mancheeter was still called upon.

Clarendon.
A demur stops the adjustment of any plan or the determination of any question.
But with rejoinders end replies,
Long bills, and enswers atuff'd with lies, Demour, imparlance, and essoin,
The parties ne'er conld issue joln.
Swift.
A doubt interrupta the progress of the mind in coming to a state of satisfaction and certainty.

This eceptical proceeding will make every sort of reasoning on every subject vain and frivolous, even that sceptical reasoning itself which has persuaded us to entertain a doubt concerning the agreement of our perceptions.

Bures.
They are both applied to abatract questions, or such as are of general in-
terest. Hesitation and objection are more individual and private in their nature Hesitation lies mostly in the state of the will; objection is rather the offspring of the underatanding. A hesitation interfercs with the action; an objection affects the measure or the mode of action.

If every man were wiae and virtuous, capable to discern the beat use of time, and regolute to practige it, it might be grented, I think, withous hesitation, that total liberty would be a blessing.

Johneon,
Lloyd was alway日 ralaing objections and ramoving them. Johnson.

## TO DENOTE, BIGNIFY.

DENOTE, in Latin denoto or noto, from notum, participle of nosco, signifiea to cause to know. SIGNIFY, from the Latin signum, a sign, and fio, to become, 1 . to become or be made a sign, or guide for the understanding.

Denote is employed with regard to things and their characters; signify with regard to the thoughts or movements, A latter or charaoter may be made to $d \theta$ note any number, as words are made to signify the intentions and wishes of the parson. Among the ancient Egyptians hieroglyphics ware very much employed to denote certain moral qualitles; in many cases looks or actions will signify more than words. Dovices and em blema of different descriptions, drawn either from fabulous history or the natu. ral world, are likewise now employed to denote particular circumatancea or qualities: the cornucopia denotes plenty; the bee-hive denotes industry; the dove denotes meekness, and the lamb gentlenesa: he who will not take the trouble to signify his wishes otherwies than by nods or aigas muat expect to be frequeatly misunderstood.

Another may do the seme thing, and get the action want that air and beauty which distinguish it from others, like that inimitable sunshine Titian is said to have diffused over bia iondscapes, which denotes them his. Spectator,
Simple abotract words are used to aignify soune one simple idea, without much adverting to others which may chance to attend it. Burer.

TO DENY, REFUSE.
DENY, in Latin denego, or nego, that is ne or non and ago, signifies to say no to a thing; or ne and ego, i. e., not $I_{\text {, }}$ in
the same sense. REFUSE, in Latin refusus, from re and fundo, to pour or cast, signifies to throw off or from one.

To deny respects matters of fact or knowledge; to refuse matters of wish or request. We deny what immediately relates to ourselves; we refuse what relates to another. We deny as to the past; we refuse as to the future: we deny our participation in that which has been; we refuse our participation in that which may be: to deny must always be expressly verbal; a refusal may sometimes be signified by actions or looks as well as words. A denial affects our veracity; a refusal affects our good-nature.

## You charge me

That I have blown this coal; I do deny it.
Shakspeare.
0 aire of gods and meo! thy suppliant hear ; Refuse or grant; for what has Jove to fear?

Pope.
To deny is sometimes applied to matters of gratification, and in that sense may be used indifferently for refuse, particularly in poetry.
Jove to his Thetis nothing could deny,
Nor was the signal vain that shook the sky.
Pope.
But to deny signifies in this case simply to withhold; and refuse signifies to cast off from one, which is a more positive act: to deny one's self a pleasure is simply to abstain from it; but to refuse one's food is to cast it from one with a positive indisposition. What is denied may be denied by circumstances, or by Providence ; and it may be denied to one, many, or all ; but what is refused is refused by and to particular individuals.

Inquire you how these pow'rs we ahall attain ?
'Tis not for us to know ; our search is vain: Dan any one remember or relate
How he existed in the emhryo state?
That light's denied to him which others see, He knows perhapa you'll say-and so do we.

Jenyna,
I utterly abhor, yea, from my aonl
Refure yon for my jndge.
Shakspeare.

## DEPENDENCE, RELIANCE.

DEPENDENCE, from depend, or de and pend, in Latin pendo, to hang from, signifies literally to rest one's weight by hanging from that which is held. RELY, compounded of $r e$ and $l y$ or lie, aigulfies likewise to rest one's weight by
lying or hanging back from the object held.
Dependence is the general term; reliance is a species of dependence: we depend either on persons or things; we rely on persons oaly: dependence serves for that which is immediate or remote; reliance serves for the future only. We depend upon a perzon for that which we are obliged to receive or led to expect from him: we rely upon a person for that which he has given us reason to expect from him. Dependence is an outward condition or the state of external circumstances; reliance is a state of the feelings with regard to others. We depend upon God for all that we have or shall have; we rely upon the word of man for that which he has promised to perform. We may depend upon a person's coming from a variety of causes; but we rely upon it ouly in reference to his avowed intention.

A man who uses his best endeavore to live according to the dictates of virtue and right reason has two perpetual sources of cheerfulness, in the consideration of his own nature, and of that Being on whom he has a dependence. Annison.
The tender twig shoots upward to the skies, And on the faith of the new sun relies.

Dayden.

## TO DEPLORE, LAMENT.

DEPLORE, in Latin deploro, that is, ds and ploro, or plango, to give signs of distress with the face or mouth. LAMENT, v. To bewail.

Deplore is a much stronger expression than lament; the former calls forth tears from the bitterness of the heart; the latter excites a cry from the warmth of feeling. Deploring indicates despair; to lament marks only pain or distress. Among the poor we have deplorable instances of poverty, ignorance, vice, and wretchedness combined; among the higher classes we have often lamentable instances of extravagance and consequent ruin. A field of battle or a city overthrown by an earthquake is a spectacle truly deplorable: it is lamentable to see beggars putting on all the disguises of wretchedness in order to obtain by deceit what they might earn by honest industry. The condition of a dying man suffering under the agonies of an awakaned conscience is deplorable; the sity.
ation of the relative or friend who witnesses the agony, without being able to afford consolation to the sufferer, is truly lamentable.

The wounds they wash'd, their pious tears they shed,
Aad, laid along thair oars, deplor'd the dcad.
YOPE.
But let not chief the njghtingala lament
Her ruin'd care, too delicately fram'd
「o brook tha harah confinement of tha cage.
Tномяо .

## DEPONENT, EVIDENCE, WITNESE.

DEPONENT, from depono, to lay down or set forth, signifies he who declares or substantiates anything. The EVIDENCE, from evident, is that which makes evident; and the WITNESS, from the Saxon witan, to know, signifies be who makes known.

All these words are properly applied to judicial proceedings, where the deponent deposes generally to facts cither in causes or otherwise : the evidenee consists either of persons or things, which are brought before the court for the purpose of making a doubtful matter clear; the witness is always a person who bears witness to any fact for or against another.

The pleader having spoke his best, And witnsss ready to attest;
Who fairly could on oath depose,
When questions on tha fact arose,
That ev'ry article was true,
Nor further these deponents knew. Swifr.
Of the ovidence which appeared againat him (Savaga) the character of tha man was not uncxceptional; that of the woman notoriously infar mous. JOHNBON.
In case a woman be forcibly taken away and married, she may be a witness against her husband in order to convict him of felony.

Blackstone.
Evidence is applied to moral objeets, in the proper sense, and witness in the figurativo application.

By tha disorders that ensned we had clear anidence that there lurked a temper somewhere which ought not to be fostered by tha laws.

Bunke.
In every man's heart and consclence, religion has many wodnesses to its importance and reality.

Blain.

DTPPSIT, PLEDGE, BECURITY.
DEPOSIT is a gencral term, from the Latin depositus, participle of depono, sigvifying to lay down, or put into the hands
of another. PLEDGE comes probably from plico, signifying what engages, by a tie or cnvelope. SECURITY signifies that which makes secure.

The term deposit has most regard to the confidence we place in another; pledge has most regard to the security we give for ourselves; security is a species of pledge. A deposit is always voluntarily placed in the bands of an indifferent person; a pledge and security are required from the parties who are interested. A person may make a deposit for purposes of charity or convenience; bc gives a pledge or security for a temporary accommoda. tion, or the relief of a necessity. Money is deposited in the hands of a fricnd in order to execute a commission : a pledge is given as an equivalent for that which has been received: a security is given by way of security for the performance of some agreement. A deposit must consist of something movable, as money, papers, or jewels, which can be depositcd or placed in the hands of another. It may sometimes serve as a pledge or security where it is intended to bind the party depositing to anything. A pledge may, properly speaking, be anything which serves to pledge or bind a person by motives of intercst, affection, or honor; it may consist of anything which is given to another for that purpose. A security is whatever makes a person secure against a loss, and in the ordinary acceptstion consists of any instrument or written document which legally binds a person. In this sense, the person who binds himself for another becomes a security.

> John Doe was to become security for Richard Ros.

> Bunas.

These words are all applied in this sense to moral objects.

It is withont reason we praise the wisdom of our constitution, in putting under the discretion of the crown the awful trust of war and peace, if the ministers of the crown virtually retarn it again into our hands. The trust was placed there as a aacred deposit to secure us against popular rashness in plunging into wars.

BOREE.
These parments once were his, and left to me, The pledges of his promised loyalty. Dryoen.
Public debts, which at firat were a security to government, by intcresting many in the public tranquillity, are likely by their excess to become the means of their subversion.

Benes

DEPRAVITY, DEPRAVATION, CORRUPTION.

DEPRAVITY, from the Latin pravitas and pravus, in Greek parjoc, and the Hebrew ran or roo, crooked or not straight, marks the quality of being crooked. DEPRAVATION, in Latin depravatio, signifies a making crooked, or not as it should be. CORRUPTION, in Latin cormuptio, corrumpo, from rumpo, to break, marks the disunion and decomposition of the parts of anything.

All these terms are applied to objects which are contrary to the order of Providence, but the term depravity characterizes the thing as it is; the terms depravation and corruption designate the making or causing it to be so ; depravity, therefore, excludes the idea of any cause; depravation always carries us to the cause or external agency : hence we may speak of depravity as natural, but we speak of depravation as the result of circumstances: there is a depravity in man which nothiog but the grace of God can correct; the introduction of obscenity on the stage tends greatly to the depravation of morals ; bad company tends to the corruption of a young man's morals.

Nothing can show greater depravity of understanding than to delight in the show when the reality is wanting. Johnson.
The corruption of our taste is not of equal consequence with the depravation of our virtue.

Warton.
Depravity or depravation implies crookedness, or a distortion from the regular course; corruption implies a dissolution, as it were, in the component parts of bodies. Cicero says (2 de Finibus) that depravity is applicable ooly to the mind and heart ; but we say a depraved taste, and depraved humors in regard to the body. A depraved taste loathes common food, and longs for that which is unnatural and hurtful. Corruption is the natural process by which material substances are disorganized. In the figurative application of these terms they preserve the same signification. Depravity is characterized by being directly opposed to order, and an established system of things; corruption marks the vitiation or spoiling of things, and the ferment that leads to destruction. Depravity turns things out
of their ordinary course; corruption de. stroys their essential qualities. Depravity is a vicious state of things, in which all is deranged and pervertcd; corruption is a vicious state of things, in which all is sullied and polluted. That which is depraved loses its proper manner of acting and existing; that which is corrupted loses its virtue and essence.

The depravation of human will was followed by a disorder of the harmony of nature.

Johnaon.
We can diacover that where there is universal innocence tbere will probably be universal happincss ; for why should afflictions be permitted to infest beinge who are not in danger of corruption from blessinga?

Johnaon.
That is a depraved state of morals in which the gross vices are openly practised in defiance of all decorum: that is a corrupt state of society in which vice has secretly insinuated itself into all the principles and babits of men, and concealed its deformity under the fair semblance of virtue and honor. The manners of sav. ages are most likely to be depraved; those of civilized nations to be corrupt, when luxury and refinement are risen to an excessive pitch. Cannibal nations present us with the picture of human depravity; the Roman nation, during the time of the emperors, affords us an example of almost universal corruption.
The greatest difflculty that occurs in analyzing his (Swift's) character, is to discover by what $d e$ pravity of intellect he took delight in revolving ideas from which almost every other mind abrinks with disgust.

Johnson.
Peace is the happy natural state of man;
War his corruption, his disgrace. Tномао,
From the above observations it is clear that depravity is best applied to those objects to which common usage has annexed the epithets of right, regular, fine, etc.; and corruption to those which may be characterized by the epithets of sound, pure, innocent, or good. Hence we pre fer to say depravity of mind and corrup tion of heart; depravity of principle and corruption of seatiment or feeling: a de praved character; a corrupt example; a corrupt influence.
No depravity of the mind has been more freqnently or justly censured than ingratitude.

Johnson
I have remarked in a former paper that credu lity is the common failing of inexperienced virtue
and that he who is spontaneously suspicious may be Justly cbarged with radical corruption.

Joznson.
In reference to the arts or belles-lettres we alay either depravity or corruption of taste, because taste has ita rules, is liable to be disordered, is or is not conformable to natural order, is regular or irregular; and on the other hand, it may be so intermingled with sentiments and feelings foreign to ita own native purity as to give it justly the title of corrupt. The last thing worthy of notice respecting the two words depravity and corruption, is that the former is ueed for man in his moral capacity, but the latter for man in a political capacity: hence we speak of human depravity, but the corruption of government.

The depravity of mankind is so easily discoverable, that nothing but the desert or the cell can exclude it from notice.

Jomnson.
Every government, say the politicians, is perpetually degenerating toward oorruption.

Johnson.

## DEPREDATION, ROBBERY.

DEPREDATION, in Latin deproedatio, from proda, a prey, conveys the idea of taking by way of prey. ROBBERY, in Saxon reaf, low German roof, high German rauf, from the low German rupper, answering to the Latin rapio, to snatch, signifies snatching or taking suddenly and with force. Both these words denote the taking what belongs to another, but differ in the circumstances of the action. Depredation is not so lawlesa an act as robbery; it may be excused if not justified by the laws of war or the hostile situation of parties to each other. The borderers on the confines of England and Scotland used to commit depredations on each other. Robbery is in divect violation of every law, it is committed only by those who aet all laws at defiance. Depredations may be committed in any manner short of direct violence ; those who commit depredations do so mostly in the absence of those on whom they are committed: robberies are commonly committed on the person, and mostly accompanied with violence. Depredation taken absolutely refers us to that which the depredator gains or gets to himself by the act; robbery refers us to that which the person loses who is $r a b b e d:$ the one goes away loaded
with his plunder, the other goes away stripped of that which is moat valuable to him.

As the delay of making war may sometimes be detrimental to individuals who have suffered by depredations from foreign potentates, our laws have, in some respects, armed the subject with powers to impel the prerogative, by directing the ministers to issue letters of marque.

Blackstone.
From all this, what is my inference? That thie new system of robbery in France cannot be rendered safe by any art.

Buake.
In the extended application of these worda thia diatinction is kept up; birds commit depredations on cornfielda, beea rob flowera of their honey.
They choose those places that are remotest from man, upon whose possessions they but seldom make their depredations. Goldshith.

He (the kite) lives in summer by robbing the nests of other birds.

GoLDsmith.

## TO DEPRIVE, DEBAR, ABRIDGE.

DEPRIVE, from de and prive, in Latin privus, one's own, signifies to make not one's own what one has or expecte to have. DEBAR, from de and bar, aignifies to prevent by means of a bar. ABRIDGE, $v$. To abridge.

Deprive conveya the idea of either taking away that which one has, or withholding that which one may have; debar conveys the idea only of withholding; abridge conveys that alao of taking away. Depriving is a coercive measure; debar and abridge are merely acts of authority. We are deprived of that which is of the firgt necessity; we are debarred of privileges, enjoyments, opportunitiea, etc.; we are abridged of comforts, pleasurea, conveniences, etc. Criminals are deprived of their liberty; their friends are in extraors dinary cases debarred the privilege of aeeing them; thus men are ofteo abridged of their conforts in consequence of their own faults. Deprivation and debarring sometimes arise from thinga as well as persons; abridging is always the voluntary act of conscious agents. Religion teaches men to be resigned under the aeverest deprivations; it is painful to be debarred the society of those we love, or to abridge others of any advantage which they have been in the babit of enjoying.

Of what small moment to your real happiness are many of those injuries which draw forth yow
resentmant ? Can they deprive you of peace of coascience, of the satisfaction of having acted a right part? Blair.
Active and masculine spirits, in the vigor of youth, neither can nor ought to remain at rest. If they debar themselves frum aiming at a noble object, their desires will move downward.

Haodes.
The personal liberty of individuals in this kingdom cannot ever be $a b$ ridgad at the mere discretion of the magistrate.

Blacesione.
When used as reflective verhs, they preserve the same analogy in their signification. An extravagant person deprives himself of the power of doing good. A person may debar himself of any pleasure from particular motives of prudence. A miser abridges himself of every enjoyment in order to gratify his ruling passion.

## DEPTH, PROFUNDITY.

DEPTH, from deep, dip, or dive, the Greek dutтw, and the Hebrew tabang, to dive, signifies the point under water which requires to be dived for in order to be arrived at. PROFUNDITY, from profound, in Latin profundus, componnded of pro or procul, far, and fundus, the bottom, signifies remoteness from the lower surface of anything.

These terms do not differ merely in their derivation; but depth is indefinite in its signification; and profundity is a positive and considerable degree of depth. Moreover, the word depth is applied to objects in general ; profundity is confined in its application to moral objects: thus we speak of the depth of the sea, or the depth of a person's learning; but his profiundity of thought.

By these two passions of hope and fear, we reach forward into futurity, and bring up to our present thoughts objects that lie in the remotest depths of tine.

Addizon.
The peroser of Swift will want very little previous knowledge: it will be sufficient tbat he is acquainted with common words and common things; he is neither reqnired to mount elevations nor to explore profundities. Joinson.

## DERANGEMENT, INSANITY, LUNACY, madness, mania.

DERANGEMENT, from the verh to derange, implies the first stage of disordered intellect. INSANITY, or unsoundness, implies positive disease, which is more or less permanent. LUNACY is a violent sort of insanity, which was sup-
posed to be influenced by the moon. MADNESS and MANIA, from the Greek $\mu a \iota \nu о \mu a$, to rage, imply insanity or lunacy in its most furious and confirmed stage. Deranged persons may sometimes be perfectly sensible in everything but particular subjects. Insane persons are sometimes entirely restored. Iunatics have their lucid intervals, and maniacs their intervals of repose. Derangement may sometimes be applied to the temporary confusion of a disturbed mind, which is not in full possession of all its faculties; madness may sometimes be the result of violently inflamed passions: and mania may be applied to any vehement attachment which takes possession of the mind.

It is in the highest degree improbable, and I know' not indeed whether it hath ever been tha fact, that the same derangement of the mental organs should seize different persons at the same time; a derangement, I mean, so much the same as to represcut to their imaginations the same objects.

Paley.
Perhaps it might be no absurd or vareasonabla regulation in the legislature to divest all lunatice of the privilege of insanity, and in cases of enormity to subject them to the common penalties of the law.

Smollett.
A lunatic is indeed sometimes merry, but the merry lunatic is never kind. Hawaesworth.

The consequences of murder committed by a manitc may be as pernicious to society as those of the most criminal and deliberate assassination.

Smollett.
Tha locnrootive mania of an Englishman circulates his person, and of conrse his cash, into every quarter of the kingdom. Combealand.

## TO DERIDE, MOCK, RIDICULE, RALLY, BANTER.

DERIDE, compounded of $d e$ and the Latin rideo; and RIDICULE, from rideo, both signify to laugh at. MOCK, in French moquer, Dutch mocken, Greek $\mu \omega \kappa \pi \omega$, signifies likewise to laugh at. RALLY is in French rallier, and BANTER is possibly from the French badiner, to jest.

Strong expressions of contempt are designated by all these terms. Derision and mockery evince theinselves by the outward actions in general ; ridieule consists more in words than actions; rallying and bantering almost entirely in words. Deride is not so strong a term as mock, but much stronger than ridicule. There is always a mixture of hostility in derision and mockery; but ridicule is frequently
anaccompanied with any personal feeling of displeasure. Derision is often deep, not loud; it discovers itself in suppressed laughter, contemptuous sneers or geaticulationa, and cutting expressions: mockery is moatly noisy and outrageous; it breaks forth in insulting buffioonery, and is sometimes accompanied with personal violence: the former consiats of real but contemptuous laughter; the latter often of affected langhter and grimace. Derision and mockery are always persoaal; ridicule may be directed to things as well as persons Derision and mockery are a direct attack on the individual, the latter sull more so than the former; ridicule is as often uaed in writing as in personal intercourse.

Satan beheld their plight,
and to bis mates thus in derision call'd :
0 friends, why come not on those victors proud ?
Milton.
Impell'd with steps unceasing to pursue
some fleeting good that mocks me with the view.

Goldsmith.
Want is the scorn of every fool,
And wit in rags is turn'd to ridicule. Dryden.
Rally and banter, like derision and mockery, are altogether personal acts, in which application they are very analogous to ridicule. Ridicule is the moat general term of the three; we often rally and banter by ridiouling. There is more exposare in ridiculing; reproof in rallying; and provocation in bantering. A person may be ridiculed on account of his eccentricities; he is rallied for his defects; he is bantered for accidental circumstances: the two former actions are often justified hy some suhstantial reason; the latter is an actiou as puerile as it is unjust, it is a contemptible speciea of mockery. Self-conceit and extravagant follies are oftentimea hest corrected hy good-natured ridicule; a man may deserve sometimes to be rallied for his want of resolution; those who are of an ill-natured turn of mind will banter others for their misfortunes, or their personal defects, rather than not say something to their annoyance.

[^40]scribe, let it be manly and easy : if they ban ter your regularity, order, decency, and love of study, banter in return their neglect of it.

Chatray.
TO DERIVE, TRACE, DEDUCE.
DERIVE, from the Latin $d e$ and rivus, a river, signifies to draw, after the manner of water, from its source. TRACE, in Italian tracciare, Greek r $\rho \in \chi \omega$, to run, Hebrew darech, to go, aignifies to go hy a line drawn out, to follow the line. DE DUCE, in Latin deduco, signifies to bring from.
The idea of drawing one thing from another is included in all the actions designated hy these terms. The act of deriving is immediate and direct; that of tracing a gradual process; that of deduc. ing a ratiocinative process. We discover causes and sources by derivation; we discover the course, progress, and commencement of things by tracing; we discover the grounda and reasons of things by deduction. A person derives his name from a given source ; he traces his family up to a given period; principles or powers are deduced from circumatances or observations. The Trojans derivea ${ }^{\text {a }}$ the name of their city from Tros, a king of Phrygia; they traced the line of their kings up to Dardanus.

The kings among the heathens ever derived themselves or their ancestors from some god.

TEMPle.
Lorenzo ! hast thon ever weigh'd a sigh ?
Or studied the philosophy of tears?
(A science yet nnlectur'd in our schools !)
Hast thou descended deep into the breast
And seen their source? If not, descend winh me
And trace these briny rivalets to their spring. Yodno.
From the discovery of some natural authority may, perhaps, be deduced a truer original of all governments among men than from any contracts.

TEMPLE

## DESERT, MERIT, WORTH.

DESERT, from deserve, in Latin deservio, signifies to do service or be serviceable. MERIT, in Latin meritus, participle of mereor, comes from the Greek $\mu \epsilon \rho \omega$, to share, because he who merits anything has a right to share in it. WORTH, in German werth, is connected with vürde, dignity, and bürde, a burden, hecause one bears worth as a thing at tached to the person.

Desert is taken for that which is good or bad; merit for that which is good only. We deserve praise or blame : we merit a reward. Desert consists in the action, work, or service performed; merit has regard to the character of the agent or the nature of the action. A person does not deserve a recompense until he has performed some service; he does not merit approbation if he have not done his part well. Deserve is a term of ordinary import; merit applies to objects of greater moment: the former includes matters of personal and physical gratification; the latter those altogether of an intellectual nature. Criminals cannot always be punished according to their deserts; a noble mind is not contented with barely obtaining, it seeks to merit what it obtains.
The beanteons champion views with marks of fear,
Smit with a conscions sense, retires behind, And shuns the fate he well deserv' $d$ to find.

Praise from a friend or censure from a foe Are lost on hearers that onr merits know.

Pope.
The idea of value, which is prominent in the signification of the term merit, renders it closely allied to that of warth. Merit is that on which mankind set a value; it is sought for on account of the honor or advantages it brings: warth is that which is absolutely valuable; it must be sought for on its own account.

Use them after your own honor and dignity; the less they deserve, the more merit is in your bounty.

Shafbpeare.
To birth or office no respect be paid, Let worth determine here.

Pore.
From these words are derived the epithets deserved and merited, in relation to what we receive from others; and deserving, meritorious, worthy, and worth, in regard to what we possess in ourselves: a treatment is deserved or undeserved; reproofs are merited or unmerited: the harsh treatment of a master is easier to be borne when it is undeserved than when it is deserved; the reproaches of a friend are very severe when unmerited.

I received lately one of yours, which I cannot compare more properly than to a posy of curions flowers-only there was one fiower that did not savor so well, which was the undeserved
character you please to give of my small abilb ties.

Howell
Once more I mourn
Your fate unmerited.
Cowper
A laborer is deserving on account of his industry; an artist is meritorious on account of his professional abilities; a citizen is warthy on account of his benev. olence and uprightness. The first person deserves to be well paid and encouraged; the second merits the applause which is bestowed on him: the third is worthy of confidence and esteem from all men. Between warthy and worth there is this difference, that the former is said of intrinsic and moral qualities, the latter of extrinsic ones: a warthy man possesses that which calls for the esteem of others; but a man is worth the property which he can call his own: so in like manner a subject may be worthy the attention of a writer, or a thing may not be worth the while to consider.
A man bas frequent opportunities of mitigating the fierceness of a party, or doing jnstice to the character of a deserving man. ADdison.

When I speak of his bounty and humanity to his poor neighbors and dependents, in the connties where he resided, it is with pleasnre I insist on so meritorious a part of his character.

Cumbealand.
Tbough good-sense is not in the namber, nor clways, it must be owned, in the company of the sciences, yet is it (as the most sensible of poets has justly observed) fairly woorth the seven.

Pratt.
Then the last worthiss of declining Greece, Fate call'd to glory, in nnequal times, Pensive appear.

Thomson.

## DESIGN, PURPOSE, INTEND, MEAN.

DESIGN, from the Latin designare ${ }_{5}$ signifies to mark out as with a pen or pencil. PURPOSE, like prapose, comes from the Latin proposui, perfect of propano, signifying to set before one's mind as an object of pursuit. INTEND, in Latin intendo, to bend toward, signifies the bending of the mind toward an object. MEAN, in Saxon maenen, German, etc., meinen, is probably connected with the word mind, signifying to have in the mind.

Design and purpose are terms of higher import than intend and mean, which are in familiar use; the latter still more so than the former. A design embraces many objects; a purpose consists of only

## DESIGN

one: the former supposes something studied and methodical, it requires reflection: the latter supposes something fixed and determinatc, it requires resolution. A design is attainable; a purpose is steady. We speak of the design as it regards the thing conceived; we speak of the purpose as it regards the temper of the person. Men of a sanguine or aspiring character are apt to form designs which cannot be carried into execution ; whoever wishes to keep true to his purpose must not listen to many counsellors.
Jove honors me and favors my designs,
His pleasure guides me, and his will conflnes.
Proud as he is, that iron heart retains
His stubborn purpose, and his friends disdains.
Pope.
A purpose is the thing proposed or set before the mind; an intention is the thing to which the mind bends or inclines: purpose and intend differ, therefore, both in the nature of the action and the object; we purpose seriously; we intend vaguely: we set about that which we purpose; we may delay that which we have only intended: the execution of one's purpose rests mostly with one's self; the fulfilment of an intention depends upon circumstances: a man of a resolute temper is not to be diverted from his purpose by trifling objects: we may be disappointed in our intentions by a variety of unforeseen but uncontrollable events. Purpose is always applied to some proximate or definite object ; intend to that which is indefinite or remote. Mean, which is a term altogether of colloquial use, differs but little from intend, except that it is used for matters requiring but little thought; to mean is simply to have in the mind, to intend is to stretch with the mind to a thing.
And I persuade me, God hath not permitted
His strength again to grow, were not his purpose
To use bim further yet.
Militon.
The Gods would not have delivered a sonl into the body which bath arms and legs, instruments of doing, hut that it were intended the mind should employ them.

Sidney.
And life more perfect have attain'd than fate Meantme, by venturing higher than my lot.

MㅍTON.
Design and purpose are taken sometimes in the abstract sense; interd and
mean always in connection with the agent who intends or means: we see a design in the whole creation which leads us to reflect on the wisdom and goodness of the Creator; whenever we see anything done, we are led to inquire the purpose for which it is done; or are desirous of knowing the intention of the person in so doing: things are said to be done with a design, in opposition to that which happens by chance; they are said to be done for a purpose in reference to the immediate purpose which is expected to result from them. Design, when not expressly qualified by a contrary epithet, is used in a bad sense in connection with a particular agent ; purpose, intention, and meaning, taken absolutely, have an indifferent sense: a designing person is full of latent and interested designs; there is nothing so good that it may not be made to serve the purposes of those who are bad; the intentions of a man must always be taken into the account when we are forming an estimate of his actions: ignorant people frequently mean much better than they do.

His deep design noknown, the hosts approve Atrides' speech.

Pops.
Change this purpose,
Which being so horrible, so bloody, must
Lesd on to some foul issue. Shakspeare.
And must I then, 0 sire of floods!
Bear this flerce answer to the king of gods?
Correct it yet, and change thy rash intent;
A noble mind disdains not to repent. Pope.
Then first Polydamus the silence broke,
Long weigh'd the signal, and to Hector spoke: How oft, my brother! thy reproach I bear, For words well meant and sentiments sincere. Pope.

DESIGN, PLAN, SCHEME, PROJECT.
DESIGN, v. Design, purpose. PLAN, in French plan, comes from plane or plain, in Latin planus, smooth or even, signifying in general any plane place, or in particular the even surface on which a building is raised; and by an extended application the sketch of the plane surface of any building or object. SCHEME, in Latin schema, Greek $\sigma \chi \eta \mu a$, a form or figure, signifies the thing drawn out in the mind. PROJECT, in Latin projectus, from projicio, compounded of pro and jacio, signifies to cast or put forth, that is, the thing proposed.

Arrangement is the idea common to these terms: the design includes the thing that is to be brought about; the plan includes the means by which it is to be brought about: a design was formed in the time of James I. for overturning the government of the country; the plan by which this was to have been realized consisted in placing gunpowder under the Parliament-house and blowing up the assembly. A design is to be estimated according to its intrinsic worth; a plan is to be estimated according to its relative value, or fitness for the design: a design is noble or wicked, a plan is practicable: every founder of a charitable institution may be supposed to have a good design; but he may adopt an erroneous plan for obtaining the end proposed.

Is he a prudent man as to his temporal estate that lays $d e s i g n-8$ only for a day, withoat any prospect to the remaining part of his life?

Tileotson.
It was at Marseilles that Virgil formed the plan and collected the materials of all those excellent pieces which he afterward fiuished.

Waish.
Scheme and project respect both the end and the means, which makes them analogous to design and plan: the dosign stimulates to actinn; the plan determines the mode of action; the scheme and project consist most in speculation : the design and plan are equally practical, and suited to the ordinary and immediate circumstances of life; the scheme and project are contrived or conceived for extraordinary or rare occasions: no man takes any step without a design; a general forms the plan of his campaign; adventurous men are always forming schemes for gaining money; ambitious monarchs are full of projects for increasing their dominions. Scheme and project differ principally in the magnitude of the objects to which they are applied; the former being much less vast and extensive than the latter: a scheme may be formed by an individual for attaining any trifling advantage ; projects are mostly conceived in matters of great moment involving deep interests.

I conversed lately with a gentleman that came from France; who, among other things, disconrsed much of the favorite Richelieu, who is like to be an active mau and hath great designe.

HOWELd.

Drained to the last poor item of his wealth, He sighs, departs, and leaves the accomplished plan,
Just when it meets his hopes, and proves the heaven
He wanted, for a wealthier to enjoy. Cowper. The happy people in their waxen cells Sat tending public cares, and planning scheme Of temperance for winter poor. Тномлок.

Manhood is led on from hope to hope, and from project to project.

JOHNSON.
TO DESIRE, WISH, LONG FOR, HANKEF AFTER, COVET.
DESIRE, in Latin desidero, comes from desido, to rest or fix upon with the mind. WISH, in German wünschen, comes from wonne, pleasure, signifying to take pleasure in a thing. LONG, from the German langen, to reach after, signifies to seek after with the mind. HANKER, hanger, or hang, signifies to hang on an object with one's mind. COVET, v. Covetous.

Desire is imperious, it demands gratification; wish is less vehement, it consists of a strong inclination; longing is an impatient and continued species of desire; hankering is a desire for that which is set out of one's reach; coveting is a desire for that which belongs to another, or wbat it is in his power to grant: we desire or long for that which is near at hand, or within view; we wish for and covet tbat which is more remote, or less distinctly seen; we hanker after tbat which has been once enjoyed: a discontented person wishes for more than he has; he who is in a strange land longs to see his native country; vicious men hanker after the pleasures which are denied them; ambitious men covet honors, avaricious men covet riches. Desires ought to be moderated; wishes to be limited; longings, hankerings, and covetings to be suppressed : uncontrolled desires become the greatest torments; unbounded wishes are the bane of all bappiness; ardent longings are mostly irrational, and not entitled to indulgence; coveting is expressly prohibited by the Divine law.
When men have discovered a passionate doo sire of fame in the ambitious man (as no temper of mind is more apt to show itself), they become sparing and reserved in their commendations.

Adnison.
It is as absard in an old man to wish for the strength of youth, as it would be in a yonng man to wish for the strength of a bull or a horse.

Strens

Extended on the fun'ral conch he lies, And soon as morning paints the eastern skies, The sight is granted to thy longing eyes. Pope.

The wife is an old cequette that is always hankering after the diversions of the town.

ADDison.
You know Chaucer has a tale, where a knight saves his head by discovering it was the thing which all women most coveted.

Gay.
Desire, as it regards others, is not less imperative than when it respects ourselves; it lays an obligation on the perlson to whom it is expressed: a wish is gentle and unassuming; it appeals to the good-nature of another: we act by the desire of a superior, or of one who has a right to ask; we act according to the wishes of an equal, or of one who can only request : the desire of a parent will amount to a command in the mind of a dutiful child: his wishes will be anticipated by the warmth of affection.
The earl is to tell him thet his Majesty of Grest Britain hopes and desires that eut of a true apprehension of these wrongs offered unto them both, he will, as his dear and loving brother, faithfully promise and undertake upon his honor, conflrming the same nuder his hand and seal, that a treaty shall recommence upon such terms as he propounded in November last, which this king then held to be reasoneble.

Howell.
That wish on some fair future day
Which fats sball brightly gild ('Tis blameless, be it what it may), I wish it all fulfill'd.

Cowper.

## TO DESIST, LEAVE OFF.

DESIST, from the Latin desisto, signiGies to take one's self off. Desist is applied to actions good, indifferent, or ofrensive to some person; LEAVE OFF to actions that are indifferent; the former is voluntary or involuntary, the latter voluntary: we are frequently obliged to desist; but we leave off at our option: it is prudent to desist from using our endeavors when we find them ineffectual; it is natural for a person to leave off when he sees no further occasion to continne his labor: he who annoys another must he made to desist ; he who does not wish to offend will leave off when requested.
So ev'n and morn accomplished the sixth (day),
Yet not till the Creator form'd his work;
Desisting, though unwearied, up return'd. Desisting, though unwearied, up return'd. Milton.
Vanity, the most innocent spectes of pride, was most frequently predominant: he (Sevege) could not easily leave off when he had once began to mention himself or his worka,

Joangom.

## DESPAIR, DESPERATION, DESPOND. ENCY.

DESPAIR, DESPERATION, from the
French desespoir, compounded of the priv. ative de and the Latin spes, hope, signi. fies the absence or the annihilation of all hope. DESPONDENCY, from despond, in Latin despondeo, compounded of the privative de and spondeo, to promise, sig. nifies literally to deprive in a solemn manner, or cut off from every gleam of hope.

Despair is a state of mind produced by the view of external circumstances; des. peration and despondency may be tho fruit of the imagination; the former therefore always rests on some ground, the latter are sometimes ideal: despair lies mostly in reflection; desperation and despondency in the feelings: the former marks a state of vehement and impatient feeling, the latter that of fallen and mournful feeling. Despair is often the forerunner of desperation and despondency, but it is not necessarily accompanied with effects so powerful : the strongest mind may have occasion to despair when circumstances warrant the sentiment; men of an impetuous character are apt to run into a state of desperation; a weak mind full of morbid sensibility is most liable to fall into despondency. Despair interrupts or checks exertion; desperation impels to greater exertions; despondency unfits for exertion: when a physician despairs of making a cure, he lays aside the application of remedies; when a soldier sees nothing but death or disgrace before him, he is driven to desperation, and redoubles his efforts; when a tradesman sees before him nothing but failure for the present, and want for the future, he may sink into despondency: de spair is justifiable as far as it is a rational calculation into futurity from present appearances; desperation may arise from extraordinary circumstances or the action of strong passions; in the former case it is unavoidable, and may serve to rescue from great distress; in the latter case it is mostly attended with fatal consequences: despondency is a disease of the mind, wbich nothing but a firm trust in the goodness of Providence can obvi ate.

## DESTINY

Despair and grief distract my lab'ring mind : Gods ! what a crime my implous heart design'd. Pope.
It may be generally remarked of those who squander what they know their fortune is not sufficient to allow, that in their most jovial moments there always breaks ont some proof of discontent and impatience; they either scatter with a wild desperation, or pay their money with a peevish anxiety.

JOHNSDN.
Thomson submitting his productions to some who thonght themselves qualified to criticise, he heard of nothing but fanlts; but, finding other judges more favorable, he did not suffer himself to sink into desponderce.

Jonnsen.

## DESPERATE, HOPELESS.

DESPERATE (v. Despair) is applicawle to persons or things; HOPELESS to things only: a person makes a desperate effort; he undertakes a hopeless task. Desperate, when applied to things, expresses more than hopeless; the latter marks the absence of hope as to the attainment of good, the former marks the absence of hope as to the removal of an evil: a person who is in a desperate con. dition is overwhelmed with actual trouble for the present, and the prospect of its continuance for the future; be whose case is hopeless is without the prospect of effecting the end he has in view: gamesters are frequently brought into desper. ate situations when bereft of everything that might possibly serve to lighten the burdens of their misfortunes; it is a hopeless undertaking to endeavor to reclaim men who have plunged themselves deep into the labyrinths of vice.
Before the ships a desperate stand they made, And fir'd the troops, and call'd the gods to aid.

Pope.
'Th' Eneans wish in vain their wanted chief, Hopeless of fight, more hopeless of religf.

Dryden.
DESTINY, FATE, LOT, DOOM.
DESTINY, from destine (v. To appoint), signifies either the power that aestines, or the thing destined. FATE, v. Chance. LOT, in German loos, signifies a ticket, die, or any other thing by which the casual distribution of things is determined; and, in an extended sense, it expresses the portion thus assigned by chance. DOOM, in Saxon dome, Danish döm, most probably, like the word deem, comes from the Hebrew dan, to judge, signifying the thing judged, spoken, or decreed.

All these terms are cmployed with re-
gard to buman events which are not under one's control: among the beathens destiny and fate were considered as deities, who each in his way could direct human affairs, and were both superior even to Jupiter himself: the Destinies, or Parcæ, as they were termed, presided only over life and death; but Fate was employed in ruling the general affairs of men. Since revelation has instructed mankind in the nature and attributes of the true God, these blind powers are now not acknowledged to exist in the overruling providence of an all-wise and an all-good Being; the terms destiny and fate, therefore, have now only a relative sense, as to what happens without the will or control of man.

If death be your design-at least, gaid she, Take us along to share your destiny. Dryden. The gods these armies and this force employ, The hostile gods conspire the fate of Troy.

Pape.
Destiny is used in regard to one's station and walk in life; fate in regard to what one suffers; lot in regard to what one gets or posscsses; and doom is the final destiny which terminates unhappily, and depends mostly upon the will of another: destiny is marked out; fate is fixed; a lot is assigned; a doom is passed. It is the destiny of some men to be always changing their plan of life ; it is but too frequently the fate of authors to labor for the benetit of mankind, and to reap nothing for themselves but poverty and neglect; it is the lot but of very few to enjoy what they themselves consider a competency; a man sometimes seals his uwn doom by his imprudence or vices.
I may be suffered to rot here for anght I know, it being the hard destiny of some in these times, when they are once clapped up, to be so forgotten as if there were no such men in the world.

Howeld.
I would nut have that fate light upon you which useth to befall some, who from golden students become silver bachelors and leaden masters.

Howell.
To labor is the lot of man below,
And, when Jove gave us life, he gave us woe.
POPE.
Oh ! grant me, gods ! ere Hector meets his doom, All I can ask of Heav'n, an early tomb. Pope.

## DESTINY, DESTINATION.

Botn DESTINY and DESTINATION arc used for the thing destined; but the
tormer is said in relation to a man's impurtant eoncerns, the latter only of partieular eireumstanees; in whieh sense it may likewise be employed for the aet of destining. Destiny is the point or line marked out in the walk of life; destina tion is the place fixed upon in partieular : as every man has his peculiar destiny, so every traveller has his particular destination. Destiny is altogether set above human eontrol; no man ean determine, though he may influenee, the destiny of another: destination is, however, the specifie act of an individual, either for himself or another: we leave the destiny of a man to develop itself; but we may inquire about his own destination or that of his children: it is a consoling reflection that the destinies of short-sighted mortals, like ourselves, are in the hands of One who both ean and will overrule them to our advantage if we place full reliance in Him ; in the destination of ehildren for their several professions or eallings, it is of importanee to eonsult their particular turn of mind, as well as inclination.

Milton had once designed to celcbrate King Arthur, as he hints in his verses to Mansus; but "Arthur was reserved," says Fenton, " to another destiny."

Johnson.
Moore's original destination appears to have been for trade.

Johnson.

## to destroy, CONSUME, WASTE.

DESTROY, in Latin destruo, i. e., $d e$ privative and struo, to build, is to undo that whieh has been built or done. CONSUME, in French consumer, Latin consumo, i. e., con or cum, together, and sumo, to take, signifies to take away altogether. WASTE, from the adjective waste, is to make waste, or of no value.

To destroy is to reduee to nothing that whieh has been artificially raised or formed; as to destroy a town or a house: to consume is to use up; as to consume food, or to consume articles of manufacture: to destroy is an immediate aet mostly of violence ; consume is a gradual and natural proeess, as oil is consumed in a lamp.

[^41]on the spot the prodnce of her vast domains in hospitality and charity.

Whitakez
To destroy is always taked in the bad sense for putting an end to that which one wishes to preserve; consume is also taken in a similar sense, but with the above distinction as to the mode of the action: as a hurricane destroys the erops; rust consumes iron: to waste is to consume by a misuse; as to waste provisions by throwing them away or suffering them to spoil: or to fall away or lose its substance, as the body wastes from disease.
Near half of the colnny was destroyed. by savages; and the rest, consumed and worn down hy fatigue and famine, deserted the country.

Burke.
For this I mourn, till grief or dire disease Shall waste the form whose crime it was to please.

Pope.
In the figurative applieation they are used with precisely the same distinction: happiness or peace is destroyed; time is consumed in an indiffereat sense; time or strength is wasted in the bad sense.

Let not a fierce, unruly joy,
The settled quiet of the mind destroy.
Admison.
Mr. Boyle, speaking of a certain mineral, tells us that a man may consume his whole life in the study without arriving at the knowledge of its qualities.

ADDison.
Nor is poor Christendom torn thus in pieces by the German, Spaniard, French, and Swede only, but our three kingdoms have also most pitifully seratched her face, wousted her spirits, and let ont some of her illustrions blood by our late horrid distractions.
howele.

## DESTRUCTION, RUIN.

DESTRUCTION, from destroy, and the Latin destruo, signifies literally to unbuild that whieh is raised up. RUIN, from the Latin ruo, to fall, signifies that which is fallen into pieces.

Destruction is an act of inmediate violenee; ruin is a gradual process; a thing is destroyed by some external action upon it; a thing falls to ruin of itself: we witness destruction wherever war or the adverse elements rage; we witness ruin whenever the works of man are exposed to the effects of time; nevertheless, if destruction be more forcible and rapid, ruin is, on the other hand, more sure and complete: what is destroyed may be rebuilt or replaced; but what is ruined

Is mostly lost forever, it is past recovery: when houses or towns are destroyed, fresh ones rise up in their place; but when commerce is ruined, it seldom returns to its old course. Destruction admits of various degrees ; min is something positive and general. The property of a man may be destroyed to a greater or less extent, without necessarily involving his ruin. The ruin of a whole family is oftentimes the consequence of destruction by fire. Health is destroyed by violent exercises, or some other active cause; it is ruined by a course of imprudent conduct. The happiness of a family is destroyed by broils and discord; the morals of a young man are ruined by a continued intercourse with vicious companions.

## Destruction hangs o'er yon devoted wall. And nodding Ilion waits th' impending fall.

Pope.
The day shall come, that great avenging day, Which Troy's proud glories in the dust shall lay; When Priam's pow'rs and Priant's self shall fall, And one prodigious ruin swallow all. Pope.

They are used figuratively with the same distinction. The destruction of both body and soul is the consequence of $\sin$; the ruin of a man, whether in his temporal or spiritual concerns, is inevitable if he follow the dictates of misguided passion.

## Why shrinks the soul <br> Back on herself, and startles at destruction?

Andigon.
May no such storm
Fall on our times, where ruin mnst reform. Sir Johin Denham.

DESTRUCTIVE, RUINOUS, PERNICIOUS.
DESTRUCTIVE signifies producing destruction (v. Destruction). RUINOUS signifies either having or causing ruin (v. Destruction). PERNICIOUS, from the Latin pernicies, or per and ueco, to kill violently, signifies causing violent and total dissolution.

Destructive and ruinous, as the epithets of the preceding terms, have a similar distinction in their sense and application; fire and sword are destructive things; a poison is destructive: consequences are ruinous; a condition or state is ruinous; intestine commotions are ruinous to the prosperity of a state. Pernicious ap. proaches nearer to destructive than to ru-
inows; both the former imply tendency to produce dissolution, which may be more or less gradual; but the latter refers us to tbe result itself, to the dissolution as already having taken place: hence we speak of the instrument or cause as being destructive or pernicious, and the action, event, or result as ruinous: destructive is applied in the most extended sense to every object which has been created or supposed to be so ; pernicious is applicable only to such objects as act only in a limited way : $\sin$ is equally destructive to both body and soul; certain food is pernicious to the body; certain books are pernicious to the mind.
'Tis yours to save ns if you cease to fear;
Flight, more than shameful, is destructive here.
'Tis quenchless thirst
Of ruinous ebriety that prompts
His every action, and imbrutes the man.
Cowper.
The effects of divisions (in a state) are pernicious to the last degree, not only with regard to those advantages which they give the common enemy, but to those private evils which they produce in the heart of almost every particular person.

AdDison.

## TO DETECT, DISCOVER.

DETECT, from the Latin de privative and tego, to cover, and DISCOVER, from the privative dis and cover, both originally signify to deprive of a covering.

Detect is always taken in a bad sense: discover in an indifferent sense. A person is detected in what be wishes to conceal ; a person or a thing is discovered that has unintentionally lain concealed. Thieves are detected in picking pockets; a lost child is discovered in a wood, or in some place of security. Detection is the act of the moment; it relates to that which is passing: a discovery is either a gradual or an immediate act, and may be made of that which has long since passed. A plot is detected by any one who communicates what be has seen and heard; many murders have been discovered after a lapse of years by ways the most extraordinary.

[^42]TO DETER, DISCOURAGE, DISHEARTEN.
DETER, in Latin deterreo, compounded of $d e$ and terreo, signifies to frighten away from a thing. DISCOURAGE and DISHEARTEN, by the privative dis, signify to deprive of courage or heart. One is deterred from commencing anything, one is discourayed or disheartened from proceeding. A variety of motives may deter any one from an undertaking; but a person is disconraged or disheartened mostly by the want of success or the hopelessness of the case. The prudent and the fearful are alike easily to be deterred; impatient people are most apt tc be discouraged; fainthearted people are easiest disheartened. The foolhardy and the obdurate are the least easily deterred from their object; the persevering will not suffer themselves to be discouraged by particular failures; the resolute and self-confidant will not be disheartened by trifling difficulties.

## But thee or fear deters, or sloth detains. No drop of all thy father warms thy veins.

Pope.
The proud man discourages those from approaching him who are of a mean condition, and who must want his assistance.

AdDison.
Be not disheartened then, nor clond those looks, That wont to be more cheerful and serene
Than when fair morning first smilea on the world.

Milton.

## TO DETRRMINE, RESOLVE.

To DETERMINE (v. To decide) is more especially an act of the judgment; to RESOLVE ( $v$. Courage) is an act of the will: we determine how or what we shall do ; this requires examination and choice : we resolve that we will do what we have determined upon; this requires a firm spirit. Our determinations should be prudent, that they may not cause repentance; our resolutions should be fixed, in order to prevent variation. There can be no co-operation with a man who is $u n$ determined; it will be dangerous to cooperate with a man who is irresolute. In the ordinary concerns of life we have frequent occasions to determine without resolving; in the discharge of our moral duties, or the performance of any office, we have occasion to resolve without determining. A master determines to dismiss his servant; the servant resolves on be-
coming more diligent. Personal convenience or necessity gives rise to the determination; a sense of duty, honor, fidelity, and the like, gives birth to the resolution. A traveller determines to take a certain route; a learuer resolves to conquer every difficulty in the acquirement of learning. Humor or change of circumstances occasions a person to alter his determination; timidity, fear, or defect in principle occasions the resolution to waver. Children are not capable of determining; and their best resolutions fall before the gratification of the moment.

[^43]In matters of knowledge, to determine is to fix the mind, or to cause it to rest in a certain opinion; to resolve is to lay open what is obscure, to clear the mind from doubt and hesitation. We determine points of question; we resolve difficulties. It is more difficult to determine in matters of rank or precedence than in cases where the solid and real interests of men are concerned: it is the business of the teacher to resolve the difficulties which are proposed by the scholar. Every point is not proved which is determined; nor is every difficulty resolved whicb is answered.
We pray against nothing but sin, and against evil in general (in the Lord's prayer), leaving it with Omniscience to determine what is really such.

Anmimon.
I think there is no great difflculty in resolving your doubts. The reasons for which you are inclined to visit London are, I think, not of suffcient strength to answer the objections.

Johnaon.
TO DEVIATE, WANDER, SWERVE, STRAY.
DEVIATE, from devious, and the Latin de vid̂, signifies literally to turn out of the way. WANDER, in German wandern or wandeln, probably connected with wenden, to turn, and the Greek $\beta a \iota \nu \omega$, to go, signifies in general the act of going. SWERVE, probably connected with the German schueifen, to ramble, schweben, to hover, fluctuate, etc., signifies to take
an unsteady, wide, and indirect course. STRAY is probably a change from erro, to wander.

Deviate always supposes a direct path which is departed from; wander includes no such idea. The act of deviating is commonly faulty, that of wandering is indifferent: they may frequently exchange significations; the former being justifiable by necessity, and the latter arising from an unsteadiness of mind. Deviate is mostly used in the moral acceptation; wander may be used in either sense. A person deviates from any plan or rule laid down; he wanders from the subject in which he is engaged. As no rule can be laid down which will not admit of an exception, it is impossible but the wisest will find it necessary in their moral conduct to deviate occasionally; yet every wanton deviation from an established practice evinces a culpable temper on the part of the deviator. Those who wander into the regions of metaphysics are in great danger of losing themselves; it is with them as with most wanderers, that they spend their time at best but idly.
While we remain in this life we are sulbiect to innumerable temptations, which, if listened to, will make us deviate from reason and gooduess. Spectator.
"Our aim is happiness; 'tils yours, 'tis mine," He sald; "'tis the pursuit of all that live, Yet few attain it, if'twas e'er attain'd; But they the widest wander from the mark, Who thro' the flow'ry paths of sauntering joy Seek this coy goddess."

Armbтаома.
To swerve is to deviate from that which one holds right, to stray is to wander in the same bad sense: men swerve from their duty to consult their interest; the young stray from the path of rectitude to seek that of pleasure.
Nor number, nor example, with him wrought To swerve from truth.

Muton.
Why have I stray'd from pleasure and repose, To seek a good each government bestows?

GoLosmitr.

## DEVIL, Demon.

DEVIL, in Saxon deoff. Welsh diafol, French diable, etc., connected with the Greek $\delta \iota a \beta o \lambda o s$, from $\delta \iota a \beta a \lambda \lambda \omega$, to traduce, signifies properly a calumniator, and is always taken in the bad sense for the spirit which incites to evil, and tempts
men through the medium of their evil passions. DEMON, in Latin demon, Greek $\delta a \iota \mu 0 \nu$, from $\delta a \omega$, to know, signifies one knowing, that is, having preternatural knowledge, and is taken either in a had or good sense for the power that acts within us and controls our actions. Since the devil is represented as the father of all wickedness, associations have been connected with the name that render its pronunciation in familiar discourse offensive to the chastened ear; it is therefore used in the grave style only.
The enemies we are to contend with are not men, but devils.
tillotion.
Among Jews and Christians the term demon is always taken in a bad sense for an evil spirit generally; but the Greeks and Romans understood by the word domon any genius or spirit, but particularly the good spirit or guardian angel who was supposed to accompany a man from his hirth. Socrates professed to he always under the direction of such a domon, who is alluded to very much by the ancients in their writings and on their medals; hence it is that in figurative language the word may still be used in a good sense.

My good demon, who sat at my right hand during the course of this whole vision, observing in me a burning desire to join that glorious company, told me he highly approved of that generous ardor with which I seemed transported.

ADDISON.
In general, the word is taken for an evil spirit, as the demon of discord.

Aa to the causes of oracles, it has been disputed whether they were the revelations of demons or only the delusions of crafty priests. Potter.

## to devise, bequeath.

DEVISE, compounded of $d e$ and vise, or visus, participle of video, to see or show, signifies to point out specifically. BEQUEATH, compounded of be and queath, in Saxon cuesan, Latin queso, to say, signifies to give over to a person by saying or by word of mouth.
In the technical sense, to devise is to give lands by a will duly attested according to law; to bequeath is to give personality after ons's death by a less formal instrument; whence the term bequeath may also be used figuratively, as to be. queath one's name to posterity.

The right of inheritance or descent to his children and relations seems to have been allowed much earlier than the right of devising by testament.

Blacestone.
With this, the Medes to lab'ring age bequeath New longs.

Deyden.

## TO DICTATE, PRESCRIBE.

DICTATE, from the Latin dictatus and dictum, a word, signifies to make a word for another; and PRESCRIBE literally signifies to write down for another ( $v . T o$ appoint), in which sense the former of these terms is used technically for a principal who gets his secretary to write down his words as he utters them; and the latter for a physician who writes down for bis patient what he wishes him to take as a remedy.

They are used figuratively for a species of counsel given by a superior; to dictate is, however, a greater exercise of authority than to preseribe. To dictate amounts even to more than to command; it signifies commanding with a tone of unwarrantable authority, or still oftener a species of commanding by those who have no right to command; it is therefore mostly taken in a bad sense. To prescribe partakes altogether of the nature of counsel, and nothing of command; it serves as a rule to the person prescribed, and is justified by the superior wisdom and knowledge of the person prescribing; it is therefore always taken in an indifferent or a good sense. He who dictates speaks with an adventitious authority; be who preseribes has the sanction of reason. To dictate implies an entire subserviency in the person dictated to : to prescribe carries its own weight with it in the nature of the thing prescribed. Upstarts are ready to dictate even to their superiors on every occasion that offers; modest people are often fearful of giving advice lest they should be suspected of prescribing.

The physician and divine are often heard to dictats in private company with the same authority which they exercise over their patients and disciples.

Budgell.
In the fnrm which is prescribed to us (the Lord's prayer), we only pray for that happiness Which is our chief good, and the great end of onr existence, when we petition the Supreme for the eoming of his kingdom.

DICTATE, SUGGESTION.
DICTATE signifies the thing dictated,
and has an imperative sense, as in the former case ( $v$. To dictate). SUGGES. TION signifies the thing suggested, and conveys the idea of its being proposed secretly or in a gentle manner.
These terms are both applied with this distinction to acts of the mind. When conscience, reason, or passion present anything foreibly to the mind, it is called a dictate; when anything enters the mind in a casual manner, it is called a sugges. tion. The dictate is obeyed or yielded to; the suggestion is followed or listened to. It is the part of a Christian at all times to obey the dictates of reason. He who yields to the dictates of passion renounces the character of a rational being. It is the characteristic of a weak mind to follow the suggestions of envy.

When the dictates of honor are contrary to those of religion and equity, they are the greatest depravation of human nature. AODISON.
Did not conscience suggest this natural relation between guilt and puaishment, the mere principle of approbation or disapprobation, with respect to moral conduct, would prove of small efflcacy.

Blaig.
Dictate is employed only for what passes inwardly; suggestion may be used for any action on the mind by external objects. No man will err essentially in the ordinary affairs of life who is guided by the dictates of plain sense. It is the lot of siaful mortals to be drawn to evil by the suggestions of Satan as well as their own evil inclinations.
The very best evidence we can have that the grace of God is in us is this, that we live up to the pure and sincere dictates of reason.

## Sherloce.

From the general disinterestedness of his character, I am led to conclude that he did not lightly betray his friends, or yield to the suggestions of Sunderland, from venal or ambitious motives.

Coxe.

## DICTION, STYLE, PHRASE, PHRASEOLOGY.

DICTION, from the Latin dietio, saying, is put for the mode of expressing ourselves. STYLE comes from the Latin stylus, the bodkin with which they both wrote and corrected what they had written on their waxen tablets; whence the word has been used for the manner of writing in general. PHRASE, in Greek $\phi \rho a \sigma t c$, from $\phi \rho a \zeta \omega$, to speak; and PHRASEOLOGY, from фpares and

Aoyos, both signify the maner of speaking.

Diction expresses much less than style: the former is applicable to the first efforts of learners in composition; the latter only to the original productions of a matured mind. Errors in grammar, false construction, a confused disposition of words, or an improper application of them, constitutes bad diction; but the niceties, the elegancies, the peculiarities, and the beauties of composition, which mark the geaius and talent of the writer, are what is comprehended under the name of style. Diction is a general term; applicable alike to a single sentence or a connected composition; style is used in regard to a regular piece of composition. As diction is a term of inferior import, it is of course mostly coufined to ordinary subjects, and style to the productions of authors. We should speak of a person's diction in his private correspondence, but of his style in his literary works. Diction requires ouly to be pure and clear; style may likewise be terse, polished, elegant, florid, poetic, sober, and the like.

Prior's diction is more his own than that of any among the successors of Dryden. Johnson.

I think we may say with justice that, when mortals converse with their Creator, they cannot do it in so proper a style as in that of the Holy Scriptures.

Adpison.
Diction is said mostly in regard to what is written ; phrase and phraseology are said as often of what is spoken as what is written; as that a person has adopted a strange phrase or phrascology. The former respects single words; the latter comprehend a succession of phrases.

Rude am I in my speech, And little blest with the set phrase of peace. Shakspeare.
I was no longer able to accommodate myself to the accidental current of my conversation ; my notions grew particular and paradoxical, and my phraseology formal and unfashionable.

Jounson.

## DICTIONARY, ENCYCLOPREDIA.

DICTIONARY, from the Latin dictum, a saying or word, is a register of words. ENCYCLOPADIA, from the Greek $\varepsilon \gamma \kappa \nu \kappa \lambda о \pi a \iota \delta \varepsilon \iota a$, or $\varepsilon \nu$, in, кvкл $\frac{\varsigma}{}$, a circle, and $\pi a i \delta \varepsilon a$, learning, signifies a register of thinge.

The definition of words, with their various changes, modifications, uses, acceptations, and applications, are the proper subjects of a dictionary; the nature and properties of things, with their construction, uses, powers, etc., etc., are tbe proper subjects of an encyclopredia. A general acquaintance with all arts and sciences as far as respects the nee of technical terms, and a perfect acquaintance with the classical writers in the language, are esseatial for the composition of a dictionary; an entire acquaintance with all the minutiz of every art and science is requisite for the composition of an encyclopoedia. A single individual may qualify himself for the task of writiog a dictionary; but the nniversality and diversity of knowledge contained in an encyclopsedia render it necessarily the work of many. The term dictionary has been extended in its application to any work alpbabetically arranged, as biographical, medical, botanical dictionaries, and the like; but still preserving this distinction, that a dictionary always contains only a general or partial illustration of the subject proposed, while an encyclopcedia embraces the whole circuit of scieace.

If a man that lived an age or two ago should return into the world again, he would really want a dietionary to help him to understand his own language.

Tillotson.
Every science borrows from all the rest, and we cannot attain any single one without the $8 n$ cyclopadia.

Glanville.

## DICTIONARY, LEXICON, VOCABULARY, GLOSSARY, NOMENCLATURE.

DICTIONARY (v. Dictionary) is a gen eral term; LEXICON, from $\lambda_{\varepsilon} \gamma \omega$, to say; VOCABULARY, from vox, a word; GLOSSARY, from gloss, to explain, from $\gamma \lambda \omega \sigma \sigma a$, the tongue; and NOMENCLATURE, from nomen, are all species of the dictionary.

Lexicon is a species of dictionary appropriately applied to the dead languages. A Greek or Hebrew lexicon is distinguished from a dictionary of the French or English language. A vocabulary is a partial kind of dictionary, which may comprehend a simple list of words, with or withont explanation, arranged in or. der or otherwise. A glossary is an ex
planatory vocabulary, which commonly serves to explain the obsolete terms employed in any old author. A nomenclature is literally a list of names, and in particular a reference to proper names.

## TO DLE, EXPIRE.

DIE, in low German doen, Danish doe, Greek जvєı, to kill, designates in general the extinction of being. EXPIRE, from the Latin e or ex and spiro, to breathe out, designates the last action of life in certain objects.

She died every day she lived.
Rowe.
Pope aied in the evening of the thirtieth day of May, 1744, so placidly, that the attendants did not discern the exact time of his experation.

Johnson.
There are beings, such as trees and plants, which are said to live, although they have not breath; these die, but do not expire: there are other beings which absorb and emit air, but do not live; such as the flame of a lamp, which does not die, but it expires. By a natural metaphor, the time of being is put for the life of objects; and hence we speak of the date expiring, the term expiring, and the like; and as life is applied figuratively to moral objects, so may death to objects not having physical life.
A. parlisment may axpire by length of time.

Blachstone.
A dissolution is the civil death of parliament.
Blackstone.
When Alexander the Great died, the Grecian monsrchy expired with him.

Sootr.

## TO DIFFER, VARY, DISAGREE, DISSENT.

DIFFER, in Latin differo, or dis and fero, signifies to make into two. VARY, ข. To change, alter. DISAGREE is literally not to agree. DISSENT, in Latin dissentio, or dis and sentio, signifies to think or feel apart or differently.

Differ, vary, and disagree, are applicable either to persons or things; dissent to persons only. First as to persons: to differ is the most general and indefinite term, the rest are but modes of difference: we may differ from any cause, or in any degree, we vary only in small matters : thus persons may differ or vary in their statements. Thẹre must be two
at least to differ; and there may be an indefinite number: one may vary, or an indefinite number may vary; thus two or more may differ in an account which they give; one person may vary at different times in the account which he gives.

I have taken the liberty sometimes to join with one and sometimes with the other, and sometimes to differ from all of them when I have thought the resson of the thing was on my side.

Annison.
In another passage Celsus accuses the Christians of altering the Gospel. The accusations refer to some variatione in the readings of particular passages.

Palex.
To differ may be either in matters of fact or matters of speculation; to disagree mostly in matters of practice or personal interest; to dissent mostly in matters of speculation or opinion. Philosophers may differ in accounting for any phenomenon; politicians may differ as to the conduct of public affairs; people may disagree who have to act together; a person may dissent from any opinion which is offered or prescribed.
The ministers of the different potentates conferred and conferred; but the peace advanced so slowly that speedier methods were found necessary, and Bolingbroke was sent to Paris to adjust differances with less formality. Jounson.

On lis arrival at Geneva, Goldsmith was recommended as a travelling tator to a young gentleman who had been unexpectedly left a sum of money by a near relation. This connection lasted hut a short time: they disagrsed in the south of France, and parted.

Johnson.
I have nothing to object to your poem, hut disabnt only from something in your preface sounding to the prejudice of age. Honnes.

Differences may occasion discordant feeling or otherwise, according to the nature of the difference. Differences in regard to claims or matters of interest are rarely unaccompanied with some asperity. Disagreements, variances, and dissensions are always accompanied with. more or less ill-humor or ill-feeling. Disagreements between those who ought to agree and to co-operate are mostly occasioned by opposing passions; variance is said of whatever disturbs the harmony of those wbo ought to live in love and harmony. Dissensions arise not merely from diversity of opinion, but also from diversity of interest, and always produce much acrimony of feeling. They arisg mostly among bodies of men.

In the state of nature mankind was anhjected to many and great inconveniences. Want of nnion, want of mitual assistance, want of a common arbitration to resort to in their differences. Burke.
His resignation was owing to a disagrsament with his brother-in-law and coadjutor Sir Robert Walpole, which had long subsisted. Coxe.

How many bleed
By shameful variance between man and man!
Thomson.
When Carthage shall contend the world with Rome,
Then is your time for faction and debate, For partial favor and permitted hate:
Let now your immature dissension cease.
Dryden.
In regard to things, differ is said of two things with respect to each other; vary of one thing in respect to itself: thus two tempers differ from each other, and a person's temper varies from time to time. Things differ in their essences, they vary in their accidents; thus the genera and species of things differ from each other, sud the individuals of each species vary: differ is said of everything promiscuously, but disagree is only said of such things as might agree; thus two trees differ from each other by the course of things, but two numbers disagree which are intended to agree.
Wa do not know in what either reason or in. etinct conaists, and tharefore cannot tell with exactness in what they differ.

Johnson.
That mind and hody often aympathize Is plain: such is thit unlon nature ties:
Bnt then as often, too, they disagres,
Which proves the soul's superior progeny.
JENYNS.
Trade and commerce might donbtless be still varisd a thousand ways, ont of which would arise such branches as have not been touched.

Johnson,

## DLFFERENCE, VARIETY, DIVERSITY, MEDLEY.

DIFFERENCE signifies the csuse or the act of differing. VARIETY, from various or vary, in Latin varius, probably comes from varus, a speck or speckle, because this is the hest emblem of $v a$ riety. DIVERSITY, in Latin diversitas, comes from diverto, compounded of $d i$ and verto, and signifies to turn asunder. MEDLEY comes from the word meddle, which is but a change from mingle, mix, etc.

Difference and variety seem to lie in the things themselves; diversity and med-
ley are created either by accident or design: a difference may lie in two objects only; a varicty cannot exist without an assemblage: a difference is discovered by means of a comparison which the mind forms of objects to prevent confusion; variety strikes on the mind, and pleases the imagination with many agreeable images; it is opposed to dull uniformity: the acute observer traces differences, howo ever minute, in the objects of bis re search, and by this means is enabled to class them under their general or particular heads; nature affords such an infinite variety in everything which exists, that if we do not perceive it the fault is in ourselves.
Where the falth of the holy Chnrch is one, a diffsrencs between customs of the Church doth no harm.

Hooker.
Homer does not only outshine all other poets in the variety, but also in the novelty of his characters.

ADistron.
Diversity arises from an assemblage of objects naturally contrasted; a medley is produced by an assemblage of objects so ill suited as to produce a ludicrous effect. Diversity exists in the tastes or opinions of men; a medley is produced by the concurrence of such tastes or opinions as can in nowise coalesce. A diversity of sounds heard at a suitable distance in the stillness of the evening will have an agreeable effect on the ear; a medley of noises, whether heard near or at a distance, must always be harsh and offensive.

The goodness of the Supreme Being is no less seen in the diversity, than in the multitude of living creatnres.

ADDigon.
What unnatural motions and counter-ferments must such a medley of intemperance produce in the bodyl

Adidion.

## DIFFERENCE, DISTINCTION.

DIFFERENCE (v. Difference) lies in the thing; DISTINCTION is the act of the person: the former is, therefore, to the latter as the cause to the effect; the distinction rests on the difference; those are equally bad logicians who make a distinction without a difference, or who make no distinction where there is a difference.
The will of the many and their interest must very often differ, and great will be the difference when they make an evil choice.

Bogern

I trust no real ground of diatinction can be made between civil and criminal cases.

State Thiais.
Sometimes distinction is put for the ground of distinction, which brings it nearer in sense to difference, in which case the former is a species of the latter : a difference is either external or internal; a distinction is always external: the former lies in the thing, the latter is designedly made: we have differences in character, and distinctions in dress; the dif. ference between profession and practice, though very considerable, is often lost sight of by the professors of Christianity; in the sight of God, there is no rank or distinction that will screen a man from the consequences of unrepented sins.

## 0 son of Tydaus, cease ! be wise, and sea How vast the diff'rence of the gods and thea.

Pope.
When I was got into this way of thinking, I presently grew conceited of the argument, and was just preparing to write a letter of advica to a momber of parliament, for opening the freedom of our towns and trades, for taking away all manner of distinctions between tlie natives and foreigners.

STEELE.

## DIFFERENCE, DISPUTE, ALTERCATION, QUARREL.

DIFFERENCE, v. To differ. DISPUTE, v. To argue. ALTERCATION, in Latin altercatio and alterco, from alterum and cor, another mind, signifies the expressing another opinion. QUARREL, in French querelle, from the Latin queror, to complain, signifies having a complaint against another.

All these terms are here taken in the general sense of a difference on some personal question; the term difference is here as general and indefinite as in the former case (v. To differ, vary) : a differmee, as distinguisbed from the others, is generally of a less serious and personal kind; a dispute consists not only of angry words, but much ill blood and unkind offices; an altercation is a wordy dispute, in which difference of opinion is drawn out into a multitude of words on all sides; quarrel is the most serious of all differences, which leads to every species of violence; a difference may sometimes arise from a misunderstanding, which may be easily rectified; differences seldom grow to disputes. but by the fault
of both parties ; altercations arise mostly from pertinacious adherence to, and obstinate defence of, one's opinions; quarrels mostly spring from injuries real or supposed : differences subsist between men in an individual or public capacity; they may be carried on in a direct or indirect manner ; disputes and altercations are mostly conducted in a direct manner between individuals; quarvels may arise between nations or individuals, and be carried on by acts of offence directly or indirectly.

Ought lasser differences altogether to divide and estrange those from one another whom such ancient and sacred bands unite?

Blair.
I have often been pleased to hear disputes on the Exchange adjusted between an inhabitant of Japan and an alderman of London. ADDison.

In the House of Peers the bill passes through the same forms as in the other house, and if rejected no more notice is taken, but it passes sub silentio to prevent unbecoming aftercation.

Blackstone.
Unvex'd with quarrele, nndisturb'd with noise, The country king his peaceful realm enjoys.

Dryden.

## DIFFERENT, DISTINCT, SEPARATE.

DIFFERENT, v. To differ, vary. DISTINCT, in Latin distinctus, participle of distinguo (v. To abstract, separate). SEPARATE, v. To abstract.

Difference is opposed to similitude; there is no difference between objects absolutely alike: distinctness is opposed to identity; there can be no distinction where there is only one and the same being: separation is opposed to unity; there can be no separation between objects that coalesce or adhere: things may be different and not distinct, or distinct and not different: different is said altogether of the internal properties of things; distinct is said of things as objects of vision, or as they appear either to the eye or the mind: when two or more things are seen only as one, they may be different, but they are not distinct; but whatever is seen as two or more things, each complete in itself, is distinct, although it may not be different: two roads are said to be different which run in different directions, but they may not be distinct when seen on a map: on the other hand, two roads are said to be distinct when they are observed as two roads to run in the
same direction, but they need not in any particular to be different: two stars of different magnitudes may, in certain directions, appear as one, io which case they are different, but not distinct; two books on the same subject, and by the same author, but not written in continuation of each other, are distinct books, but not different.

## Different minds

Incline to diff rent objects.
Akengine.
What miracle thus dazzles with surprise?
Distinct in rows the radiant columus rise.
Pope.
What is separate must in its nature be generally distinct; but everything is not separate which is distinct: when houses are separate they are obviously distinct; but they may frequently be distinct when they are not positively separated: the distinct is marked out by some exterual sign, which determines its beginning and its ead; the separate is that which is set apart, and to be seen by itself: distinct is a term used only in determining the siagularity or plurality of objects; the reparate only in regard to their proximity to or distance from each other: we speak of having a distinct household, but of living in separate apartments; of dividing one's subject into distinct heads, or of making things ioto separate parcels: the body and soul are different, inasmuch as they have different properties; they are distinct, inasmuch as they have marks by which they may be distinguished, and at death they will be separate.

No hostile arms approach your happy ground. Far diff'rent is iny fate.

Dryden.
His sep'rate troops let every leader call, Each strengthen each, and all encourage all ; What chief or soldier of the num'rous band, Or bravely fights or ill obeys command,
When thus distinct they war, soon shall he known.

Pope.
dIFFERENT, SEVERAL, DIVERS, SUN-

## DRY, VARIOUS.

All these terms are employed to mark a number ( $v$. To differ, vary); but DIF. FERENT is the most indefinite of all these terms, as its office is rather to define the quality than the number, and is equally applicable to few and many; it is opposed to singularity, but the other terms are employed positively to express many. SEVERAL, from to sever, signi-
fies split or made into many; they may be either different or alike: there may be several different things, or several things alike; but we need not say several divers things, for the word divere signifies properly many different. SUNDRY, from asunder or apart, signifies many things scattered or at a distance, whether as it rega:ds time or space. VARIOUS expresses not only a greater number, but a greater diversity than all the rest.
The same thing often affects different persons differently: an individual may be affected several times in the same way; or particular persons may be affected at sundry times and in divers manners; the ways in which men are affected are so various as not to admit of enumeration: it is not so much to understand different languages as to understand several different languages; divers modes bave been suggested and tried for the good educa. tion of youth, but most of too theoretical a nature to admit of being reduced successfully to practice; an incorrect writer omits sundry articles that belong to a statement; we need not wonder at the misery which is introduced into families by extravagance and luxury, when we notice the infinitely various allurements for spending money which are beld out to the young and the thoughtless.
It is astonishing to consider the different degrees of care that descend from the parent to the young, so far as is absolutely necessary for the leaving a posterity. Adonson.
The bishop has several conrts under him, and may visit at pleasure every part of his diocese.

Blackstone.
In the frame and constrtution of the ecclesiastical polity, there are divere ranks and degrees. Blacebtone.
Fat olives of sundry sorts appear,
Of sundry shapes their anctuous berries bear.
Dryden.
As land is lmproved by sowing it with various seeds, so is the mind hy exercising it with different studies.

Melmoth'e Letters of Plint.

## DIFFERENT, UNLIKE.

DIFFERENT is positive, UNLIKE is negative: we look at what is different, and draw a comparison; but that which is unlike needs no comparison: a thing is said to be different from every other thing, or unlike to anything seen before; which latter mode of expression obvi

## DIFFUSE

ously conveys less to the mind than the former.

How different is the view of past iffe in the man who is grown old in knowledge and wisdom from that of him who has grown old in ignorance and folly.

Addison.
How far unlike those chiefs of race divine, How wast the diff'rence of their deeds and mine. Pope.

## DIFFICULTIES, EMBARRASSMENTS, TROUBLES.

These terms are all applicable to a person's concerns in life ; bnt DIFFICULTIES relate to the difficulty (v. Dificully) of conducting a business; EMBARRASSMENTS relate to the confusion attending a state of debt; and TROUBLE to the pain which is the natural consequence of not fulfilling engagements or answering demands. Of the thrce, the term difficulties expresses the least, and that of troubles the most. A young man on his entrance into the world will unavoidahly experience difftculties, if not provided with ample means in the outset. But let his means be ever so ample, if he have not prudence and talents fitted for business, he will hardly keep himself free from embarrassments, which are the greatest trowbles that can arise to disturb the peace of a man's mind.

Young Cunningham was recalled to Duhlin, where he continued for four or five years, and of course experienced ali the difficulties that attend distressed situations.

Johnson.
Few men would have had resolution to write books with such embarrassments (as Milton lahored under).

JOHNSON.
VIrgil's slckliness, studies, ani the troubles he met with, turned his hair gray before the usual time.

Walsh.

## DIFFICULTY, OBSTACLE, IMPEDIMENT.

DIFFICULTY, in Latin difficultas, and zifficilis, compounded of the privative dis and facilis, easy, from facio, to do, signifies not easy to be done. OBSTACLE, in Latin obstaculum, from obsto, to stand in the way, signifies the thing that stands in the way between a person and the object he has in view. IMPEDIMENT, in Latin impedimentum, from impedio, compounded of in and pedes, signifies something that entangles the feet.

All these terms include in their signi-
fication that which interferes either with the actions or views of men : the diff culty lies most in the nature and circum. stances of the thing itself; the obstachs and impediment consist of that which is external or foreign: a difficulty interferes with the completion of any work; an ob. stacle interferes with the attainment of any end; an impediment interrupts the progress, and prevents the execution of one's wishes: a difficulty embarrasses, it suspends the powers of acting or deciding; an obstacle opposes itself, it is prop. erly met in the way, and intervenes between us and our object; an impediment shackles and puts a stop to our proceedings: we speak of encountering a diffculty, surmounting an obstacle, and removing an impediment: the disposition of the mind often occasions more diff culties in negotiations than the subjects themselves; the eloquence of Demosthenes was the greatest obstacle which Philip of Macedon experienced in his political carcer; ignorance of the language is the greatest impediment which a foreigner experiences in the pursuit of any object out of his own country.
Truth has less of troubie and difficulty, of en. tanglement and perplexity, of danger and hazard in it.

Tillotson.
One obstacle must have stood not a little in the way of that preferment after which Young seems to have panted. Though ine took orders, he never entirely shook off politics. Croft.
The necessity of complying with times, and of sparing persons, is the great impediment of hiography.

Johnson.

## DIFFUSE, PROLIX.

Botr mark defects of style opposed to brevity. DIFFUSE, in Latin diffusus, participle of diffundo, to pour out or spread wide, marks the quality of being extended in space. PROLIX, in French prolixe, changed from prolaxus, signifie ; let loose in a wide space.

The diffuse is properly opposed to the precise; the prolix to the concise or laconic. A diffuse writer is fond of amplification, he abounds in epithets, tropes, figures, and illustrations; the prolix writer is fond of circumlocution, minute details, and trifling particnlars. Diffuseness is a fault only in degree and according to circumstances; prolixity is a positive fault at all times. The former leads to
the use of words unnecessarily; the latter to the use of phrases, as well as words, that are altogether useless : the diffuse style has too much of repetition; the prolix style abounds in tautology. Diffuseness often arises from an exuberance of imagination; prolixity from the want of imagination; on the other hand, the former may be coupled with great superficiality, and the latter with great solidity. Modern writers have fallen into the error of diffuseness. Lord Clarendon and many English writers preceding him are chargeable with prolixity.

Few authors are more clear and perspicuous oo the whole than Archbishop Tillotson and Sir William Temple, yet neither of them are remarkable for precision ; they are loose and diffuge.

Blaik.
I look apon a tedious talker, or what is generally known by the name of a story-teller, to be mach more insufferable thas a prolix writer.

Steele.

## TO DIGRESS, DEVIATE.

Both in the original and the accepted sense, these words express going out of the ordinary course; but DIGRESS is nsed only in particular, and DEVIATE in general cases. We digress only in a narrative, whether written or spoken; we deviate in actions as well as in words, in our conduct as well as in writings. Di. gress is mostly taken in a good or indif. ferent sense; deviate in an indifferent or bad sense. Although frequent digressions are faulty, yet occasionally it is necessary to digress for the purposes of explanation; every deviation is bad which is not sanctioned by the necessity of circumstances.

The digressions in the Tale of a Tub, relating to Wotton and Beatley, must be confessed to discover want of kaowledge or want of integrity.

Joinson.
A resolution was taken (by the authors of the Spectator) of courting general approbation by general topics; to this practice they adhered with few deviations.

Johnson.

## TO DILATE, EXPAND.

DILATE, in Latin dilato, from $d i$, npart, and latus, wide, that is, to make very wide. EXPAND, in Latin expando, compounded of ex and pando, to spread, from the Greek $\phi a / \nu \omega$, to appear or show, signifying to set forth or lay open to view by spreading out.

The idea of drawing anything out so us to occupy a greater space is common
to these terms in opposition to contract ing. A bladder dilates on the admissio: of air, or the heart dilates with joy; knowledge expands the mind, or a person's views expand with circumstances.
The consclous heart of charity would warm,
And her wide wish benevolence dilate.
Thomson.
The poet (Thomson) leads us throngh the appearances of things as they are successively varied by the vicissitudes of the year, and imparts to us so much of his own enthnsiasm that our thoughts expand with his imagery. Jounsor.

## DILEGENT, EXPEDITIOUS, PROMPT.

All these terms mark the quality of quickness in a commendable degree. DILIGENT, from diligo, to love (v. Active, diligent, marks the interest one takes in doing something; he is diligent who loses no time, who keeps close to the work from inclination. EXPEDITIOUS, from the Latin expedio, to despatch, marks the desire one has to complete the thing begun. He who is expeditions apphes himself to no other thing that offers; he finishes everything in its turn. PROMPT, from the Latin promo, to draw out or make ready, marks one's desire to get ready; he is prompt who sets about a thing without delay, so as to make it ready. Idleness, dilatoriness, and slowness are the three defects opposed to these three qualities. The diligent man goes to his work willingly, and applies to it assiduously; the expeditions man gets it finished quickly; the prompt man sets about it readily, and gets it finished im. mediately. It is necessary to be diligent in the concerns which belong to us, to be expeditious in any business that requires to be terminated; to be prompt in the execution of orders that are given to us.
We must be diligent in our particular calling and charge, in that province and station which God has appointed us, whatever it be.

Tilletson.
The regent assembled an army with his usual expedition, and marched to Glasgow.

Robeatson.
To him she hasted, in her face excuse
Came prologue, and apology too prompt,
Which, with bland words at will, she thus ad. dress'd.

Miltion
to direct, regulate, dispose.
We DIRECT for the instruction of individuals; we REGULATE for the good order or convenience of many.

## DIRECTION

To direct is personal, it supposes authority; to regulate is general, it supposes superior information. An officer directs the movements of his men in military operations; the steward or master of the ceremonies regulates the whole concerns of an entertainment: the director is often a man in power; the regulator is always the man of business; the latter is frequently employed to act under the former.
Canst thou, with all a monarch's cares opprest, Oh Atreus' son ! canst thom indulge thy rest? Ill fits a chief, who mighty nations guides, Direots in councll, and in war presides. Pope. Ev'n goddesses are women, and no wife Has pow'r to regulato her husband's life.

DRyden.
To direct is always used with regard to others; to regulate, frequently with regard to ourselves. One person directs another according to his better judgment; he regulates his own conduct by principles or circumstances.

Strange disorders are bred in the minds of those men whose passions are not rigulatsd by reason.

AdDison.
But sometimes the word direct is taken in the sense of giving a direction to an object, and it is then distinguished from regulate, which signifies to determine the measure and other circumstances.

It is the business of religion and philosophy not so much to extinguish our passions, as to regulate and direct them to valuable, wellchosen objects.

Addison.
To DISPOSE, from dispono, or dis, apart, and pono, to place, signifying to put apart for a particular purpose, supposes superior power like direot, and superior wisdom like regulate; whence the term has been applied to the Almighty, who is styled the Supreme Disposer of events, and by the poets to the heathen deities.
Endnre and conquer, Jove will soon disposs To future good, our past and present woes.

Dryden.

## DIRECTION, ADDRESS, SUPERSCRIPtion.

DIRECTION (v. To direat) marks that which directs. ADDRESS (v. To address) is that which addresses. SUPERSCRIPTION, from super and scribo, signifies tbat which is written over,

Although these terms may be used promiscuously for each other, yet they have a peculiarity of siguification by which their proper use is defined: a direction may serve to direct to places as well as to persons: an address is never used but in direct application to the person: a superscription has more respect to the thing than the person. A direction may be written or verbal; an address in this sense is always written; a superscription must not only be written, but either on or over some other thing: a direction is given to such as go in search of persons and places, it ougbt to be clear and particular: an address is put either on a card and a letter, or in a book; it ought to be suitable to the station and situation of the person addressed: a superscription is placed at the head of other writings, or over tombs and pillars: it ought to be appropriate.
There could not be a greater chance than that which brought to light the powder treason, when Providence, as it were, snatched a king and kingdom out of the very jaws of death only by the mistake of a word in the direction of a letter.

South.
We think you may be able to point out to him the evil of succeeding; if it be solicitations, you will tell him where to address it.

Lord Chesterfield.
Deceit and hypocrisy carry in them more of the express image and superseription of the devil than any bodily sins whatsoever. South.

## DIRECTION, ORDER.

DIRECTION, v. To direct. ORDER, v. To command.

Direction contains most of instruction in it; order most of authority. Directions should be followed ; orders obeyed. It is necessary to direct those who are unable to act for themselves: it is necessary to order those whose business it is to execute the orders. Directions given to ser vants and children must be clear, simple, and precise; orders to tradespeople may be particular or general. Directions extend to the moral conduct of others, as well as the ordinary concerns of life; orders are confined to the personal convenience of the individual. A parent directs a child as to his behavior in company, or as to his conduct when he enters lifo; a teacher directs his pupil in the choice of books, or in the distribution of his studies; the master gives orders to his at
tendants to be in waiting for him at a certain hour; or he gives orders to his tradesmen to provide what is necessary.
Then meet me forthwith at the notary' $\theta$, Give him direction for thie merry bond.

Shakgpeare.
To execute laws is a royal office: to execute orders is not to be a king.

Burke.
DIRECTLY, IMMEDIATELY, INSTANTLY, INSTAN'TANEOUSLY.
DIRECTLY signifies in a direct or straight manner. IMMEDIATELY signifies without any medium or intervention. INSTANTLY and INSTANTANEOUSLY, from instant, signifies in an instant.

Directly is most applicable to the actions of men; immediately and instantly to either actions or events. Directly refers to the interruptions which may intentionally delay the commencement of any work: immediately in general refers to the space of time that intervenes. A diligent person goes directly to his work; he suffers nothing to draw him aside: good news is immediately spread abroad upon its arrival; nothing intervenes to retard it. Immediately and instantly, or instantaneously, both mark a quick succession of events, but the latter in a much stronger degree than the former. Immediately is negative; it expresses simply that nothing intervenes; instantly is positive, signifying the very existing moment in which the thing happens. A person who is of a willing disposition goes or runs immediately to the assistance of another; but the ardor of affection impels him to fly instantly to his relief, as he sees the danger. A surgeon does not proceed directly to dress a wound: he first examines it in order to ascertain its nature: men of lively minds immediately see the source of their own errors: people of delicate feelings are instantly alive to the slightest breach of decorum. A course of proceeding is direct, the consequences are immediate, and the effects instantaneous.

[^44]A painter mnst have an action, not auccessive, but instantaneous; for the time of a picture is a single moment.

Joingon.
DISADVANTAGE, INJURY, HURT, DETRIMENT, PREJUDICE.
DISADVANTAGE implies the absence of an advantage (v. Advantage). INJURY, in Latin injuria, from jus, properly signifies what is contrary to right or justice, but extends in its sense to every loss or deficiency which is occasioned. HURT signifies in the Northern langnages beaten or wounded. DETRIMENT, in Latin detrimentum, from detritum, and deterrere, to wear away, signifies the effect of being worn out. PREJUDICE, in the improper sense of the word (v. Bias) implies the ill which is supposed to result from $p r e j$ udice.

Disadvantage is rather the absence of a good; injury is a positive evil: the want of education may frequently be a disadvantage to a person by retarding his advancement; the ill word of another may be an injury by depriving him of friends. Disadvantage, therefore, is applied to such things as are of an adventitious nature: the injury to that which is of essential importance.

Even the greatest actions of a ceifebrated person labor nnder this disadvantage, that however surprising and extraordinary they may be, they are no more than what are expected from bim.

Addison.
The places were acquired by just title of victory, and therefore in keeping of them no injury was offered.

Spenser.
Hurt, detriment, and prejudice are all species of injuries. Injury, in general, implies whatever ill befalls an object by the external action of other objects, whether taked in relation to physical or moral evil, to persons or to things; hurt is that species of injury which is produced by more direct violence; too close an application to study is injurious to the health; reading by an improper light is hurtful to the eyes: so in a moral sense, the light reading which a circulating library supplies is often injurious to the morals of joung people; all violent affections are huriful to the mind.

[^45]The number of those who by abstracted thoughts beconne useless is iacoasiderable, ia respect of thern who are hurtful to mankind by an actlve aud restlesa disposition. Babtleftr.

The detriment and prejudice are species of injury which affect only the outward circumstances of a person or thing; the former implying what may lessen the value of an object, the latter what may lower it in the esteem of others. Whatever affects the stability of a merchant's credit is highly detrimental to his interests: whatever is prejudicial to the character of a man should not be made the subject of indiscriminate conversation.

In many instancea we clearly perceive that more or less knowledge dispensed to man would have proved detrimental to his state. Blalr.

That the heathena hava spoken things to the game sense of this saying of our Saviour is so far from being any prejudice to this aaying, that it is a great commendation of it.

Tillotson.

## DISAFFECTION, DISLOYALTY.

DISAFFECTION is general : DISLOYALTY is particular; it is a species of disaffection. Men are disaffected to the government; disloyal to their prince. Disaffection may be said with regard to any form of government; disloyalty only with regard to monarchy. Although both terms are commonly employed in a bad sense, yet the former does not always convey the unfavorable meaning which is attached to the latter. A man may have reasons to think himself justified in disaffection; but he will never attempt to offer anything in justification of disloyalty. A usurped government will have many disaffected subjects with whom it must deal leniently; the best king may have disloyal subjects, upon whom he must exercise the rigor of the law. Many were disaffected to the usurpation of Oliver Cromwell, because they would not be disloyal to their king.
Yet, I proteat, it is no salt desire Of aeeing countriea shifting for a religion; Nor any disaffection to the state
Where I was bred, and unto which I owe My dearest plots, hath hrought me out.

BEN Jongon.
Milton being cleared from the effects of his disloyally, had nothing required from him hut the common duty of living in quiet. Jounson.

## TO DISAPPEAR, VANISH.

To DISAPPEAR signifies not to appear (v. Air). VANISH, in French eva-
noir, Latin evaneo or evanesco, compounded of $e$ and vaneo, in Greek фatvw, to ap. pear, significs to go out of sight.

To disappear comprehends no particular mode of action; to vanish includes in it the idea of a rapid motion. A thing disappears either gradually or suddenly; it vanishes on a sudden; it disap. pears in the ordinary course of tbings; it vanishes by an unusual effort, a supernatural or a magic power. Any object that recedes or moves away will soon disappear; in fairy tales things are made to vanish the instant they are beheld. To disappear is often a temporary action; to varish, generally conveys the idea of being permanently lost to the sight. The stars appear and disappear in the firmament; lightning vanishes with a rapidity that is unequalled.
Red meteors ran across th' ethereal apace,
Stara diaappear' $d$, and comets took their place. Dryden.
While I was lamenting this sadden desolation that had been made before ma, the whola scena vanished. Andison.

## TO DISAPPROVE, DISLIKE.

To DISAPPROVE is not to approve, or to think not good. To DISLIKE is not to like, or to find unlike or unsuitable to one's wishes.

Disapprave is an act of the judgment; dislike is an act of the will or the affection. To approve or disapprove is peculiarly the part of a superior, or one who determines the conduct of others; to dislike is altogether a personal act, in which the feelings of the individual are consulted. It is a misuse of the judgment to disapprove where we need only dislike; it is a perversion of the judgment to disapprove, because we dislike.
The poem (Sumson Agonistes) has a beginning and an end, which Aristotle himself could not have disapproved, but it must be allowed to want a middle.

JoHnson.
The man of peace will bear with many whose opinions or practices he dislikes, withoat an open and violent rupture.

Blaits.

## TO DISAVOW, DENY, DISOWN.

To DISAVOW, from dis and avow (v. To acknowledge), is to avow that a thing is not: DENY ( $v$. To deny) is to assert tbat a thing is not: DISOWN, from dis and own, is to assert that a pernon or thing is
not one's own, or does not belong to one. A disavowal is a general declaration; a denial is a particular assertion; the former is made voluntarily and unasked for, the latter is always in direct answer to a charge: we disavow in matters of general interest where truth only is concerved; we deny in matters of personal intercst where the character or feelings are implicated. What is disavowed is generally in support of trutb; what is denied may often be in direct violation of truth : an honest mind will always disavow whatever has been erroneously attributed to it; a timid person sometines denies what be knows to be true from a fear of the consequences.

Dr. Solander disavows some of those narrations (in Hawkesworth's voyages), or at least declares them to be grossly misrepresented.

Beattie.
The king now denied his knowledge of the conspiracy against Rizzio by publie proclamations.

Robertson.
Deny is said of things that concern others as well as ourselves; disown only of things in which one is personally concerned or supposed to be so. Denialis employed for events or indifferent matters; disowning extends to whatever ove can own or possess : a person denies that there is any truth in the assertion of another; he disoons all participation in any affair. Our veracity or judgment is often the only thing implicatcd in the denial: our guilt or innocence, honor or dishonor, are implicated in what we disoun.

If, like Zeno, any shall walk about, and yet
deny there is aoy motion in oature, surely that
man was constituted for Anticyra. Browne.
Sometimes, lest man should qoite his power dis-
ovn,
Hemakes that power to trembling nations known.
Jenys.
DISBELIEF, UNBELIEF.
DISBELIEF properly implies the believing that a thing is not, or refusing to believe that it is. UNBELIEF expresses properly a believing the contrary of what one has believed before : disbelief is most applicable to the ordinary events of life; unbelief to serious matters of opinion: our disbelief of the idle tales which are told by beggars is justified by the frequent detection of their falsehood; our Saviour had compassion on Thomas for
his unbelief, and gave him such evi lencen of bis identity as dissipated every doubt.

The atbeist has oot found his post tenable, and is therefore retired into deism, and a disbelief of revealed religion only. Abdison.
The opposites to faith are unbelief and credr. lity.

Tilcotson.

## DISCERNMENT, PENETRATION, DISCRIMINATION, JUDGMENT.

DISCERNMENT expresses the power of discerning ( $v$. To perceive). PENETRATION denotes the act or power of penetrating, from penetrate, in Latin penetraius, participle of penetro, and penitus, within, signifying to see into the interior. DISCRIMINATION denotes the act or power of discriminating, from discriminate, in Latin discriminatus, participle of discrimino, to make a difference. JUDGMENT denotes the power of judging, from judge, in Latin judico, compounded of jus and dico, signifying to pronounce right.
The first three of these terms do not express different powers, but different modes of the same power; namely, the power of seeing intellectually, or exerting the intellectual sight. Discernment is not so powerful a mode of intellectual vision as penetration; the former is a common faculty, the latter is a higher degree of the same faculty; it is the power of seeing quickly, and seeing in spite of all that intercepts the sight, and keeps the object out of view: a mad of common discernment discerns characters which are not cuncealed by any particular disguise; a man of penetration is not to be deceived by any artifice, however thoronghly cloaked or secured, even from suspicion. Discernment and penetration serve for the discovery of individual things by their outward marks ; discrim. ination is employed in the discovery of differences between two or more objects; the former consists of simple observation, the latter combines also comparison: discernment and penetration are great aids toward discrimination; be who can discern the springs of buman action, or pen. etrate the views of men, will be most fit ted for discriminating between the char acters of different men.

[^46]ad his disosrnmont to anthelpate anether's explanatlon or interrupted his argument.

Cumariland.
He is as slow to decide as he ls quick to apprehend, calmaly and deliberutely welghing every oppusite reason that is offered, and tracing it with a most Judicious penetration.

Melmoth's Lettein of Phiny.
Ilin observation was so quick and his feelings so renaltive that he could nicely diacriminate between the pleasime and the politeness of his sompany, and he never failed to stop before the iformer was exhausted.

Cumperland.
Although judgment derives nuch as'sistance from the three former operations, it is a totally distinct power: these only discover the things that are acting on external objeets by seeing them: the judyment is ereative; it produees by deduction from that which passes inwardly. Diseernment and the others are speculative; they are directed to that which is to be known, and are confined to present objects; they serve to discover truth and falsehood, perfections and defeets, motives and pretexts: the judgment is practical; it is directed to that which is to be done, and extends its views to the future; it marks the relations and conneetions of things; it forosees their cousequences and effects.

Of discernment, we say that it is clear; it serves to remove all obscurity and confusion: of penetration, we say that it is acute; it picrces every veil which falsehood draws before truth, and preventa us from being deceived: of discrimination, we say that it is nice; it renders our ideas neeurate, and serves to prevent ua from confounding oljeets; of judgment, we say that it is solid or sound; it renders the conduet prudent, and prevents us from committing mistakes or involving ourselves in embarrassments.

When the queation is to estimate the real quatitics of either peraons or things, we excreise discernment; when it is required to lay open that whieh art or cunning has eoncealed, we must exercise penetration: when the question is to determine the proportions and degreea of qualities in persons or things, we must use diserimination; when called upon to take any step or aet any part, we must employ judgment. Discernment is more or leas indiapensable for every man in private or public stations; be who has the most promiscuous dealings with men,
has the greatest need of it: penetration is of peculiar importance for princes and statesmen: discrimination is of grest utility for all who have to determine the charaetera and merits of others: judgmont is an abaolute requisite for all to whom the execution or management of concerna is intrusted.

Cool age advances renerably wise,
Turns on all hands its deep discerning eyes.
Pope
LIis defeets arose from hif lively talents and exquisite penetrution, he readily perceived and decrled the errors of his coadjuturs, and from the versatility of his politieal conduct acquired the nickname of the Weather-cock. Adolphus.
Perhape there is no character through all Shakspanre drawn with more spirit and just diserim. ination than Shylock's.

Henley.
I love him, I confess, extremely; but my affection doos by no means projudice my judgment.

Melmota's Letters of Pliny.
TO DISCLAIM, DISOWN.
DISCLAIM and DISOWN are both personal acts respeeting the individual who is the agent; to disclaim is to throw off a claim, as to disown ( $v$. To disavow) is not to admit as one's own; as claim, from the Latin clamo, signifies to dectare with a loud tone what we want as our own; so to disclaim is, with an equally loud or positive tone, to give up a claim: thia is a more positive set than to disown, which may be performed by insinuation, or by the mere abstaining to own. He who fects himself disgraced by the actions that are done by his nation or his family, will be ready to disclaim the very name whieh he bears in common with the offending party; an absurd pride sometimes impels nen to disown their relationship to those who are beneath them in external rank and coudition : an honest mind will diselaim all right to praise wbich it feels not to belong to itself; the fear of ridienle sometimes makes a man disown that which would redound to his honer.
The thing call'd life, with ease I can disclaim, And think it over-sold to purchase fame.

DRyden.
Here Priam's son, Deiphobus, he found,
Ho searcely knew him, striving to diaown
His blotted form, and blushing to be known.
Datden.

## DISCORD, STRIFE.

DISCORD derives its signification from the harshness produced in music by the
clashing of two strings which do not suit with each other; whence, in the moral sense, the chords of the mind which come into an unsuitable collision produce a discord. STRIFE comes from the word strive, to denote the action of striving, that is, in an angry manner ( $v$. To contend): where there is strife there must be discord; but there may be dissord without strife: discord consists most in the feeling; strife consists most in the outward action. Discord evinces itself in various ways; by looks, words, or actions: strife displays itself in words or acts of violence. Discord is fatal to the happiness of families; strife is the greatest enemy to peace between neighbors; discord arose between the goddesses on the apple being thrown into the assembly; Homer commences his poem with the strife that took place between Agamemnon and Achilles. Discord may arise from mere difference of opinion; strife is in general occasioned by some matter of personal interest ; discord in the councils of a nation is the almost certain forerunner of its ruin; the common principles of politeness forbid strife among persons of good-breeding.
Good Heav'n 1 what dire effects from civil discord flow.

Dryden.
Let men their days in senseless atrife employ, We in eternal peace and constant joy. Pope.

## to discover, manifest, declare.

The idea of making known is conveyed by all these terms; but DISCOVER, which signifies simply to take off the covering from anything, expresses less than MANIFEST (v. Apparent), and that than DECLARE (v. To declare) : we discover by any means direct or indirect; we manifest by unquestionable marks; we declare by express words: talents and dispositions discover themselves; particular feelings and sentiments manifest themselves; facts, opinions, and sentiments are deelared; children early discover a turn for some particular art or science; a person manifests his regard for another by unequivocal proofs of kindness; a person of an open disposition is ant to declare his sentiments without disguise.

He had several other conversations with him about that time, in none of which did he discov-
er any other wish in favor of America than for its ancient condition.

At no tine, perhaps, did the legislature manifest a more tender regard to that fundamental principle of British constitutional policy, hereditary monarchy, than at the time of the revolution.

Burke.
This man, with his whole squadron, came into the river and declared for the Parliamert.

Clarendon.
Animals or unconscious agents may be said to discover, as things discover symptoms of decay; but persons only, or things personified, manifest or declare; cruelty may be manifested by actions; the works of the creation declare the wisdom of the Creator.

Seseral brute creatures discover in their actions something like a faint glimmering of reason. Adnison.
Is the goodness or wisdom of the Divine Being more manifested in this his proceedings?

> Addison.

The visible things of the creation declars in every language of the world the widdom and goodness of Him who made them. Sherlocs.

## DISCREDIT, DISGRACE, REPROACH, scandal.

DISCREDIT signifies the loss of credit ; DISGRACE, the loss of grace, favor, or esteem; REPROACH stands for the thing that deserves to be reproached; and SCANDAL for the thing that gives scandal or offence. The conduct of men in their various relations with each other may give rise to the unfavorable sentiment which is expressed in common by these terms. Things are said to reflect discredit or disgrace, or to bring reproach or scandal on the individual. These terms seem to rise in sense one upon the other: disgrace is a stronger term than discredit; reproach than disgrace; and scandal than reproach.

Discredit interferes with a man's credit or respectability; disgrace marks him out as an object of unfavorable distinction; reproach makes him a subject of reproachful conversation; scandal makes him an object of offence or even abhorrence. As regularity in hours, regularity in habits or modes of living, regularity in payments, are a credit to a family; so is any deviation from this order to its discredit: as moral rectitude, kindness, charity, and benevolence serve to insure the good-will and esteem of men, so do instances of
unfair dealing, cruelty, inhumanity, and an unfeeling temper tend to the disgrace of the offender: as a life of distinguish. ed virtue or particular instances of moral exccilence may cause a man to be spoken of in strong terms of commendation; so will flagrant atrocities or a course of immorality cause his name and himself to be the general subject of reproach: as the profession of a Christian with a consistent practico is the greatest ornament which a man can put on; so is the profession with an inconsistent practice the greatest deformity that can be witnessed; it is calculated to bring a scandal on religion itself in the eyes of those who do not know and feel its intrinsic excellences.
'Tis the duty of every Christian to be concerned for the reputation or discredit his life may bring on his profession.

Rogers.
I was secretly concerned to see human nature In 80 much wretchedness and disgruce, but could not forbear smiling to hear Sir Roger advise the old woman to avoid all commurication witli the devil.

Addison.
There cannot be a greater reproach to a gentleman than to be called a liar. Tather.

To appeur gay and pleasant before the customary time of mourning was expired, was no small matter of scandal.

Pottea.
Discredit and disgrace are negative qualities, and apply properly to the outward and adventitious circumstances of a person; but reproach and scandal are something positive, and have respect to the moral character. A man may bring discredit or disgrace upon himself by trivial or indifferent things; but reproach or scandal follows only the violation of some positive law, moral or divine.
When a man is made up wholly of the dove without the least grain of the serpent in his composition, he becomes ridiculous in many circumstances of hils life, and very often diseredits his best actions.

Addison.
No name was more opprobrious (among the Greeks) than that of a mercenary; it heing looked upon as a disgrace for any person of ingenucus birth and education to serve for wages. l'otter.

The scandal was so great, and the case so utheard of, that any man discharged upon a public trial should be again proceeded against by new evidence for the same offence, that Cromwell himself thought not fit to undergo the reprrach of it, but was in the end prevailed with to set him at libarty.

Glarendon.
The term reproach is also taken for the object of roproach, and scandal for the object of scandal.

The cruelty of Mary's persecution equalled the deeds of those tyrants who hava been the re. proach to human naturs.

Roaertion.
Oh ! hadst thou died when first thou saw'st the light,
Or died at least before thy nnptial rite; A better fate than vain/y thus to boast,
And fly the scandal of the Trojan host.
Popt

## TO DISCUAS, EXAMINE.

DISCUSS, in Latin discussus, participle of discutio, signifies to shake asunder or to separate thoroughly so as to see the whole composition. EXAMINE, in Latin examino, comes from examen, the middle beam, or thread, by which the poise of the balance is held, because the judgment bolds the balance in examining.

The intellectual operation expressed by these terms is applied to objects that cannot be immediately discerned or understood, but they vary both in mode and degree. Discussion is altogether carried on by verbal and personal communication; examination proceeds by reading, reflection, and observation; we often examine, therefore, by discussion, which is properly one mode of examination; a discussion is always carried on by two or more persons; an examination may be carried on by one ooly: politics are a frequent though not always a pleasant subject of discussion in social meetings; complicated questions cannot be too thoroughly examined.
A country fellow distingoishes himself as mach in the churcil-yard as a citizen does upon the Change ; the whole parish politics being generally discussed in that place either after sermon or before the bell rings.

Addison.
Men follow their inclinations without emamining whether there be any principles which they ought to form for regulating their conduct.

BLair.

## TO DISENGAGE, DISENTANGLE, EXTHIcate.

DISENGAGE signifies to make free from an engagement. DISENTANGLE is to get rid of an entanglement. EXTRICATE, in Latin extricatus, from ex and trica, a hair or noose, signifies to get, as it were, out of a noose. As to engage signifies simply to bind, and entangle signifies to bind in an involved manner, to disentangle is naturally applied to matters of greater difficulty and perplexity than to disengage; and as the term extricato

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meludes the idea of that which would hold fast and keep within a tight involvement, it is employed with respect to matters of the greatest possible embarrassment and intricacy: we may be disengaged from an oath; disentangled from pecuniary difficulties; extricated from a perplexity: it is not right to expect to be disengaged from all the duties which attach to men as members of society: he who enters into metaphysioal disquisitions must not expect to be soon disentangled: when a general has committed hlmself by coming into too close a contact with a very superior foree, he sometimes may be able to extricate himself from his awkward situation by his generalship.
In old age the voice of nature calls you to leave to others the bustle and contest of the world, and gradually to disengage yourselvos from a burden which begins to exceed your strength.

Blair.
Savage seldom appeared to be melancholy but when some sudden misfortune had fallen upon him, and even then in a few moments he would disentangle himself from his perplexity.

Johnaon.
Nature felt its inability to extricato itself from the consequences of grilt: the Gospel reveals the plan of Divine interposition and aid. Blatr.

## disgust, loathing, nausea.

DISGUST, from dis and gust, in Latin guastus, the taste, denotes the aversion of the taste to an object. LOATHING, $v$. To abhor. NAUSEA, in Latin nausea, from the Greek vavs, a ship, properly denotes sea-sickness.

Disgust is less than boathing, and that than nausea. When applied to sensible objects we are disgusted with dirt; we loathe the smell of food if we have a sickly appetite; we nauseate medicine: and when applied metaphorically, we are disqusted with affectation; we loathe the endcarments of those who are offensive; we nauseate all the enjoyments of llfe, after having made an intemperate use of them, and discovered their inanity.

An enumeration of examples to prove a position which nobody denied, as it was from the beginning superfinous, must quickly grow diequsting.

Jornson.
Thus winter falls,
A heavy gloom oppressive o'er the world, Through nature shedding influence malign, The sonl of man dies in hln, louthing life.

Thomson.

So Th' irresoluble oil, So gentle late and blandishing, in tloods Of rancid bile o'erflows: what tumults hence, What horrors rise, were nauscous to relate.

Abmstrone

## DISHONEST, KNAVISH.

DISHONEST marks the contrary to honest: KNAVISH marks the likeness to a knave. Dishonest characterizes simply the mode of action: knavish charac. terizes the agent as well as the action: what is dishonest violates the established laws of man; what is knavish supposes peculiar apt and design in the accomplishment. It is dishonest to take anything from another which does not belong to one's self; it is knavish to get it by fraud or artifice, or by imposing on the confidence of anotber. We may prevent dis homest practices by ordinary means of se curity; but we must not trust ourselves in the company of knavish people if we do not wish to be overreached.

Gaming is too nnreasonable and dishonest for a gentleman to addict himself to it.

Lord Lytileton.
Not to langh when nature prompts is but a knavish hypocritical way of making a mask of one's face.

Pope.

## DISHONOR, DISGRACE, SHAME.

DISHONOR signifies what does away honor. DISGRACE, v. Th degrade. SHAME signifies what produces ahome. Dishonor deprives a person of those outward marks of honor which men look for according to their rank and station, or it is the state of being dashonored or less thought of and esteemed than one wishes. Disgrace deprives a man of the favor and kindness which he has heretofore received from others, or it is the state of being positively cast off by those who have before favored him, or by whom he ought to be looked upon with favor. It is the fault of the individual that causes the disgrace. Shame expresses more than disgrace; it is occasioned by direct moral turpitude, or that of which one ought to be ashamed. The fear of dishonor act as a laudable stimulus to the discharge of one's duty; the fear of disgrace or shame serves to prevent the commission of vices or crimes. A soldier feels it a dishonor not to be placed at the post of danger, but he is not always sufficiently
alive to the diagrace of being punished, nor is he deterred from his irregularitles by the open shame to which he is sometimes put in the presenee of his fellowsoldiers.
'Tle ne dishonor fer the brave to die. Drynen.
1 was secretly concerned to see human natare in so much wretchedness and diugraee, but ceuld not forbear stmiling to hear Sir Roger advise the old woman'to aroid all cominunications with the devil.

Addison.
Like a dull actor,
I have fergot my part, and I am out
Even to a full diagrace.
Sharbpeare.
Where the preud theatres discleae the scene Which interwoven Britens seem to raise, And show the triumph which their ehame displays.

Dryden,
$\Delta s$ epithets they likewise rise in sense, and are distinguished by other characteristics: a dishonorable action is that which violates the principles of hener; a disgraceful action is that which reflects disgrace; a shameful action is that of which one ought to be fully ashamed: it is very dishonorable for a man not to keep his word; very disgraceful for a gentleman to associate with these whe are his inferiors in station and education; very shameful for him to use his rank and influence over the lower orders only to mislead them from their duty. The sense of what is dishonorable is to the superior what the sense of the disgraceful is to the inferior, but the sense of what is shameful is independent of rank or station, and forms a part of that moral sense which is inherent in the breast of every rational creature. Whoever, therefore, cherishes in himself a lively sense of what is dishonorable or disgraceful is tolerably secure of never committing anythiog that is shameful.

He dia dishonorable find These articles which did our state decrease.

DANIEL,
Masters must correct their aervants with gentheness, prudence, and mercy, net with upbraiding and disgraeeful language. Taylor. This, all threugh that great prince's pride, did fall
And came to ahameful end. Spenser.

## TO DISJOINT, DISMEMBER.

DISJOINT signifies to separate at the joint. DISMEMBER signifies to separate the members.

The terms bere spoken of derive their
distinct meaning and applieation from the signification of the words joint and member. A limb of the hody may be disjointed if it be so put out of the joint that it cannot act ; but the body itself is dismembered when the different limbs or parts are separated from each other.

Along the woods, aleng the meorish fens, Sighs the sad genius of the cerning storm, And up among the loose diajointed cliffs.

Where shall I find his corpse? What earth augtains
Hia trunk ddsmembered and his cold remains? Dryden.
So in the metapherical sense our ideas are said so to be digjointed when they are so tbrown out of their order that they do not fall in with one another: and kingdoms are said to be dismembered where any part or parts are separated from the rest.

And yet deluded man,
A scene of crude diajointed visions past, And broken slumbers, rises atill resolv'd With new Hush'd hopes to run the giddy round. 'Iueman.
I perhaps shall prove in a future letter, with a political map of Europe before my eyc, that the liberty and independence of the great Christian commenwealth could not exist with such a dismemberment, unless it were follewed, as prebably enough it would, by the dismemberment of every other considerable ceuntry in Eurepe.

Burke.
DISLIKE, DISPLEASURE, DISSATISFAOTION, DISTABTE, DISGUBT.
DISLIKE, $v$. Aversion. DISPLEASURE signifies the epposite to pleasure. DISSATISFACTION is the opposite to satisfaction. DISTASTE is the opposite to an agreeable taste.
Dislike and dissatisfaction denote thp feeling or sentiment produced either by persons or things: displeasure, that produced by persons only: distaate and dis. gust, that produced by things enly. In regard to persons, dislike is the sentiment of equals and persons unconnected; displeasure and dissatisfaction, of superiors, or such as stand in some particular relation to each other. Strangers may feel a dislike upon seeing each otber: parents or masters may feel displeasure or dissatisfaction: the former sentiment is occasioned by supposed faults in the moral conduct of the child or servant ; the latter by supposed defective services. I

## DISLIKE

dislike a person for his assumption or loquacity; I am displeased with him for his carelessness, and dissatisfied with his lahor. Displeasure is awakened by whatever is done amiss: disatisfaction is caused by what happens amiss or contrary to our expectation. Accordingly, the word dissatisfaction is not confined to persons of a particular rank, but to the nature of the connection which subsists between them. Whoever does not receive what they think themselves entitled to from another are dissatisfied. A servant may be dissatisfied with the treatment he meets with from his master; and may be said, therefore, to express dissatisfaction, though not displeasure.

The jealous man is not, indeed, angry if you dislike another ; but if you tind those faults which are found in his own character, you discover not only your dislike of another, hut of himself.

Admison.
The threatenings of conscience suggest to the sinner some deep and dark malignity contained in guilt, which has drawn upon his head such high displeasure from heaven.

Blair.
In this confldential correspondence, Townshend and Walpole atated freely their objections to the continental politics, declared their dissatisfaction at the interference of the Hanoverians, and their contempt at their venal and interested conduct.

Coxe.
In regard to things, dislike is a casual feeling not arising from any specific cause. A dissatisfaction is connected with our desires and expectations: we dislike the performance of an actor from one or many causes, or from no apparent cause; but we are dissatisfied with his performance if it fall short of what we were led to expect. In order to lessen the number of our dislihes, we ought to endeavor not to dislike without a cause; and in order to lessen our dissatisfaction we ought to be moderate in our expectation.

Marmurs rise with mix'd applause
Just as they favor or dislike the cause.
Dryden.
I do not like to see snything deatroyed ; any void in society. It was therefore with no disappointment or diesatisfaction that my observation did not present to me sny incorrigible vice in the noblesse of France.

Burke.
Dislike, distaste, and disgust rise on each other in their signification. Distaste expresses more than dislike; and disgust more than distaste. Dislike is a partial feeling, quickly produced and
quickly subsiding ; distaste is a settled feeling, gradually produced, and permanent in its duration: disgust is either transitory or otherwise; momentarily or gradually produced, but stronger than either of the two others. Caprice bas a great share in our likes and distikes: distaste depends upon the changes to which the constitution physically and mentally is exposed: disgust owes its origin to the nature of things, and their natural opera tion on the minds of men. A child likes and dislikes bis playthings without any apparent cause for the change of sentiment: after a long illness a person will frequently take a distaste to the food or the amusements which before afforded him much pleasure: what is indecent or filthy is a natural ohject of disgust to every person whose mind is not depraved. It is good to suppress unfounded dislikes; it is difficult to overcome a strong distaste ; it is advisable to divert our attention from ohjects calculated to create disgust.

Dryden's dislike of the priesthood is imputed by Langhaine, and I think hy Brown, to a repulse which he suffered when he solicited ordination.

Joungon.
Because true history, through frequent satiety and similitude of things, works a distaste and misprision in the minds of men, poesy cheereth and refresheth the soul, chanting things rare and various.

Bacon.
Vice, for vice is necessary to be shown, shoold alwaya disgust.

Joingon.

## DISLIKE, DISINCLINATION.

DISLIKE, v. Dislike. DISINOLINA. TION is the reverse of inclination ( $v$. Attachment). Dislike applies to what one has or does; disinclination only to what one does: we dislike the thing we have, or dislike to do a thing; but we are disinclined only to do a thing. They express a similar feeling that differs in degree. Disinclination is but a small degree of dislike; dislike marks something contrary ; disinclination does not amount to more than the absence of an inclination. None but a disobliging temper has a dislike to comply with reasonahle requests; hut the most obliging disposition may have an occasional disinclination to comply with a particular request.
It often happens that $s$ hoy, who could construe a fable of Assop at six or seven years of

## DISORDER

age, having exhausted his little stock of attention and diligence in making that notable acquisitlon, grows weary of his task, conceives a dieuke for study, and perhaps makes but an indiffereat progress afterward.

Cowfer.
To be grave to a man's mirth, or inattentive to his discourse, argues s dioinchination to be entertained hy him.

Steele.

## TO DISMAY, DAUNT, APPALL.

DISMAY, in French desmayer, is probably changed from desmouvoir, signifying to move or pull down the spirit. DAUNT, changed from the Latin domitus, conquered, signifies to bring down the spirit. APPALL, compounded of the intensive $a p$ or ad, and palleo, to grow pale, signifies to make pale with fear.

The effect of fear on the spirit is strongly expressed by all these terms; but dismay expresses less than dauni, and this than appall. We are dismayed by alarming circumstances; we are daunted by terrifying; we are appalled by horrid circumstances. A severe defeat will dismay so as to lessen the force of resistance: the fiery glare from the eyes of a ferocious beast will daunt him who was venturing to approach: the sight of an apparition will appall the stoutest heart.
So fies a herd of beeves, that hear, dismay'd, The lions roaring through the midnight shade.

Pope.
Jove got such heroes as my sire, whose soul No fear could daunt, nor earth nor hell control.
Now the last ruin the whole host appalls;
Now Greece had trembled in her wooden walls, But wise Ulysses call'd Tydides forth. Pore.

TO DISMISS, DISCHARGE, DISCARD.
DISMISS, in Latin dismissus, participle of dimitto, compounded of $d i$ and mitto, signifies to send asunder or away. DISCHARGE signifies to release from a charge. DISCARD, in Spanish descartar, compounded of des and cartar, signifies to lay cards out or aside, to cast them off.

The idea of removing to a distance is included in all these terms; but with various collateral circumstances. Dismiss is the general term ; discharge and discard are modes of dismissing: dismiss is applicable to persons of all stations, but used more particularly for the higher orders : discharge. on the other hand, is
confined to those in a subordinate sta tion. A clerk is dismissed; a menial servant is discharged: an officer is dismissed; a soldier is discharged.
In order to an accommodation, they agreed
npon this preliminary, that each of them should
Immediately dismiss his privy councillor. Addison.
Mr. Pope's errands were so frequent and frivolous that the footmen in time avoided and neglected him, and the Earl of Oxford discharged some of his servants for their obstinate refusal of his messages.

Jounbon.
Neither dismiss nor discharge define the motive of the action; they are used indifferently for that which is voluntary, or the contrary: discard, on the contrary, always marks a dismissal that is not agreeable to the party discarded. A person may request to be dismissed or discharged, but never to be discarded. The dismissal or discharge frees a person from the obligation or necessity of performing a certain duty; the discarding throws him out of a desirable rank or station.
Dismiss the people then, and give command With strong repsst to hearten every band.

Pope.
I am so great a lover of whatever is Freach, thst I lately discarded a humble admirer because he neither spoke that toague nor drank claret.

Bimoell.
They are all applied to things in the moral sense: we are said to dismiss our fears, to discharge a duty, and to discard a sentiment from the mind.
Resume your courage, and dismiss your care.
Dryden.
If I am bonnd to pay money on a certain day, I discharge the obligation if I pay it before twelve o'clock at night. Beacestone. Justice discards party, friendship, and kindred. AdDison.

TO DISORDER, DERANGE, DISCONCERT, DISCOMPOSE.
DISORDER signifies to put out of order. DERANGE, from de and range or rank, signifies to put out of the rank in which it was placed. DISCONCERT, to put out of the concert or harmony. DISCOMPOSE, to put out of a state of composure.

All these terms express the idea of putting out of order: but the latter three vary as to the mode or object of the action. The term disorder is used in a per-

## DISORDFR

fectly indefinite form, and might be applied to any object. As everything may be in order, so may everything be disordered; yet it is seldom used except in regard to such things as have been in a natural order. Derange and disconcert are employed in speaking of such things as have heen put into an artificial order. To derange is to disorder that which has been systematically arranged, or put in a certain range; and to disconcert is to disorder that which has been put together by concert or contrivance: thus the body may be disordered; a man's affairs or papers deranged; a scheme disconcert\&d. To discomposc is a species of derangement in regard to trivial matters: thus a tucker, a frill, or a cap may he discomposed. The slightest change of diet will disorder people of tender constitutions: nisfortunes are apt to derange the affairs of the most prosperous: the unexpected return of a master to his home disconcerts the schemes which have been formed by the domestics: tbose who are particular as to their appearance are careful not to have any part of their dress discomposed.

He used to say he never cared to see the treasury swell like a disordered spleen, when the other parts of the commonwealth were in a consumption.

Our forelgn politics are as much deranged as our domestic policy.

Buaxe.
Thy senate is a scene of civll jar, Chaos of contrarieties at war,
Where obstinacy takes his sturdy stand, To ddsconcert what policy has planned.

Cowpen.
What he says of the Slbyls' prophecies may be properly applied to every word of his; they must be read in order as they lie, the least breath discomposes them; and some of their divinity is lost.

Dryden.
When applied to the mind, disorder and derange are said of the intellect; disconcert and discompose of the ideas or spirits: the former denoting a permanent state; the latter a temporary or transient state. The mind is said to be disordered when the faculty of ratiocination is in any degree interrupted; the intellect is said to be deranged when it is brought into a positive state of incapacity for action: persons are sometimes disordered in their minds for a time by particular occurrences, who do not bscome actually deranged; a person is said to be disoon-
certed who suddenly loses his collected. ness of thinking: he is said to be discomposed who loses his regularity of feeling. A sense of shame is the most apt to disconcert: the more irritable the temper, the more easily one is discomposed.

Since devotion itself may disorder the mind, unless ita heats are tempered with caution or prudence, we should be particularly careful to keep our reason as cool as possible. ADDison.

All passion implies a violent emotion of mind; of course it is apt to derange the regular course of our ideas.

Blaita.
There are men whose powers operate only at leisure and in retirement; and whose intellectual vigor deserts them in conversation; whom merriment confuses, and objection disconcerts.

Johnson.
But with the changeful temper of the skies, As rains condedse, and sunshine rarefles, So turn the species in their alter'd minds, Compos'd by calms, and discompos'd by winds. Dryden.

## DISORDER, DISEASE, DISTEMPER, MATADY.

DISORDER signifies the state of heing out of order. DISEASE signifies the state of being ill at ease. DISTEMPRR signifies the state of being out of temper, or out of a due temperament. MALADY, from the Latin malus, evil, signjfies an ill.

All these terms agree in their application to the state of the animal body. Disorder is, as before (v. To disorder), the general term, and the other specific. In this general sense disorder is altogether indefinite; but in its restricted sense it expresses less than all the rest: it is the mere commencement of a disease: disease is also more general than the other terms, for it comprehends every serious and per manent disorder in the animal economy, and is therefore of universal application. The disorder is slight, partial, and transitory: the disease is deep-rooted and permanent. The disorder may lie in the extremities: the disease lies in the humors and the vital parts. Occasional headaches, colds, or what is merely cutaneous, are termed disorders; fevers, dropsies, and the like, are diseases. Distem. per is used for such particularly as throw the animal frame most completely out of its temper or course, and is consequently applied properly to virulent disorders, such as the small-pox. Malady has leas
of a technical sense than the other terms; it refera more to the suffering than to the state of the body. There may be many maladies where there is no disease; but diseases are themselves in general maladies. Onr maladies are frequently born with us; hut our diseases may come npon us at any time of life. Blindnces $s$ in itself a malady, and may be prodnced by a disease in the eye. Our disorders are frequently cured by abstain. ing from those thinge which caused them; the whole science of medicine codsiata in finding out suitable remedies for our diseases; our maladies may be lessened with patience, althongh they cannot always be alleviated or removed hy art.
Physicians tell ni of a dizorder in which the whole body is so exquiaitely aensible, that the sliglitest tonch gives pain.

Goldsmith.
At Epidaurus, a city of Peloponnesus, there was a temple of Nscinlapiua, famed for curing diseases, the remedles of which were revealed in dreams.

Potter.
Thus has Hippocrates, bo long after Homer writ, subscribed to his knowledge in the rise and progress of the distemper.

Pope.
Phillips has been always praised, without contradiction, as a man modest, blameleas, and pious, who bore narrowness of fortune without discontent, and tedions and painful maladies without impatience.

JOHNSON.
The terms disorder, disease, and distemper may be applied with a similar diatinction to the mind as well as the body. The disorders are either of a temporary or a permanent natnre; but, unless specified to the contrary, are underatood to be temporary: diseases consist in vicious habits : our distempers arise from the violent operations of passion; our maladies lie in the injuries which the affections occasion. Any pertnrbation in the mind la a disorder: avarioe is a diseasse: melancholy is a distemper as far as it throws the midd out of its bias ; it is a malady as far as it occaslons suffering.

Strange disorders are bred in the mind of those men whose passions are not regulated by virtue. ADDibon.
The jealons man's diseass is of so malignant a nature that it converts all it takes into its own nourishment.

ADDison.
A person that is crazed, though with pride or malice, is a aight very mortifying to human nature; but when the distemper arises from any indiscreet fervors of devotion, it deserves onr compassion in a more particular manner. Addison. Lova's a malady withont a cure.

TO DISPARAGE, DETRACT, TRADUCE; DEPRECLATE, DEGRADE, DECRY.
DISPARAGE, compounded of dis and parage, from par, equal, signifies to make a thing unequal or below what it ought to be. DETRACT, v. To asperse. TRA. DUCE, in Latin traduco or transduco, significe to carry from one to another that which is unfavorable. DEPRE CLATE, from the Latio pretium, a price, aignifies to bring down the price. DEGRADE, v. To abase. DECRY signifie literally to cry down.

The idea of lowering the value of an object is common to all these words, which differ in the circumstaoces and object of the action. Disparagement is the most indefinite in the manner: detract and traduce are specific in the forma by which an object is lowered : disparagement respects the mental endowments and qualifications: detract and traduce are said of the moral character; the former, however, in a less specific manner than the latter. We disparage a man's performance by apeaking alightingly of it: we detract from the merits of a person by ascribing his success to cbance; we traduce him by handing abont tales that are unfavorable to his reputation: thus authors are apt to disparage the writings of their rivals; or a aoldier may detraet from the akill of his commander; or he may traduce him hy relating scandalous reports.
It is a hard and nice aubject for a man to speak of himbelf; it grates his own heart to say anything of disparagement, and the reader's ears to hear anything of praise from him. Cowley.

I have very often been tempted to write invectives upon those who have detracted from my works; but I look upon it as a peculiar happiness that I have always hindered my resentment from proceeding to this extremity.

ADDIGON.
Both Homer and Virgil had their compositions nsurped hy others; both were envied and traduced during their lives.

Walsh.
To disparage, detract, and traduce can be applied only to persons, or that which is personal; depreciate, degrade, and decry; to whatever is an object of esteem; we depreciate and degrade, therefore, things as well as persons, and decry things: to depreciate is, however, not ao atrong a term as to degrade, for the language which is employed to depreciate will be mild corr-

## DISPARITY

pared with that used for degrading: we may depreciate an object by implication, or in indirect terms; but barsh and unseemly epithets are employed for degrading: thus a man may be said to depreciate ltuman nature who does not represent it as capable of its true elevation; he degrades it who sinks it below the scale of rationality. We may depreciate or degrade an individual, a language, and the like; we decry measures and principles: the former two are an act of an individual; the latter is properly the act of many Some men have such perverted notions that they are always depreciating whatever is esteemed excellent in the world: they whose interests have stifled all feelings of humanity have degraded the poor Africans, in order to justify the enslaving of them: political partisans commonly decry the measures of one party, in order to exalt those of another.

The business of our modish French authors is to depreciate humian nature, and consider it inder its worst appearances.

Addison.
Akenside certainly retained an unuecessary and outrageous zeal tor what he called and thought liherty; a zeal which sometimes disguises from the world an envions desire of plundering wealth, or degrading greatness.

Johnson.
Ignorant men are very subject to decry those beanties in a celebrated work which they have not eyes to discover.

ADDISON.

## TO DISPARAGE, DEROGATE, DEGRADE.

DISPARAGE, v. To disparage. DEROGATE, in Latin derogatus, from derogo, to repeal in part, signifies to take from a thing that which is claimed. DEGRADE, ч. To abase.

Disparage is here employed, not as the act of persons, but of things, in which case it is allied to derogate, but retains its indefinite and general sense as before: circumstances may disparage the performances of a writer; or they may derogate from the bonors and dignities of an individnal: it would be a high disparagement to an anthor to have it known that he had been guilty of plagiarism; it derogates from the dignity of a magistrate to take part in popular measures. To degrade is here, as in the former case, a much stronger expression than the other two: whatever disparages or derogates does but take away a part from
the value: but whatever degrades a thing sinks it many degrees in the estimation of those in whose eyes it is degraded; in this manner religion is degraded by the low arts of its enthusiastic professors: whatever tends to the disparagement of learning or knowledge does injury to the canse of truth; whatever derogates from the dignity of a man in any office is apt to degrade the office itself.

The man who scruples not breaking his word in little things, would not suffer in his own conscience so great pain for failures of consequence, as he who thinks every little offence against truth and justice a disparagement. Steble.
I think we may say, withont derogating from those wonderful performances (the Iliad and平neid), that there is an unquestionable magnificence in every part of Paradise Lost, and indeed a much greater than could have been formed upon any Pagan system.

AdDison.
Of the mind that can deliberately pollute itself with ideal wickedness, for the sake of spreading the contagion in society, I wish not to conceal or excuse the depravity. Such degradation of the dignity of genins cannot be contemplated but with grief and indignation.

Johnson.

## DISPARITY, INEQUALITY.

DISPARITY, from $d i s$ and $p a r$, in Greek $\pi a \rho a$, with or by, signifies an unfitness of objects to be by one another. INEQUALITY, from the Latin cquus, even, signifies having no regularity.

Disparity applies to two objects which should meet or stand in coalition with each other: inequality is applicable to those that are compared with each other: the disparity of age, situation, and circumstances is to be considered with regard to persons entering into a matrimonial connection: the inequality in the portion of labor which is to be performed by two persons is a gronnd for the in. equality of their recompense: there is a great inequality in the chance of success, where there is a disparity of acquirements in rival candidates: the disparity between David and Goliath was such as to render the success of the former more strikingly miraculous; the inequality in the conditions of men is not attended with a corresponding inequality in their happiness.

You formerly observed to me that nothing made a more ridicnlous figure in a man's liff than the disparity we often find in him, sick and well.

Pope

Inequality of behavior, either in prosperity or adverslty, are alike ungraceful in man that is born to die.

Steele.

## DISPASSIONATE, COOL.

DISPASSIONATE is taken negatively, it marks merely the absence of passion; COOL ( $v$. Cool) is taken positively, it marks an entire freedom from pas3ion.

Those who are prone to be passionate must learn to be dispassionate; those who are of a cool temperament will not suffer their passions to be roused. Dispassionate solely respects angry or irritaole sen. timents; cool respects any perturbed feeling: when we meet with an angry disputant it is necessary to be dispassion. ate, in order to avoid quarrels; in the moment of danger our safety often depends upon our coolness.

As to violence the lady (Madame d'Acier) has infinitely the better of the gentleman ( $M$. de la Motte). Nothing can be more polite, dispassionate, or sensible, than his manner of managing the dispute.

Pope.
I conceived this poem, and gave loose to a degree of resentment, which perhaps I ought not to have indulged, but which in a cooler hour I cannot altogether condemn.

Cowpen.

## TO DISPEL, DISPERSE.

DISPEL, from the Latin pello, to drive, signifies to drive away. DISPERSE signifies merely to cause to come asunder.

Dispel is a more forcible action than to disperse: we destroy the existence of a thing by dispelling it; we merely destroy the junction or cohesion of a body by dispersing it; the sun dispels the clouds and darkness; the wind disperses the clouds, or a surgeon disperses a tumor.

As when a. western whirlwind, charg'd with storms,
Dispals the gathering clouds that Notus forms.
Pope.
The foe dispers'd, their hravest warriors kill'd, Fierce as a whirlwind now 1 swept the field.

Pore.
Dispel is used figuratively; disperse only in the natural sense: gloom, ignorance, and the like, are dispelled; hooks, people, papers, and the like, are dispersed.

[^47]
## TO DISPENSE, DISTRIBUTE.

DISPENSE, from the Latin pendo, to pay or bestow, signifies to bestow in different directions; and DISTRIBUTE, from the Latin tribuo, to bestow, signifies the same thing. Dispense is an indis. criminate action ; distribute is a particularizing action: we dispense to all; we distribute to each individually: nature dispenses her gifts bountifully to all the inhabitants of the earth; a parent distributes among his children different tokens of his parental tenderness. Dispense is an indirect action that bas no immediate reference to the receiver; dis. tribute is a direct and personal action communicated by the giver to the receiver: Providence dispenses his favors to those who put a sincere trust in him; a prince distributes marks of his favor and preference among his courtiers.
Thougly nature weigh our talents, and dispense To every man his modicum of sense; Yet much depends, as in the tiller's toil, On culture, and the sawing of the soil. Cowpen.
Pray be no niggard in distributing my love plentifully among our friends at the inns of court.

Howell.
TO DISPLEASE, OFFEND, VEX.
DISP,LEASE ( $v$. Dislike, displeasure) naturally marks the contrary of pleasing. OFFEND, from the Latin offendo, signifies to stumble in the way of. VEX, in Latin vexo, is a frequentative of veho, signifying literally to toss up and down.

These words express the painful sentiment which is felt by the supposed impropriety of another's conduct. Displease is not always applied to that which personally concerns ourselves; although offend and vex have always more or less of what is personal in them: a superior may be displeased with one who is under his charge for improper behavior toward persons in general; he will be offended with him for disrespectful behavior toward himself or neglect of his interests: circumstances as well as actions serve to displease; a supposed intention or design is requisite in order to offend; we may be displeased with a person, or at a thing; one is mostly offend. ed with the person; a child may be displeased at not having eny particular lib. erty or iodulgence granted to him; he
may be offended with his playfellow for an act of incivility or unkinduess.
Meantime imperial Neptune heard the sound Of raging billows hreaking on the ground; Displeae'd and feariny for his wat'ry reign, He rear'd his awful head above the main.

Dryden.
The emperor himself came running to the place in his armor, severely reproving them of cowardice who had forsaken the place, and grievously offended with those who had kept such negligent watch.

Knolles.
Displease respects mostly the inward state of feeling; offend and vex have most regard to the ontward cause which provokes the feeling: a humorsome person may be displeased without any apparent cause; but a captious person will at least have some avowed trifle for which he is offended. Vex expresses more than offend, it marks, in fact, frequent efforts to offend, or the act of offending under aggravated circumstances: we often unintentionally displease or offend; bnt he who vexes has mostly that object in view in so doing: any instance of neglect displeases; any marked instance of neglect offends; any aggravated instance of neglect vexes. The feeling of displeasure is more perceptible and vivid than that of offence; but it is less durable: the feeling of vexation is as transitory as that of displeasure, bnt stronger than either. Displeasure and vexation betray themselves by an angry word or look; offence discovers itself in the whole conduct: our displeasure is unjustifiable when it exceeds the measure of another's fault; it is a mark of great weakness to take offence at trifles; persons of the greatest irritability are exposed to the most frequent vexations.

That fear of diepleasing those who ought to be pleased, betrayed him sometimes into the other extreme.

Clabendon.
Nathan's fable of the poor man and his lamh had so good an effect as to convey instruction to the ear of a king without offending it.

Adpison.
These terms may all be applied to the acts of unconscions agents on the mind.

Foul sights do rather displeaes, in that they accite the memory of foul things than in the immediate objects.

Bacon.
Gross sins are plainly seen and easily avoided by persons that profess religion. But the indiscreet and dangerous use of imnocent and lawful
things, as it does not shoek and offenal our con sciences, so it is difficult to make people at al sensible of the danger of it.
These and a thousand mix'd emotions more, lirom ever-changing views of good and ill, Form'd infinitely varions, vew the mind With endless storm.

Thombon
As epithets they admit of a similar distinction: it is very displeasing to par ents not to meet with the most respectful attentions from children when they give them counsel ; and snch conduct on the part of children is highly offensive to God: when we meet with an offensive object, we do most wisely to turn away from it: when we are troubled with vex. atious affairs, our best and only remedy is patience.

The course of life was not displeasing to a young person; for here was fishing, billiards, hunting, visiting, and all country amusements.

Norise.
The religious man fears, the man of honor scorns to do an ill action. The latter considers vice as something that is beneath him, the other as something that is offensive to God.

Guardian.

## DISPLEASURE, ANGER, DISAPPROBATION.

DISPLEASURE, $v$. Dislike. ANGER, v. Anger. DISAPPROBATION is the reverse of approbation ( $v$. Assent).

Between displeasure and anger there is a difference both in the degree, the cause, and the consequence of the feeling: dis pleasure is always a softened und gentle feeling; anger is always a harsh feeling, and sometimes rises to vehemence and madness. Displexsure is always produced by some adequate cause, real or supposed; but anger may be provoked by every or any canse, according to the temper of the individual: displeasure is mostly satisfied with a simple verbal expression; but anger, unless kept down with great force, always seeks to return evil for evil. Displeasure and disappro. bation are to be compared inasmuch as they respect the conduct of those who are under the direction of others: displearure is an act of the will, it is an angry sentiment; disapprobation is an act of the judgment, it is an opposite opinion: any mark of self-will in a child is calculated to excite displeasure; a mistaken choice in matrimony may prodnce disapprobation in the parent.

Man in the merriest specles of the creation ; all above or below him are serious; he sees things in adifferent light from ether beings, and finds his mirth arlsing from ebjects that perhaps cause something like pity or diapleasure in a bigher nature.

From anger in its full impert, protracted into malcvolcnce and exerted in revenge, arise many of the evils to which the life of man is expesed.

Johnson.
The Queen-Regent's lrethers knew her secret disapprobation of the violent measures they were driving en.

Rebentson.
Displeasure is always produced by that which is already come to pass; disapprobation may be felt upon that which is to take place: a master feels displeasure at the carelessness of his servant; a parent expresses his disapprobation of his son's proposal to leave his situation: it is sometimes prudent to check our displeasure; and mostly prudent to express our disapprobation: the former cannot be expressed without inflicting pain; the latter canmot be withheld when required withont the danger of misleading.
They put him to death in a town of his own, against which he had expressed severe displsasure for thelr obstiuate rebellien against the king. Clarendon.
His firm disapprobation of the many unprincipled men and measures of those days, and a surly Integrity that unfitted him for the leoseness of the ceurt, centributed to render his situation unhappy.

Nerte.

## DISPOSAL, DISPOSITION.

These words derive their different meanings from the verb to dispose (v. To dispose), to which they owe their common origin. DISPOSAL is a personal act; it depends upon the will of the individual: DISPOSITION is an act of the judgment; it depends upon the nature of the things. The removal of a thing from one's self is involved in a disposal; the good order of the things is comprehended in their disposition. The disposal of property is in the hands of the rightful owner; the success of a battle often depends upon the right disposition of an army.
In the reign of Henry the Secend, if a man died withent wife or issue, the whole of his property was at his own disposal.

Blackstone.
Any difference, whether it be in the disposiMon, or in the fignre, or even in the color of the parts, is highly prejudicial to the idea of infinity.

## TO DIBPOSE, ARRANGE, DIGEST.

DISPOSE, in Frencb disposer, Latin disposui, preterite of dispono, or dis aud pono, signifies to place apart. ARRANGE, v. To class. DIGEST, in Latin digestus, participle of digero, or dis and gero, signifies to gather apart with design.

The idea of a systematic laying apart is common to all, and proper to the word dispose. We dispose when we arrange and digest; but we do not always ar. range and digest when we dispose: they differ in the circumstances and object of the action. There is less thought employed in disposing than in arranging and digesting; we may dispose ordinary matters by simply assigning a place to each; in this manner trees are disposed in a row, but we arrange and digest by an intellectual effort; in the first case by putting those togetber which ought to go together; and in the latter case by both separating that which is dissimilar, and bringing together that which is similar; in this manner books are arranged in a library according to their size or their subject; the materials for a literary production are digested; or the laws of the land are digested. What is not wanted should be neatly disposed in a suitable place: nothing contributes so much to beauty and convenicnce as the arrangement of everything according to the way and manner in which they should follow: when writings are involved in great intricacy and confusion, it is difficult to digest them.
Then near the altar of the darting king, Dispos'd in rank their hecatomb they bring.

Pope.
There is a preper arrangement of the parts of elastic bedies, which may be facilitated hy nse.

Chetre.
The marks and impressions of diseases, and the changes and devastations they bring npon the internal parts, should be very carefully examined and orderly digested in the comparativa anatemy we speak of.

Bacen.
In an extended and moral application of these words, we speak of a person's time, talent, and the like, being disposed to a good purpose; of a man's ideas being properly arranged, and of being digested into form. On the disposition of a man's time and property will depend in a great measure his success in life;
on the arrangement of accounts greatly depends his facility in conducting business; on the babit of digesting our thoughts depends in a great measure correctness of thinking.

Thus while she did her various power dispose, The world was free rom tyrants, wars, and woes. Prion.
When a number of distinct images are collected by these erratic and hasty surveys, the fancy is busied in arranging them.

Johnson.
Chosen friends, with sense refin'd,
Learning digested well.
Thomen.

## DISPOSITION, TEMPER.

DISPOSITION, from dispose (v. To dispose), signifies here the state of being disposed. TEMPER, like temperament, from the Latin temperamentum and tempero, to temper or manage, signifies the thing modelled or formed.

These terms are both applied to the mind and its bias; but disposition respects the whole frame and texture of the mind; temper respects only the bias or tone of the feelings.

My friend has his eye more upon the virtne and disposition of his children than their advancement or wealth.

Sterle.
The man who lives under a habitual sense of the Divine presence keeps up a perpetual cheerfulness of temper.

Adison.
Disposition is permanent and settled; temper may be transitory and fluctuating. The disposition comprehends the springs and motives of actions; the temper influences the action of the moment: it is possible and not infrequent to have a good disposition with a bad temper, and vice versa.

Akenside was a young man warm with every notion that by nature or accident had been connected with the sonnd of liberty, and by an eccentricity which snch dispasitions do not easily avoid, a lover of contradiction, and no friend to anything established.

Jonnson.
He gave much matter in few words; and as he seldom, if ever, betrayed a heat of temper, a false conclusion might be drawn, that because he controlled bis passions he disguised his heart.

Cumbenland.
A good disposition makes a man a useful member of society, but not always a good companiou; a good temper renders him acceptable to all and peaceable with all, but esseatially useful to none: a good disposition will go far toward cor-
recting the errors of temper; but where there is a bad disposition there are no hopes of amendment. The disposition is properly said to be natural, the temper is rather acquired or formed by circumstances.
I lamented that any man possessing such a fund of information, with a benevolence of soul that comprehended all mankind, a temper most placid, and a heart most social, should snffer in the world's opinion by that obsenrity to which his ill-fortune, not bis natural disposition, had rednced him.

Cumherlana.
If the temper be taken for what is natural, it implies either the physical temperament or that frame of mind which results from or is influenced by it.

In coffee-houses a man of my temper is in his element; for if be cannot talk he can be still more agreeable to his company, as well as pleased in himself in being a hearer.

Stemle.

## DISPOSITION, LNCLINATION.

DISPOSITION in the former section is taken for the general frame of the mind; in the present case for its particvar frame. INCLINATION, v. Attachment.

Disposition is more positive than inclination. We may always expect a man to do that which he is disposed to do; but we cannot always calculate upon his executing that to which he is merely inclined. We indulge a disposition; we yield to an inclination. The disposition comprehends the whole state of the mind at the time; an inclination is particular, referring always to a particular object. After the performance of a serious duty, no one is expected to be in a disposition for laughter or merriment: it is becoming to suppress our inclination to laughter in the presence of those who wish to be serious; we should be careful not to enter into controversy with one who shows a disposition to be unfriendly. When a young person discovers any inclination to study, there are hopes of his improvement.

[^48]Melmoth's Letters of Cicero.

## DISTANT

TO DISREGARD, NEGLECT, SLIGHT.
DISREGARD signifies properly not to regard. NEGLECT, in Latin neglectus, participle of negligo, compounded of nec and lego, not to choose. SLIGHT, from light, signifies to make light of or set light by.

We disregard the warnings, the words, or opinions of others; we neglect their injunctions or their precepts. To disregard results from the settled purpose of the mind; to neglect from a temporary forgetfulness or oversight. What is disregarded is seen and passed over; what is neglected is generally not thought of at the time required. What is disregarded does not strike the mind at all; what is neglected enters the mind only when it is before the eye: what we disregard is not esteemed; what we neglect is often esteemed, but not sufficiently to be remembered or practised: a child disregards the prudent counsels of a parent; he neglects to use the remedies which have been prescribed to him.

The new notion that has prevailed of late years that the Christian religion ia little more than a good aystem of morality, must in course draw on a diaregard to spiritual exereises. Gisson.
Beanty's a charm, but aoon the charm will pass, While lilies lie nsglectsd on the plain; While dusky hyacinths for use remain.

Datden.
Disregard and neglect are frequently not personal acts; they respect the thing more than the person; slight is altogether an intentional act toward an individual.

You cannot expect your son should have any regard for one whom he sees yon stight. Locke.
Or toward any object which one has heretofore esteemicd or ought to esteem.

When once devotion fancies herself under the influence of a divine impulse, it is no wonder she slights human ordinances.

Andison.

## DISSENSION, CONTENTION, DISCORD.

DISSENSION marks either the act or the state of dissenting. CONTENTION marks the act of contending ( $v$. To contend). DISCORD, v. Contention.

A collision of opinions produces dissension; a collision of interests produces contention; a collision of humors produces discord. A love of one's own opin-
ion, combined with a disregard for the opinions of others, gives rise to dissension; selfishness is the main cause of contention; and an ungoverned temper that of discord.

At the time the poem we are now treating of was written, the disaensions of the barons, who were then so many petty princes, ran very high. Admian.
Becanse it is apprehended there may be great contention about precedence, the proposer humbly desires the assistance of the learned. SwIFr. But shall celestial discord never eease?
'Tis better ended in a lasting peace. Dhymen.
Dissension is peculiar to bodies or communities of men; contention is applicable mostly, and discord always, to individuals. A Christian temper of conformity to the general will of those with whom one is in connection would do away dissension; a limitation of one's desire to that which is attainable by legitimate means would put a stop to contention; a correction of one's impatient and irritable humor would check the progress of discord. Dissension tends not only to alienate the minds of men from each other, but to dissolve the bonds of society; contention is accompanied by anger, ill-will, envy, and many evil passions; discord interrupts the progress of the kind affections, and bars all tender intercourse.
Civil dissension is a viperous worm
That gaaws the bowels of the commonwealth.
Shakapeare.
The ancients made contention the principle that reigned in tbe chaos at first and then love, the one to expresa the divisions and the other the union of all parties in the middle and commoa bond.

Buanet.
See what a scourge is laid upon your hate
That Heav'n finds means to kill your joy with love I
And I, for winking at your $d i s c o r d s$ too,
Have loat a brace of kinsinen. Shakspeare.

## DISTANT, FAR, REMOTE.

DISTANT is employed as an adjunct or otherwise; FAR is used only as an adverb. We speak of distant objects, or objects being distant; but we speak of things only as being far. Distant, in Latin distans, compounded of $d i$ and stans, standing asunder, is employed only for bodies at rest; far, in German fern, most probably from gefahren, participle of fah. ren, to go, signifies gone or removed away,
and is employed for bodies either stationary or otherwise; hence we say that a thing is distant, or it goes, runs, or flies far. Distant is used to designate great space; far only that which is ordinary: astronomers estimate that the sun is nine-ty-four millions of miles distant from the earth; a person lives not very far off, or a person is far from the apot. Distant is used absolutely to express an intervening space. REMOTE, in Latin remotus, participle of removeo, to remove, rather expresses the relative idea of being gone out of sight. A person is said to live in a distant country, or in a remote corner of any country.

There ia nothing be has made that is either so distant, so little, or so inconsiderable, which he does not essentially inhabit. Addison. 0 might a parent'a careful wish prevail, Far, far from Ilion should thy vessels sail, Aad thou from camps remote the danger ahnn, Which now, alas! too nearly threats my son.

Pope.
They bear a similar analogy in the figurative application; when we speak of a remote idea it designates that which is less liable to strike the mind than a distant idea. A distant relationship between individuals is never altogether lost sight of; when the connection between objects is very remote it easily escapes observation.

It is a pretty saying of Thales, "Falsehood ia just as far diatant from the truth as the ears from the eyes," by which he would intimate that a wise man would not easily give credit to the reports of actions which he has not seen.

Spectator.
Equally remote from the undiatinguishing profusion of ancient, and the paraimonious elegance of modern hahits, her house was a school for the young, and a retreat for the aged. Wuiraker.

## TO DISTINGUISH, DISCRIMINATE.

To DISTINGUISH ( $v . T_{0}$ abstract) is the general, to DISCRIMINATE (v. Discernment) is the particular term: the former is an indefinite, the latter a definite action. To discriminate is in fact to distinguish specifically; bence we speak of a distinction as true or false, but of a diserimination as nice. We distinguish things as to their divisibility or unity; we discriminate them as to their inherent properties; we distinguish things that are alike or unlike, in order to separate or collect them; we discriminate those that are dif-
ferent, for the purpose of separating ono from the other: we distinguis $h$ by means of the senses as well as the underatanding ; we discriminate by the understanding only: we distinguish things by their color, or we distinguish moral objects by their truth or falsehood; we discriminat the characters of men, or we discriminate their merita according to circumstances.
'Tis easy to distinguish by the sight
The color of the soil, and black from white.
Dayden.
A satire should expose nothing but what is corrigible; and make a due discrintination between thoae who are and those who are not the proper ohjects of it.

Addibon.
DISTINGUISHED, CONSPICUOUS, NOTED, EMINENT, LLLUSTRIOUS.
DISTINGUISHED gignifies having a mark of distinction by which a thing ia to be distinguished (v. To abstract). CON. SPICUOUS, in Latin conspicuus, from conspicio, signifies easily to be seen. NOTED, from notus, known, well known. EMI. NENT, in Latin eminens, from emineo, or $e$ and maneo, remaining or standing out above the rest. ILLUSTRIOUS, in Latin illustris, from lustro, to ahine, shone upon.

The idea of an object baving something attached to it to excite notice is common to all these terms. Distinguished in its general sense expresses little more than this idea; the rest are but modes of the distinguished. A thing is distingruished in proportion as it is distinct or separate from others; it is conspicuous in proportion as it is easily seen; it is noted in proportion as it is widely known. In this sense a rank is distinguished; a situation is conspicuous; a place is noted. Persona are distinguished by external marks or by characteristic qualities; persons or things are conspicuous mostly from some external mark; persons or things are noted mostly by collateral circumstances. A man may be distinguished by his decorations, or he may be distinguished by his manly air, or by bis abilities : a person is conspicuous by the gaudiness of his dress; a house is conspicuous that stands on a hill: a person is noted for having performed a wonderful cure; a place is noted for its fine waters.

It has been observed by some writers that man ia more distinguished from the animal world by derotion than by reason.

Apdionh

The traces of these dreadful conflagrations are still oonspicuous in every corner.

BRYDONE.
Upon my calling in lately at one of the most noted Temple coffee-houses, 1 found the whole room, which was full of young stadents, divided into several parties, each of which was deeply engaged in some controversy.

BUDGELI.
We may be distinguished for things good, bad, or indifferent: we may be conspicious for our singularities or that which only attracts vulgar notice: we may be noted for that which is bad, and mostly for that which is the subject of vulgar discourse: we can be eminent and illustrionus only for that which is really good and praiseworthy; the former applies, however, mostly to those thinge which set a man high in the circle of his acquaintance; the latter to that which makes him shine before the world. A man of distinguished talent will be apt to excite envy if he be not also distin. quished for his private virtue: affectation is never better pleased than when it can place itself in such a conspicuous situation as to draw all eyes upon itself: lovers of fame are sometimes contented to render themselves noted for their vices or absurdities: nothing is more gratifying to a man than to render himself eminent for his professional skill: it is the lot of but few to be illustrious, and those few are very seldom to be envied.
While public agitations allow a few individuals to be uncommonly distinguished, the general condition of the public remains calamitous and wretched.

Blais.
Before the gete stood Pyrrhus, threat'ning loud, With glittring arms conspicuous in the crowd.

Dryden.
of Prior, aminent as he was both by his abilities and station, very few memorials have been left by his contemporaries.

Johmson.
Hail, sweet Saturnian soil! of fruitfal grain Great parent, greater of illustrious men.

Dryden,
In an extended and moral application, these terms may be employed as epithets to heighten the character of an object: valor may he said to be distinguished, piety sminent, and a name illustrious.

Let your behevior towerd superiors in dipnity, age, learning, or any distinguished excellence, be full of respect, deference, and modesty.

Earl of Chatham.
It is more than probable that the prince above mentiooed possessed both these qualifcations (modesty and assurance) in an eminent degree.

ADDISON.

Next add our citles of illustrious name, Their costly labor and stupendous frame.

Dryden.

## DISTRESS, ANXIETY, ANGUISH, AGONY.

DISTRESS, $w$. Adversity. ANXIEIY, in French anxiété, and ANGUISH, in French angoisse, both come from the Lat in ango, anxi, to strangle. AGONY, in French agonit, Latin agonia, Greek ay $\omega$ $\nu \iota a$, from $a \gamma \omega \nu \iota \zeta \omega$, to contend or strive, signifies a severe struggle with pain and suffering.

Distress is the pain felt when in a strait from which we see no means of extricating ourselves; anxisty is that pain which one feels on the prospect of an evil. Distress always depends upon some outward cause; anxiety often lies in the imagination. Distress is produced by the present, hut not always immediate evil; anxiety respects that which is future; anguish arises from the reflection on the evil that is past; agony springs from witnessing that which is immediate or before the eye.

Distress is not peculiar to any age; where there is a consciousness of good and evil, pain and pleasure, distress will inevitably exist from some circumstance or another. Anxiety, anguish, and agony helong to riper years: infancy and childhood are deemed the happy periods of human existence, because they are exempt from the anxieties attendant on ev. ery one who has a station to fill and duties to discharge. Anguish and agony are species of distress, of the severer kind, which spring altogether from the maturity of reflection, and the full conscionsness of evil. A child is in distress when it loses its mother, and the mother is also in distress when she misses her child. The station of a parent is, indeed, that which is most productive, not only of distress, but of anxiety, anguish, and agony: the mother has her peculiar anxieties for her child, while rearing it in its infant state: the father has his anxiety for its welfare on its entrance into the world: they both suffer the deepest anguish when their child disappoints their dearest hopes hy running a career of vice; not unfrequently they are doomed to suffer the $a g$ ony of seeing a child cncircled in flames from which he cannot be snatched, of
sinking into a watery grave from which he cannot be rescued.
How many, rack'd with honest passions, droop In deep retir'd distress! How many stand Around the death-bed of their dearest friends, And point the parting anguish / Thomson.
If you have any affection for me, let not your anabiety, on my account, injure your health.

Melmoth's Letters of Cicero.
In the anguish of his heart Adam expostulates with his Creator for laving given him an unasked existence.

Addibon.
These are the charming agonies of love,
Whose misery delights. But through the heart Should jealousy its venom once diffuse,
"Tis then delightful misery no more, But agony unmixed.

Thomson.

## TO DISTRESS, HARASS, PERPLEX.

DISTRESS, v. Distress. HARASS, in French harasser, probably from the Greek $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \alpha \sigma \sigma \omega$, to beat. PERPLEX, in Latin perplexus, participle of perplector, compounded of per and plector, to wind round and entangle.

A person is distressed either in his outward circumstaoces or his feelings; he is harassed mentally or corporeally; he is perplexed in his understanding, more than in his feelings: a deprivation distresses; provocations and hostile measures harass; stratagems and ambiguous measures perplex: a besieged towa is distressed by the cutting off its resources of water and provisions; the besieged are harassed by perpetual attacks; the besiegers are perplexed in all their manceuvres and plans, by the counter-manœuvres and contrivances of their opponents: a tale of woe distresses; continual alarms and incessant labor harass; unexpected obstacles and inextricable difficulties perplex.
O friend! Ulysses' shouts invade my ear; Distress'd he seems, and no assistance near.

Pope.
Persons who have been long harassed with business and care sometimes imagine that when life declines, they cannot make their retirement from the world too complete.

Blair.
Would heing cnd with our expiring breath, How soon misfortunes would he puff'd away. A trifling shock can shiver us to the dust, But th' existence of the immortal soul, Futurity's dark road perplexes still.

Gentleman.
DISTRIBUTE, ALLOT, ASSIGN, APPORTION.
DISTRJBUTE, in Latin distributus, participle of distribuo, or dis, apart, and tri-
buo, to bestow, signifies to portion out to several. ALLOT, v. Allot. ASSIGN, in French assigner, Latin assigno, i. e., as or ad and signo, to sign, signifies by signiog or marking, to set out for a particular purpose. APPORTION, from ap or ad and portion, signifies to give by way of portion for a particular purpose.

The idea of giving to several is common to these terms; this is the proper signification of distribute; but to that of the other terms is annexed some qualifi. cation. Distributing is always applied to a number of individuals, but allotting, assigning, and apportioning is the giving either to one or several: a sum of money is distributed among a number of poor people; it is allotted, assigned, or apportioned to a particular individual, or to each individual out of a number. Distribute is said properly of that which is divided, or divisible into any number of parts, as bread is distributed in loaves, ov money is distributed in the way of shil lings; allotted is applied to that which iv divisible into lots, and apportion to thaw which is formed into certain proportiona' parts or portions, as to allot land, to give a lot of land; to apportion a sum ok money, i.e., to give it in certain proportions. Assign is applied to any distinet whole, not considered either as divided or divisible, as to assign a house, place, etc. To distribute is to give promiscuously, without reference to the nature of objects or the purpose for which thes are given; things may be distributed to the worthy or the unworthy, to those who want it or those who do not, at the will of the distributor or otherwise. To allot is to give according to the lots into which the thing is divided for a given purpose, as to allot land to each cottager ; to assign is to set apart something that is suited to the person or adapted for the object proposed, as a prize is assigned to the most meritorious; a house is assigned for the reception of the houseless wanderer; to apportion is to give in a certain proportion according to a certain rule, as to apportion rent to different houses according to their size and value.

[^49]allotted a certaln proportion of land for their maintenance. Pottea.
The reverend Nestor ranks his Pylesn bsuds. The horse and chariots to the front $a \operatorname{ssig} n^{\prime}{ }^{d}$.

Pope.
The nnderwriter may sterward recover from each of the rest a ratable satisfaction or apportionment of the sum which he has been obliged to pay to the assured.

Parg.
So in the figurative or moral applicakion, the gooda or ills of life are distrib. uted by a wise Providence, but often in waya or for purposes that are hidden. from our view.

From thence the cup of mortal man he fills, Blessings to these, to those distributes ills.

Pope.
Particular portiona of that which is deairable, or the contrary, is allotted to each according to the circumatancea of the case.

Every one that has been long desd has a due proportion of prsise allotted him, in which while he lived his friends were too profuse, and his enemies too sparing.

Admison.
Offices, duties, properties, and the like, are assigned according as they really are or are supposed to be suitable.

You msy assign sny proportions you please to every part of the human body, and I undertake that a painter shall religiously observe them all, and notwithstanding produce, if he pleases, s very ngly flgure.

Burke.
Labor, happiness, misery, or anything of which only parts can be had, may be apportioned.

Of the happinesd and misery of our present condition, part is distributed by nsture, snd part is in a great measure apportioned by ourselves.

Johnson.

## district, region, tract, quarter.

DISTRICT, in Latin districtus, from distringo, to bind separately, signifies a certain part marked off specifically. REGION, in Latin regia, from rego, to rule, signifies a portion that is within rule. TRACT, in Latin tractus, from traho, to draw, signifies a part drawn out. QUARTER aignifies literally a fourth part.
These terms are all applied to portions of country, the former two comprehending divisions marked out on political grounds; the latter a geographical or an indefinite division: district is smaller than a region; the former refers only to
part of a country, the latter frequently applies to a whole country: a quarter ia indefinite, and may be applied either to a quarter of the world or a particular neighborhood: a tract is the amallest portion of all, and comprehends frequently no more than what may fall within the compasa of the eye. We conaider a district only with relation to goverument ; every magistrate acts within a certain district: we speak of a region when considering the circumatances of climate, or the natural properties which distinguish different parts of the earth; as the regions of heat and cold: we speak of the quarter aimply to designate a point of the compass; as a person lives in a certain quarter of the town that is north or south, east or weat, etc.; and so also in an extended application, we say, to meet with opposition in an unexpected quarter: we speak of a tract to designate the land that runa on in a line; as a mountainous tract.
The very Inequslity of representation, which is so foolishly complained of, is perhaps the very thing which prevents 18 from thinking or acting as members for districts.

Borae
Between those regions and our npper light
Deep forests snd impenetrable night
Possess the middle space.
Datden.
My timorous muse
Unambitious tracts prrsues.
Cowley.
There is no man in any rank who ls always at liberty to act as he would incline. In some quarter or other he is limited by circamstances.

Blala.
DISTRUST, SUSPICION, DIFFIDENCE.
DISTRUST signifies not putting trust in ( $v$. Belief). SUSPICION, from the Latin suspicio, or sub and specio, aignifiea looking at askance, or with a wry mind. DIFFIDENCE, from the Latin diffido or disfido, signifies having no faith.
Distrust is said either of ourselves or others; suspicion is said only of others; diffidence only of ourselves: to be distrustful of a person is to impute no good to him; to be suspicious of a person is to impute positive evil to him: he who is distrustful of another's honor or prudence will abstain from giving him his confidence; he who is suspicious of another's honesty will be cautious to have no dealings with him.

The dissolntion of two parliaments in so short a time, and of the last in so abrapt a manner
raised up a general spirit of discontent and distrust throughout the kingdom.

TrMPLE.
Nature itself aftor it has done an injury will be suspicious, aod no man can love the person he snspects.

SOOTH.
Distrust is a particular state of feeling having a specific ohject; suspicion is a habitual state of feeling, and has indefinite objects.

All parties had an opinion of his abilities; few had any distrust of his virtues.

Gutarie.
And oft, though wisdom wake, suspicion sleeps At wisdom's gate, and to simplicity Resigns his charge.

Milton.
As regards one's self, a person may distrust his own powers for the execution of a particular office, or a distrust of himself in company; he bas a general diffidence, or he is naturally diffident.
Before strangers, Pitt had something of the scholar's timidity and distrust. Jounson.
As an actor, Mr. Cunningham obtained little reputation, for his diffidence was too great to be overcome.

Johnson.

## TO DISTURB, INTERRUPT:

DISTURB (v. Commotion). INTERRUPT, from the Latin inter and rumpo, signifies to break in between so as to stop the progress.

We may be disturbed either inwardly or outwardly; we are interrupted only outwardly: our miods may be disturbed by disquieting reflections, or we may be disturbed in our rest or in our business by unseemly noises; but we can be interrupted only in our business or pursuits: the disturbance, therefore, depends upon the character of the person; wbat disturbs one man will not disturb another: an interruption is, however, something positive: what interrupts one person will interrupt another: the smallest noises may disturb one who is in bad health; illness or the visits of friends will interrupt a person in any of his business.

If aught disturb the tenor of his breast,
Tis but the wish to strike before the rest. Pope.
A single word or even an offer at interruption stopped him in a moment, thongh in the middle of a sentence.

Cbarberland.
The same distinction exists between these words when applied to things as to persons: whatever is put out of its order or proper condition is disturbed; thus water which is put into motion
from a state of rest is disturbed: what ever is stopped in the evenness or regu. larity of its course is interrupted; thus water which is turned out of its ordinary channel is interrupted.
Some short confused speeches show an imagination disturbed with guilt.

AdDison
The foresight of the hour of death wonld con timally interrupt the course of buman affairs.

Blaia.

## TO DIVIDE, SEPARATE, PART.

DIVIDE, in Latin divideo, compounded of $d i$ and the Etruscan eduo, from ets and $\delta v \omega$, two, signifies to make into two. SEPARATE, o. Abstract. PART signifies to make into parts.

That is said to be divided which has been or is conceived to be a whole, that is separated which might be joined: an army may be divided into two or three divisions or portions: the divisions are frequently separated in their march. Things may be divided by anything which distinguishes the parts from one another ; they are separated by disjunction of space only.
Nor cease your sowing till midwinter ends,
For this through twelve bright signs Apollo guides
The year, aod earth in sereral climes divides.
Dryaen.
Things may be mentally divided, hut they are separated only corporeally: the miods of men are often most divided when in person they are least separated.
If we diuide the life of most men into twenty parts, we shall find at least nineteen of them filled with gaps and chasms, which are neither filled up with pleasure or business. ADDIson.

Where there is the greatest and most honorable love, it is sometimes better to be joined in death than separated. in life.

Steele.
To part has an intermediate sense between divide and separate; to divide is properly to make any whole into two pasts; to part is to destroy the colesion of two or more wholes when joined together: a loaf is divided when it is cut into two or more pieces; two loaves are parted. Sometimes things are both divided and parted in order to be distributed; in this case the distinction is the same; solid things, or what is in a mass, is divided; but things which do not lose their integrity are parted: an estate is divided; goods or effects are parted.

The whole army was diotded Into regiments. Potter.
From the signed victim crops the curling hair, The heralds part it and the princes share.

Pofe.
As disjunction is the common idea attached to both separate and part, they are frequently used in relation to the same objects; things are mostly said to be parted which are made to be apart for any temporary purpose, or by any means, however slight or trivial; thus rooms may be parted by a partition; that is said to be separated which is intended to be kept permanently separate, or which ought not to be joined; thus fields are separated by hedges.

Most of the anclent writers are of opinion that Sicily was formerly joined to the continent in this spot, and that the separation must have been inade by some violent convulsion uf the

## earth.

Bhydone.
Learn from this hint, let this instruct our art, Thin taper sticks must from one centre part.

Gay.
With regard to persons, part designates the actual leaving of the person; separate is used in general for that which lessens the society; the former is often casual, temporary, or partial; the latter is positive and scrious; the parting is momentaly; the separation may be longer or shorter: two friends part in the streets after a casual meeting; two persons separate on the road who had set out to travel together: men and their wives often part without coming to a positive separation: some couples are separated from each other in every respect but that of being directly parted; the moment of parting between friends is often more painful than the separation which afterward ensues.
1 pray let me retain some room, though never so little, in your thoughts, during the time of this our separation.

Howeld.
The prince pursu'd the parting deity
With words like these " Ah, whither do you fly?" Unkind and cruel to deceive yeur son. Dhyden.

## TO DIVIDE, DISTRIBUTE, SHARE.

DIVIDE, v. To divide, separate. DISTRIBUTE, in Latin distributus, from distribuo, or dis and tribuo, signifies to bestow apart. SHARE, from the word shear, and the German scheeren, signifies simply to cut.

The act of dividing does not extend
beyond the thing divided; that of dim tributing and sharing comprehends also the purpose of the action: we divide the thing ; we distribute to the person: we may divide, therefore, without distributing; or we may divide in order to distribute: thas we divide our land into distinct fields for our private convenience; or we divide a sum of money into so many parts, in order to distribute it among a given number of persons : on the other hand, we may distribute without dividing; for money, books, fruit, and many other things may be distributed, which require no division.

Let old Timotheus yield the prize,
Or both divide the crown;
He raised a mortal to the skies, She drew an angel down.

Driden.
Two urns by Jove's high throne have ever stood, The source of evil one, and one of good;
From thence the cup of mortal man he fills
Blessing to these, to those distributes ills.
Pope.
To share is to make into parts, the same as divide, and it is to give those parts to some persons, the same as distribute; but tbe person who shares takes a part himself; he who distributes gives it all to others: a loaf is divided in order to be eaten; bread is distributed in lonves among the poor; the loaf is shared by a poor man with his poorer neighbor, or the profits of a business are shared by the partners.

Providence has made an equal distribution of natural gifts, whereof each creature severally has a share.

L'Estaange.
Why grieves my son ? Thy anguish let me share,
Reveal the canse, and trust a parent's care.
Pope.
To share may imply either to give or receive; to distribute implies giving only: we share our own with another, or another shares what we have but we distribute our own to others.
We render you the tenth to be ta'en forth
Before the common distribution, at your choice. Shakspeare.
They will be so much the more careful to determine properly, as they shall (will) be obliged to share the expenses of maintaining the masters.

Melmoth's Letteas of Pliny.
DOCILE, TRACTABLE, DUCTILE.
DOCILE, in Latin docilis, from doceo, to teach, is the Latin term for ready to

## DOCTRINE

be taught. TRACTABLE, from traho, denotes the readiness to be drawn. One is docile as a scholar; one is tractable as a child or a servant. Where anything is to be learned, docility is necessary; where anything is to be done at the call of another, tractability is required. DUCTILITY, from duco, to lead, signifies aptness to be led, and is applied to the mind or its powers, which yield readily to impressions.

The Persians are not wholly void of martial spirit; and if they are not naturally brave, they are at least extremely docile, and might, with proper discipline, be made excellent soldiers.

Sia W. Jones.
The people, without being servile, mnst be tractable.
The will was then (before the fall) ductile and pliant to all the motions of right reason. Soctr.

Animals may be said to be docile and tractable with a like distinction; inanimate objects, as metals, etc., may be ductile.
Their reindeer form their riches; these their tents,
Their robes, their beds, and all their homely wealth,
Supply their wholesome fare and cheerful cups; Obsequious at their call, the docile tribe Yield to the sledge their necks.

Thomson.
They (the Arahian horses) are so tractable and familiar that they will run from the fields to the call of their masters. Goldsmith.
The ductile wax with busy hands I mould.
Pope.

## DOCTRINE, PRECEPT, PRINCIPLE.

DOCTRINE, in French doctrine, Latin doctrina, from doceo, to teach, signifies the thing taught; PRECEPT, from the Latin pracipio, the thing laid down; PRINCIPLE, in French principe, Latin principium, the beginning of things, that is, their first or original component parts.

A doctrine requires a teacher; a precept requires a superior with authority; a principle requires only a maintainer or holder. A doctrine is always framed by some one; a precept is enjoined or laid down by some one; a principle lies in the thing itself. A doctrine is composed of principles; a precept rests upon principles or doctrines. Pythagoras taught the doctrine of the metempsychosis, and enjoined many precepts on his disciples for the regulation of their conduct, particularly that they should abstain from eating animal
food, and be only silent hearers for the first five years of their scholarship: the former of these rules depended upon the preceding doctrine of the soul's transmigration to the bodies of animals; the latter rested on that simple principle of education, the entire devotion of the scholar to the master. We are said to believe iu doctrines; to obey precepts; to imbibe or hold principles. Doctrine is that which constitutes our faith; precepts are that which directs the practice: both are the subjects of rational assent, and suited only to the matured understanding: principles are often admitied without examination; and imbibed as frequently from observation and circumstances, as from any direct personal efforts; children as well as men acquire principles.
This seditious, unconstitutional doctrine of
electing kings is now publicly taught, avowed, and printed.

BURKE.
Pythagoras's first rule directs ns to worship the gods, as is ordained by law, for that is the most natural interpretation of the precept.

ADDI80N.
If the principles of the revolution of 1688 are anywhere to be found, it is in the Statute called the "Declaration of Rights."

Burke.

## DOGTRINE, DOGMA, TENET.

A DOCTRINE originates with an individual. DOGMA, from the Greek $\delta_{0} \gamma \mu a$ and סoкع $\omega$, to think, signifies something thought, admitted, or taken for granted; this lies with a hody or number of individuals. TENET, from the Latin teneo, to hold or maintain, signifies the thing held or maintained, and is a species of principle ( $v$. Doctrine) specifically maintained in matters of opinion by persons in general. A doctrine rests on the authority of the individual by whom it is framed; the dogma on the authority of the body by whom it is maintained; a tenet rests on its own intrinsic merits. Many of the doctrines of our blessed Saviour are held by faith in him; they are subjects of persuasion by the exercise of our rational powers; the dogmas of the Romish Church are admitted by none but such as admit its authority: every sect has its peculiar tenets.
Unpractis'd he to tawn or seek for pow'r
By doctrines fashion'd to the varying hour;
Far other aims his heart had learn'd to prize, More skill'd to raise the wretched than to rise.

Goldsmith

There are in England abnndance of men who tolerate in the true spirit of toleration. They think the dogmas of religion, thongh in differont degrees, are all of moment, and that among them there $i \theta_{j}$ as emong all things of value, 8 just ground of preference.

Bunke.
One of the poritanicel tenets was the illegelity of all gemes of chance.

Johneon.

## TO DOUBT, qUESTION.

DOUBT, in French douter, Latin dubito, from dubius and duo, two, signifies to have two opinious. QUESTION, in Latin quesstio, from quero, to inquire, signifies to make a question.

Both these terms express the act of the mind in staying its decision. Doubt lies altogether in the mind; it is a less active feeling than question: by the former we merely suspend decision; hy the latter we actually demand proofs in order to assist us in deciding. We may doubt in silence; we cannot question without expressing it, directly or indirectly. He who suggests doubts does it with caution; he who makes a question throws in difficulties with a degree of confidence. Doubts insinuate themselves into the mind often times involuntarily on the part of the doubter: questions are always made with an express design. We doubt in matters of general interest, on abstruse as well as common subjects: we question mostly in ordinary matters that are of a personal interest: we doubt the truth of a position; we question the veracity of an author. The existence of mermaids was doubted for a great length of time; but the testimony of creditable persons who have lately seen them ought now to put it out of all doubt. When the practicability of any plan is puestioned, it is unnecessary to enter any farther into its merits.

For my pert, I think the being of a God is 80 little to be doubted, thet L think it is elmost the only trath we are sure of.

ADDigon.
Our business in the field of fight
Is not to question, but to prove our might.
Pope.
The doubt is frequently confined to the individual; the question frequently respects others. We doubt whether we shall be able to succeed; we question another's sight to interfere: we doubt whether a thing will answer the end proposed; we question the utility of any one making the attempt. There are many
doubtful cases in medicine, where the physician is at a loss to decide; thery are many questionable measures proposed by those who are in or out of power which demand consideration. A disposition to doubt everything is more inimical to the cause of truth than the readiness to believe everything; a disposition to question whatever is said or done by others is much more calculated to give offence than to prevent deception.
Vile shrubs are shorn for browse; tow'ring height
Of unctuous trees ere torches for the night;
And shell we doubt (indulging easy sloth)
To sow, to set, and to reform their growth?
Dryder.
You know me well, and hercin apend but time T'o wind ebont my love with circumstance, And out of doubt you do me now more wrong, In making question of my uttermost, Then if yon had made waste of all I heve.

Searbpeage.

## DOUBT, SUSPENSE.

DOUBT respects that which we should believe; SUSPENSE that which we wish to know or ascertain. We are in doubt for the want of evidence; we are in suspense for the want of certainty. Doubt interrupts our progress in the attainment of truth; suspense impedes us in the attainment of our objects: the former is connected principally with the understanding; the latter acts altogether upon the hopes. We have our doubts about things that have no regard to time; we are in suspense about what is to happen in future. Those are the least inclined to doubt who have the most thorough knowledge of a subject; those are the least exposed to the unpleasant feeling of suspense who confine their wishes to the present.

Gold is a wonderful clearer of the understandlng ; it dissipstes every doubt and scruple in an instent. ADDIson.
The bundle of bey on either side atriking his (the ass's) sight and smell in the same proportion, would keep him in perpetual suspense.

Andison.
DOUBTFUL, DUBIOUS, UNCERTAIN, PRECARIOUS.
The DOUBTFUL admits of doubt ( $v$. Doubt, suspense); the DUBIOUS creates doubt or suspense. The doubtful is said of things in which we are required to have an opinion; the dubious respects

## DRAW

events and things that must speak for themselves. In doubtful cases it is advisable for a judge to lean to the side of mercy; while the issue of a contest is dubious, all judgment of the parties, or of the case, must be carefully avoided.
The Greeks with slain Tlepolemus retir'd, Whose fall Ulysses view'd with fory fir'd: Doubtful if Jove's great soa he shonld pursue, Or pour his vengeance on the Lician crew.

Pope.
At the lower end of the room is to be a sidetable for persons of great fame, but dubious existence, such as Hercules, Theseus, Eneas, Achilles, Hector, and others.

SWIFT.
Doubtful and dubious have always a relation to the person forming the opinion on the subject in question; UNCERTAIN and PRECARIOUS are epithets which designate the qualities of the things themselves. Whatever is uncertain may from that very circumstance be doubtful or dubious to those who attempt to determine upon them; but they may be designated for their uncertainty without any regard to the opinions which they may give rise to. A person's coming may be doubtful or uncertain; the length of his stay is oftener described as uncertain than as doubtful. The doubtful is opposed to that on which we form a positive conclusion, the uncertarn to that which is definite or prescribed. The efficacy of any medicine is doubtful; the manner of its operation may be uncertain. While our knowledge is limited, we must expect to meet with many things that are doubtful; as everything in the world is exposed to change, and all that is future is entirely above our control, we must naturally expect to find everything uncertain but what we see passing before us.

[^50]PRECARIOUS, from the Latin precarius and precor, to pray, signifies granted to entreaty, depending on the will or humor of another, whence it is applicable to whatever is obtained from others. Precarious is the highest species of unerrtainty, applied to such things as de-
pend on future casualties in opposition to that which is fixed and determined by design. The weather is uncertain; the subsistence of a person who has no stated income or source of living must be precarious. It is uncertain what day a thing may take place, until it is determined; there is nothing more precarious than what depends upon the favors of princes
The frequent disappoiatments incident to hant ing induced men to establish a permanent property in their flocks and herds, in order to sus. tain themselves io a less precarious manoer.

Blacestone.

## TO DRAW, DRAG, HAUL, OR HALE, PULL, PLUCK, TUG.

DRAW comes from the Latin traho, to draw, and the Greek $\delta \rho a \sigma \sigma \omega$, to lay hold of. DRAG is a variation of draw. HAUL or HALE answers to the Greek E $\lambda \kappa \omega$, to draw. PULL is, in all probability, connected with pello, to drive or thrust. PLUCK is in the German pfïcken, etc.; and TUG answers to the German ziehen, to pull or draw.

Draw expresses bere the idea common to the three first terms, namely, of putting a body in motion from behind one's self or toward one's self; to drag is to draw a thing with violence, or to draws that which makes resistance; to haul is to drag it with still greater violence. We draw a cart; we drag a body along the ground; or haul a vessel to the shore. To pull signifies only an effort to draw without the idea of motion: horses pull very long sometimes before they can draw a beavily laden cart uphill. To pluck is to pull with a sudden twitch, in order to separate; thus feathers are plucked from animals. To tug is to puell with violence; thus men tug at the oar.
Furious he said, and tow'rd the Grecian crew
(Seiz'd by the crest) the unhapyy warrior drew; Struggling he follow'd, while th' embroider'd thong
That ty'd his helmet $d r a g g ' d$ the chief along.

## POPE

Some hoisting levers, some the wheels prepare, And fasten to the horse's feet : the rest With cables haul along the unwieldy beast.

## Daypens.

Two magnets are placed, one of them in the roof and the other in the floor of Mnhammed's burying-place at Mecca, and pull the impostor's iron coffln with such an equal attraction, that is hangs in the air betweea both of them.

ApDIBOY

Even children follow'd with endearing wile, And pluck'd lis gown to shure the good man's amile.

Goldsmitis.
Clear'd as I thought, and fully fix'd at length To learn the cause, i tuogg' $d$ with all my strength.

Dayden.
In the moral application of the words we may be said to be drowon by anything which can act on the mind to bring ns near to an object; we are dragged only by means of force; we pull a thing toward ne by a direct effort. To haul, pluek, and tug are seldom used but in the physical application.
Hither we sail'd, a volnntary throng, To avenge a private, not a public wrong; What else to Troy the assembled nations draws, Bat thine-uugrateful ! and thy brother's cause. Pope.
'Tis long since I for my celestial wife,
Loath'd by the gods, bave dragg'd a lingering life.

Pope.
Hear thls, remember, and our fury dread,
Nor pull th' nnwilling vengeance on thy head.
Pope.

## DREAM, REVERIEE.

DREAM, in Dutch drom, ete., in the Celtic drem, a sight, ia connected with the Greek $\delta \rho \alpha \mu a$, a fable, and the word roam, aignifying to wander, in Hebrew rom, to be agitated REVERIE, in French reverie, like the English rave, and the Latin rabies, madness, aignifies that which is wandering or ineoherent.

Dreams and reveries are alike opposed to the reality, and have their origin in the imagimation; but the former commonly passea in sleep, and the latter when a wake: the dream may and doea commonly arise when the imagination is in a sound state; the reverie is the fruit of a heated imagination: dreams come in the courge of nature; reveries are the consequence of a peculiar ferment.

When the term dream is applied to the act of one that is awake, it admits of another distinction from reverie. They beth designate what is confounded, but the dream is less extravagant than the reverie. Ambitious men please themselves with dreams of future greatness; enthusiasta debase the purity of the Christian religion by blending their own wild reveries with the doctrines of the Gospel. He who indnlges himself in idle dreams lays up a atore of disappointment for himself when he recovers his recollection, and finds that it is nothing but a
dream: a love of singularity operating on an ardent mind will too often lead men to indulge in atrange reveries.

- Gay's friends persuaded him to sell his share of South-sea stock, but he dreamed of dignity and splendor. and could not bear to obstruct his own fortune.

Johnson.
I continued to sit motionless with my eyes fixed upon the curtain some moments after it fell. When I was roused from my reverie I found uyself almost aloue.

HawEeswoath.

## DREGS, SEDIMENT, DROSS, SCUM, REFUSE.

DREGS, like the Germau dreck, dirt, aignifies the dirty part which separatea from a liquor. SEDIMENT, from sedeo, to ait, aignifies that which aettles at the bottom. DROSS is probably but a variation of dregs. SCUM, in the German schaum, signilies the same as foam or froth REFUSE literally that which is refueed or thrown away.

All these terms designate the worth. less part of any body; but dregs is taken in a worae sense han sediment: for the dregs is that which is altogether of no value; but the sediment nay sometimes form a necessary part of the body. The dregs are mostly a sediment in liquors, but many thinge are a sediment which are not dregs. After the dregs are taken away, there will frequently remain a sediment; the dregs are commonly the corrupt part which aeparates from compound liquids, as wine or beer; the sedkment consists of the heavy particles which belong to all simple liquids, not excepting water itself. The dregs and sediment separate of themselves, but the scum and dross are furced out by a process; the former from liquids, and the latter from solid bodies rendered liquid or otherwise. Dross is applied to solid bodies in the same sense as scum, being that which remains after the purifying; as the dross of corn after threshing and cleaning. Refuse, as its derivation implies, is always aaid of that which is intentionally separated to be thrown away, and agrees with the former terms only inasmuch as they express what is worthless. With this distinction they are figuratively applied to moral objects.
Epitomes of history are the corruptions and moths that have fretted and corroded many
mound and excellent bodies of history and reduced them to hase snd uaprofitshle dregs.

Bacon.
For it is not hare agitation, but the aediment at the hottom that troubles aod defles the water. Soath.
For the composition, too, 1 admit the Algerine community resemble that of Erance, being formed ont of the very scum, scandal, disgrace, and pest of the Turkiah Asia.

Barke.
Now cast your eyes around, while I dissolve The mist and film that mortal eyes iovolve: Purge from your sight the $d r o s s$, and mske you see
The shape of esch aveaging deity. Dryden. Next of his men and ships he makes review, Draws out the best and ablest of the crew ; Down with the falling stream the refuas ruu To raise with joyful news his drooping son.

Dryden.

## DULL, GLOOMY, SAD, DISMAL.

DULL, in the low German dull, high German toll, mad, Welsh dol, dwl, foolish, etc., denotes properly a defect in the intellect. GLOOMY is connected with the German glomm, signifying the same as tarnisbed. SAD is probably connected with sedste and settled, signifying as much as sedate sorrow. DISMAL, compounded of dis and mal or malus, signities very evil.

When applied to aatural objects, dull and gloomy denote the want of necessary light or life: in this sense metals are more or less dull according as they are stained with dirt: the weather is either dull or gloomy in different degrees; that is, dull when the sun is obscured by clonds, and gloomy when the atmosphere is darkened by fogs or thick clonds. Dismal denotes not merely the want of that which is necessary, but also the presence of that which is repugnant to the senses; as a glare of light or a sound may be dismal. A room is dull, gloomy, or dismal, according to circumstances: it is chell if the usual quantity of ligbt and sound be wanting; it is gloomy if the darkness and stillness be very considerable; it is dismal if it have only light enough to show its wretchedness; in this sense a dungeon is a dismal abode. Sad is not applied so much to sensible as moral objects, in which sense the distressing events of human life, as the loss of a parent or a child, is justly denominated sad.
While man is a retainer to the elemeuts and s sojourner in the body, it must be content to sub-
mit its own quickness sad spirituality to the dulness of ita vehicle. Soutr.
Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring Of woes unnumber'd, hear'nly goddess, sing ! That wrath which hurl'd to Pluto's gloomy reiga
The sonls of mighty chiefs untimely slsin.
Pope.
For nine long aights, through all the dusky sir The pyre's thick flsming shot a dismal glare.

Pope.
Henry II. of France, by a splinter nohappily thrust into his eye at a solemo justing, was sent out of the world hy a sad but very accidental desth.

Sonth.
In regard to the frame of mind which is designated by these terms, it will be easily perceived from the above explanation. As slight circumstances produce dulness, any change, however small, in the usual flow of spirits nay be termed dull. Gloom weighs heavy on the mind, and gives a turn to the reflections and the imagination: desponding thoughts of futurity will spread a gloom over every other object. Sad indicates a wounded state of the heart, feelings of unmired pain.
So dull, so dead in look, so moe-begone. Selakgpark.
Neglect spreads gloominess upon their humor, snd makes them grow sullen snd uacouversihle. Collier.
Six brsve companions from each ship we lost; With sails outspread we fly the nnequal strife, Sad for their loss, hnt joyful of our life. Prion.

## DURABLE, LASTING, PERMANENT.

DURABLE is said of things that are intended to remain a shorter time than that which is LASTING; and PERMANENT expresses less than durable. Durable, from the Latin durus, hard, respects the texture of bodies, and marks their capacity to hold out; lasting, from the verb to last or the adjective last, signifies to remain the last or longest, and is applicable only to that which is supposed of the longest duration. Permanent, from the Latin permaneo, signifies remaining to the end.

Durable is naturally said of material substances; and lasting of those which are spiritual; although in ordinary dis. course sometimes they exchange offices: permanent applies more to the affairs of men. That which perishes quickly is not durable; that which ceases quickly

Is not lasting; that which is only for a tirae is not permanent. Stone is more durable than iron, and iron than wood: in the feudal times animosities between families used to be lasting; a clerk has not a permanent situation in an office.

If wrltings be thua durabls, and may pass from age to age, through tha whole course of tima, how carcful shouid an author be of not committing anything to print that may corrupt posterity.

Addison.
I must desira my fair readers to give a proper direction to their being admired; in order to which they must endeavor to make themselves tha objects of a reasonabla and lasting admiration.

ADDISON.
Land comprehends all things in law of a permanent, substantial nature. Blackotone.

## DURABLE, CONSTANT.

DURABILITY (v. Durable) lies in the thing. CONSTANCY (v. Constancy) lies in the person. What is durable is so from its inherent property; what is constant is so by the power of the mind. No durable connections can he formed where avarice or lust prevails.
Some ststes have suddenly emerged, and evan In tha depths of thair calamity hava laid the foundation of a towering and durable greatness. Buake.
Sinca we cannot promias ourselves constant health, let us endeavor at auch a temper as may be our beat support In tha decay of it. Steele.

## DURATION, TIME.

In the philosophical sense, according to Mr. Locke, TIME is that mode of DURATION which is formed in the mind by its own power of observing and measuring the passing objects. In the vulgar sense, in which duration is synonymous with time, it stands for the time of duration, and is more particularly applicable to the objects which are said to last; time being employed in general for whatever passes in the world.

Duration comprehends the beginning and end of any portion of time, that is, the how long of a thing; time is employed more frequently for the particular portion itself, namely, the time when : we mark tbe duration of a sound from the time of its commencement to the time that it ceases; the duration of a prince's reign is an object of particular concern to his subjects if he be either very good or the reverse; the time in which he reigns is marked by extraordinary
events: the historian computes the $d u$. ration of reigns and of events in order to determine the antiquity of a nation; he fixes the exact time when each person begins to reign and when he dies, in order to determine the number of years that each reigned.
I thiok another probable conjecture (reapecting the soul's immortality) may be raised from our appetite to duration itself.

Steelb.
The time of the fool is long becanse he doea not know what to do with it; that of the wise man, because he distinguishes every moment of it with uaeful or amusing thoughts

ADDIHON.
DUTLFUL, OBEDLENT, RESPECTFUL.
DUTIFUL signifies full of a sense of duty or full of what belongs to duty. OBEDIENT signifies ready to obey. RESPECTFUL signifies literally full of respect.
The obedient and respectful are but modes of the dutiful: we may be dutiful without being either obedient or respectful; hut we are so far dutiful as we are either obedient or respectful. Duty denotes what is due from one being to another: it is independent of all circumstances: obedience and respect are relative duties depending upon the character and station of individuals: as we owe to no one so much as to our parents, we are said to be dutifull to no earthly being besides; and in order to deserve the name of dutiful, a child, during the period of his childhood, ought to make a parent's will to be his law, and at no future period ought that will ever to be an object of indifference: we may be obedient and respectful to others besides our parents, although to them obedience and respect are in the highest degree and in the first case due; yet servants are enjoined to be obedient to their masters, wives to their husbands, and subjects to their king. Respectful is a term of still greater latitude than either; for as the characters of men as much as their stations demand respect, there is a respectful deportment due toward every superior.
For one cruel parent we meet with a thousand undutiful children.

Addigon.
The obsdience of children to their parents ia the basis of all government, and set forth as tha measure of that obedience which we owe to thoge whom Providence has placed over ue.

ADDIGON.
Lat your behavior toward your snperiora in
dignity, age, learning, or any distloguished excellence, be full of respect and deference.

Earl of Chatham.

## DUTY, OBLIGATION.

DUTY, as we see in the preceding section, consists altogether of what is rigbt or due from one being to another. OBLIGATION, from the Latin obligo, to bind, signifies the bond or necessity which lies in the thing.
all duty depends upon moral obligation which subsists between man and man, or man and hia Maker; in this abstract sense, therefore, there can be no duty without a previous obligation, and where there is an obligation it involves a duty; but in the vulgar acceptation, duty is applicable to the conduct of men in their various relations; obligation only to particular circumstances or modes of action: we have duties to perform as parents and children, as husbands and wives, as rulers and subjects, as neighbors and citizens: the debtor is under an obligation to discharge a debt; and he who has promised is under an obligation to fulfil his promise: a conscientious man, therefore, never loses sight of the obligations which he has at different times to discharge. The duty is not so peremptory as the obligation; the obligation is not so lasting as the duty: our affections impel us to the discharge of duty; interest or necessity impels us to the discharge of an obligation: it may therefore sometimes happen that the man whom a sense of duty cannot actuate to do that which is righ, will not be able to withstand the obligation under which he has laid himself.

The ways of Heav'n, judg'd by a private breast, Is often what's our private interest,
And therefore those who would that will obey, Without their interest must their duty weigh.

Dryden.
No man can be under an obligation to belleve nything who hath not sufficient means whereby he may be assured that such a thing is true.

Tlliotson.

## E.

eager, farnest, serious.
EAGER, v. Avidity. EARNEST most probably comes from the thing carnest,
in Saxon thornest, a pledge, or token of a peraon'a real intentions, whence the word has been employed to qualify the state of any one's mind, as aettled or fixed. SERIOUS, in Latin serius, or sine risu, signifies without laughter.

Eager is used to qualify the desires or pasaions; earnest to qualify the wishes on sentiments; the former has either a physical or moral application, the latter altogether a moral application: a child is eager to get a plaything; a hungry per. son is eager to get food; a covetous man is eager to seize whatever comes within his grasp: a person is earnest in solicitation; earnest in exhortation; earnest in devotion. Eagerness is mostly faulty; it cannot be too early restrained in children.
With joy the ambitious youth his mother heard, And, eager for the jourdey, soon prepar'd.

Dryden.
Whence this term is with particular propriety applied to brutes.
The panting steeds impatient fury breathe, But snort and tremble at the gulf heneath; Eiger they view'd the prospect dark and deep, Vast was the leap, and headlong hung the steep.

Fore.
Earnestness is always taken in the good sense for the inward conviction of the mind, accompanied with the warmth of the heart in a good cause.
Then even superior to ambition, we
With earneat eye anticipate those acenes
of happiness and wonder.
Thomson,
A person is said to be earnest, or in earnest; a person or thing is said to be serious: the former characterizes the temper of the mind, the latter characterizes the object itself. In regard to persons, in which alone they are to be compared, earnest expresses more than serious; the former is opposed to lukewarm. ness, the latter to unconcernedness: we are earnest as to our wishes or our per. suasions; we are serious as to our intentions: the earnestness with which we address another depends upon the force of our conviction; the seriousness witb which we address them depends upon our sincerity, and the nature of the sub. ject: the preacher earnestly exhorta bis hearers to lay aside their sins; he seriously admonishes those who are guilty of irregularities.

He which prayeth in dne sort is therelly made the more attentive to hear, and be which heareth the more earnest to pray, for the time which we bestow as well in the one ss the other.

Hooker.
It is hardly possible to sit down to the sertous perussl of Virgil's works, but a man shall rise more disposed to virtue sud goodness. Walsh.

## EARNEST, PLEDGE.

Is the proper sense, the EARNEST ( $v$. Eager) is given as a token of our being in earnest in the promise we have made; the PLEDGE, in all probability from pli. co, to fold or implicate, signifies a security by which we are engaged to indemnify for a loss. The earnest has regard to the confidence inspired; the pledge has regard to the bond or tie produced: when a contract is only verbally formed, it is usual to give earnest; whenever money is advanced, it is common to give a pledge.

In the figurative application the terms bear the same analogy: a man of genius sometimes, though not always, gives an earnest in youth of his future greatness; children are the dearest pledges of affection between parents.
Nsturs has wove into the human mind This anzious care for names we lesve behind, T' extend our nsrrow views beyond the tomb, And give an earnest of a life to come. Jenyms.
Fairest of stars last in the train of night,
If better thou belong not to the dswr.
Sure pledge of day that crown'st the smiling morn,
With thy hright circlet prsise him in thy sphere. Milton.

RASE, QUIET, REST, REPOSE.
EASE, like the French aisé, glad, comes from the Armoric aez, Welsh hawz, Cornish hedh, Irish easgadh, Saxon aeth, all in the sense of ease or relief from any outward annoyance, with which is connected the Latin otium, in Italian agio, leisure, or exemption from labor, and the Greek $\eta \sigma \chi^{\circ}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{s}$, quiet. QUIET, in Latin quietus, probably from the Greek кєц $\mu \mathrm{a}$, to lie down, signifies a lying postare. Whether the word REST comes from the Saxon rest, German rast, ruhe, etc., peace, or from the Latin resto, to stand still or make halt, it signifies properly cessation of motion. REPOSE comes from the Latin reposui, perfect of repono, to place back, signifying the state of placing one's self backward in an easy posture.

The idea of a motionless state is common to all these terms : ease and quiet respect action on the body; rest and repose respect the action of the body: we are easy or quiet when freed from any external agency that is painful ; we have rest or repose when the body is no longer in motion. Ease denotes an exemption from any painful agency in general ; quiet denotes an exemption from that in particular which noise, disturbance, or the violence of others may cause: we are easy, or at ease, when the body is in a posture agreeable to itself, or when no circumjacent object presses unequally upon it; we are quiet when there is an agreeable stillness around: our ease may be disturbed either by internal or external causes; our quiet is most commonly disturbed by external objects.

By this we plsluly view the two imposthumes thst choke s kingdom's welfare, easa snd wsntonness.

Bacor.
But eaty quiet, a secure retrest,
A harmless life that knows not how to cheat, With home-bred plenty the rich owner hless, And rural pleasures crowu his happiness.

Dryder.
Rest simply denotes the cessation of motion; repose is that species of rest which is agreeable after labor: we rest as circumstances require; in this sense, our Creator is said to have rested from the work of creation : repose is a circumstance of necessity; the weary seek repose; there is no human being to whom it is not sometimes indispensable. We may rest in a standing posture; we can repose only in a lying position: the dove which Noah first sent out could not find rest for the sole of its foot; soldiers who are hotly pursued by an enemy have no time or opportunity to take repose: the night is the time for rest; the pillow is the place for repose.
Grest wits to msdness surely sre silied, And thin partitions do their hounds divide;
Else why should he, with wealth and honory blest,
Refuse his age the needful honrs of rest.
Drydex.
I sll the livelong dsy
Consnme in meditation deep, recluse
From haman converse, nor st shat of eve Enjoy reposa.

Philips.
Rest may be as properly applied to things as to persons; repose is figurative ly applied to things.

The peaceful peasant to the wars is press'd, The flelds he fallow, in inglorious rest. Dryden.
Nor can the tortur'd wave here flnd repose, But raging still smid the shaggy rocks, Now thashes o'er the scatter'd fragments.

Thomson.
EASE, EASINESS, FACILITY, LIGHTNESE.
EASE (v. ETase) denotes either the abstract state of a person or quality of a thing; EASINESS, from easy, signifying having ease, denotes simply an abstract quality which serves to characterize the thing; a person enjoys ease, or he has an easiness of disposition.
Ease is the ntmost that can be boped from a sedentary and unactive hahit.

JOHNBON.
His yielding to them in one thing might happily put them in hope that time wonld breed the like easinees of condescending further unto them. Hooker.

Ease is said of that which is boroe, or that which is done; easiness and FACILITY, from the Latin facilis, easy, most commonly of that which is done; the former in application to the thing as before, the latter either to the person or the thing: we speak of the easiness of the task, but of a person's facility in doing it: we judge of the easiness of a thing by comparing it with others more difficult; we judge of a person's facility by comparing him with others who are less skilful.

Nothing is more subject to mistake and dissappointment than anticiputed judgment concerning the easiness or difficulty of any undertaking.

Johnson.
Every one must have remarked the facility with which the kindness of others is sometimes gained by those to whom he never conld have impsrted his own.

Johnson.
Ease and LIGHTNESS are both said of what is to be borne; the former in a general, the latter in a particular sense. Whatever presses in any form is not easy; that which presses by excess of Weight is not light: a coat may be easy from its make; it can be light only from its texture. A work is easy which requires no particular effort either of body or mind from any one performing it; a work is light as far as it requires no bodily effort, or not more than what the individual can easily make who has to perform it.

The service of God, in the solemn assembly of saints, is a work, though easy, yet withal very weighty snd of great respect. Hooker. Well pleas'd were all his friends, the task was light,
The father, mother, danghter, they invite.
DEYDEN*
The same distinction exists between their derivatives, to ease, facilitate, and lighten; to ease is to make casy or free from pain, as to ease a person of his labor; to facilitate is to render a thing more practicable or less difficult, as to facilitate a person's progress ; to lighten is to take off an excessive weight, as to lighten a person's burdens.
With all my soul, he thus reply'd again,
I'll spend my dearest blood to eass thy pain.

## Pore.

It is material for any person who intends to carry iuto execution such a purpose as this (setting fire to ganpowder), that it should not be executed too soon, in order to facilitate the party's escape.

State Telafs.
But strive
In offices of love, how we may lighten
Each other's burden in our shsre of woe.
Minton.
EASY, READY.
EASY (v. Ease, Easiness) signifies here a freedom from obstruction in ourselvee. READY, in German bereit, Latin paratus, signifies prepared.

Eusy marks the freedom of being done; ready the disposition or willingness to do; the former refers mostly to the thing or the manner, the latter to the person; the thing is easy to be done: the person is ready to do it ; it is easy to make professions of friendship in the ardor of the moment; but every one is not ready to act up to them when it interferes with his convenience or interest. As epithets, both are opposed to difficult, but agreeably to the above explanation of the terms; the former denotes a freedom from such difficulties or obstacles as lie in the nature of the thing itself; the latter an exemption from such as lie in the temper and character of the person; hence we say a person is easy of access whose situation, rank, employments, or circumstances do not prevent him from admitting others to his presence; he is ready to hear when he himself throws no obstacles in the way, when he lends a willing ear to what is said. So likewiso
a task is said to be easy; a person's wit, or a person's reply, to be ready.

> If to do were as easy as to aty what were good to do, chapels had been churches, and poor men's cottages princes' palaces.

> Sbargpeare.
> The scorpion, ready to receive thy laws,
> Yields hall his region and contracts his clews.

Defiek.

## EBULLITION, EFFERVESCENCE, FERmentation, ferment.

These technical terms have a strong resemblance in their signification, but they are not strictly synonymous; they hsve strong characteristic differences. EBULLITION, from the Latin ebullitio and ebullio, cornpounded of $e$ and bullio, to boil forth, marks the commotion of $s$ liquid acted upon by fire, and in chemistry it is said of two substances which, by penetrating each other, accasion bubbles to rise up. EFFERV ESCENCE, from the Latin effervescentia, and effervesco, to grow hot, marks the commotion which is excited in liquors by a combination of substances; such as of acids, which sre mixed and commonly produce heat. FERMENT, or FERMENTATION, from the Latin fermentatio and fermentum or fervimentum, from ferveo, to grow hot, marks the internal movement which is excited in a liquid of itself, by which its components undergo such a change or decomposition as to form a new body.

Ebullition is a more violent action than effervescence; ferment and fermentation are more gradual and permanent than either. Wster is exposed to ebullition when seted upon by any powerful degree of external heat; iron in squs-fortis occasions effervescence; beer and wine undergo a ferment or fermentation before they reach a state of perfection. These terms sre applied figuratively to moral objects. The passions are exposed to ebullitions; She heart and affections to effervescence shen powerfully awakened by particular objects. The minds or spirits particularly of numbers may be in a ferment or fermentation. If the angry humors of an irascible temper be not restrained in early life, they but too frequently break forth in the most dreadful ebullitions in maturer years; religious zeal, when not constrained by the sober exercise of
judgment, and corrected by sound knowledge, is an unhappy effervescence that injures the cause which it espouses, and often proves fatal to the individusl by whom it is indulged: the ferment produced by public measures msy often endanger the public peace.
Milbourn, indeed, a clergyman, attacked it (Dryden's Virgil), but his outrages seem to be the sbullitions of a mind egitated by stronger resentment than bad poetry can excite.

Junnson.
Dryden's was not one of the gentle bosoms; he hardly conceived love but in its turbulent offorvesconce with some other desires. Junnson.

The tumalt of the world raises that eager fermentation of spirit which will ever be sending forth the dangerous fumes of folly. Blay.

## ECCLESIASTIC, DIVINE, THEOLOGLAN.

An ECCLESLASTIC derives his title from the office which he bears in the ecclesia, or church; a DIVINE and THEO. LOGIAN from his pursuit after, or engagement in, divine or theological matters. An ecclesiastic is connected with an episcopacy; s divine or theologian is unconnected with any form of church government. An ecclesiastic need not in his own person purform any office, although he fills a station; a divine not only fills a station, but actually performs the office of teaching; a theologian neither fills any particular station, nor discharges any specific duty, but merely follows the pursuit of studying theology. An ecclesiastic is not alwsys a divine, nor a divine an ecclesiastic; a divine is slways more or less a theologian, but every theologian is not a divine. Among the Roman Catholics all monks, and in the Church of England the various dignitarics who perform the episcopal functions, are entitled ecclesiastics. There are but few denominations of Christians who have not appointed teachers who are called divines. Professors or writers on theology sre peculiarly denominated theologians.

Our old English monks seldom let any of their kings depart in peace, who had endeavored to diminish the power or wealtb of which the ecelesiastics were in those times possessed.

Addibon.
Nor shall I dwell on our excellence in metaphysical speculations; because, he that reads the works of our dirines will easily discover how far human sobtilty has been able to penetrate.

Jonkeor,

## EDIFICE

I looked on that sermon as the public declaration of a man much connected with literary caballers, intriguing philosophers, and political theologians.

Burke.

## TO ECLIPSE, OBSCURE.

ECLIPSE, in Greek eкरelto from $\varepsilon \kappa \lambda \varepsilon \iota \pi \omega$, to fail, signifying to cause a failure of light. OBSCURE, from the adjective obscure (v. Dark), signifies to cause the intervention of a shadow.

In the natural as well as the moral application eclipse is taken in a particular and relative signification; obscure is used in a general sense. Hearenly bodies are eelipsed by the intervention of other bodies between them and the beholder; things are in gencral obscured which are in any way readered less striking or visible. To eclipse is therefore a species of obscuring: that is always obscured which is eclipsed; but everything is not eclipsed which is obseured. So, figuratively, real merit is eclipsed by the iutervention of superior merit; it is often obscured by an ungracious exterior in the possessor, or by his unfortunate circumstances.

## Sarcasms may eclipse thine own, Bat camnot blur my lost renown.

Botler.
Among those who are the most richly endowed by aature and accomplished by their own industry, how few are there whose virtues are not ob. acured by the ignorance, prejudice, or envy of their beholders.

ADDISON.
ECONOMICAL, ECONOMY, vide p. 637.

## ECSTASY, RAPTURE, TRANSPORT.

There is a strong resemblance in the meaning and application of these words. They all express an extraordinary elevation of the spirits, or an excessive tension of the mind. ECSTASY marks a passive state, from the Greek exorants and $\varepsilon \xi_{\sigma} \sigma \tau \eta \mu$, to stand, or be out of one's self, out of one's mind. RAPTURE, from the Latin rapio, to seize or carry away; and TRANSPORT, from trans and porto, to carry beyond onc's self, rather designate an active state, a violent impulse with which it hurries itself forward. Ecstasy and rapture are always pleasurable, or arise from pleasurable causes; transport respects either pleasurable or painful feelings: joy occasions ecstasies or raptures; joy and anger have their tranaports. An ecstasy benumbs the fac-
ultics; it will take away the power of speecb and often of thought; it is commonly occasioned by sudden and unexpected events: rapture, on the other hand, often invigorates the powers, and calls them into action; it frequently arises from deep thought: the former is common to all persons of ardent feelings, but more particularly to children, ignorant people, or to such as bave not their feelings under control; rapture, on the contrary, is applicable to persons with superior minds, and to circumstances of peculiar importance. Transports are sudden bursts of passion which, from their vehemence, may lead to intemperate actions: a reprieve from the sentence of death will produce an ecstasy or delight in the pardoned criminal. Relig. ious contemplation is calculated to produce holy raptures in a mind strongly imbued with pious zeal: in transports of rage men have committed enormities which have cost them bitter tears of repentance ever after: youth is the period in which transports of delight are mostly felt.
What followed was all ecatany and trance.
immortal pleasures ronnd my swimming eyea did dance.

DIXDEN.
By swift degrees the love of nature works,
And warms the bosom, till at last sublim'd To rapture and enthusiastlc heat, We feel the present Deity.

Thomson.
Witness the neglect
Of all familiar prospects, tho' beheld With transport oace.

Akenaldi

## EDIFICE, STRUCTURE, FABRIC.

EDIFICE, in Latin oedificium, from cedifico, or cedes and facio, to make a house, signifies properly the house made. STRUCTURE, from the Latin structura, and struo, to raise, signifies the raising a thing, or the thing raised. FABRIC, from the Latin fabrico, signifies either the act of fabricating or the thing fabricated.

Edifice in its proper sense is always applied to a building; structure and fab. ric are either employed as abstract actions, or the results and fruits of actions: in the former case they are applied to many objects besides buildings; siructure referring to the act of raising or setting up together; fabric to that of framing or contriving. As edifice bespeaks the thing
treelf, it requires no modification, since It conveys of itself the idea of something superior: the word structure wust always be quallied; it is employed only to designate the mode of action; fabric is itgelf a species of epithet, it designates the object as something contrived by the power of art or by design. Edifices dedfeated to the service of religion have in all ages been held sacred: it is the business of the architect to estimate the merits or demerits of any structure: when we take a survey of the vast $f a b$ ric of the universe, the mi:n] becomes bewildered with contemplatiarg the infinite power of its Divine author.
The levellers enly pervert tha natural order of things ; they lond the ediffce of seciety, by setting up in the air what the solidity of the atruct ure requires te be on the ground. Burke.
By destiny compell'd, and in despair, The Greeks grew weary of the tedious war, And, by Minerva's aid, a fabric rear'd.

Datden.
When employed in the abstract sense of actions, structure is limited to objects of magnitude, or such as consist of complicated parts; fabric is extended to ev* erything in which art or contrivance is requisite; hence wo may speak of the structure of vessels, and the fabric of cloth, iron ware, or the fabric of states, the universe, ctc.

In the whole atructure and constitution of things, God hath shown himself to bo favorable to virtue, and inlmical to vice and guilt. Blair.
The cleud-capt tewers, the gorgecus palaces, Tha solemn temples, the great globe itself, Yea, all which it inherit shall dissolve, And, like the baseless fabrie of a vision, Leave not a wreek behind. Sankspeane.

## EDUCATION, INSTRUCTION, BREEDING.

INSTRUCTION and BREEDING are to EDUCATION as parts to a whole: inatruction respects the commonication of knowledge, and breeding respects the manners or outward conduct; but education comprehends not only both these, but the formation of the mind, the regulation of the heart, and the establishment of the principles: good instruction makes one wiser; good brecding makes one more polished and agreeable: good education makes one really good. A want of education will always be to the injury, if not to the ruin of the sufferer: a want of
instruction is of more or less inconvenience, according to circumstances; a want of breeding only unfits a man for the so ciety of the cultivated. Education belongs to the period of childhood and youth; instruction may be given at different ages; good-breeding is best learned in the early part of lifc.

A mother tells her infant that two and two make four, the ehild remembers the proposition, and is able to count four for all the purposes of life, till the coorse of his education brings him among philosepbers, who fright him from his former knowledge by telling lim that four is a certain aggregate of units.

Joinsson.
To Illustrate one thing by its resemblance to another has been always tha mest pepular and effcacious art of instruction.

Jeungen.
My breeding abroad hath shown me more of the werld than yeurs has dene. Wentwonth

## TO EFFECT, PRODUCE, PERFORM.

The latter two are in reality included in the former; what is effected is both produced and performed; but what is produced or performed is not always effocted. To EFFECT, in Latin effectus, participle of efficio, compounded of $e$ and facio, signifies to make out anything. To PRODUCE, from the Lath produco, sig nifies literally to draw forth. To PEP FORM, compounded of per and form, sig. nifies to form thoroughly or carry through.

To produce significs to bring something forth or into existence; to perform to do something to the end: to effect is to produce an effect by performing; whatever is effected is the consequence of a specifio design; it always requires, therefore, a rational agent to offcct: what is produced may follow incidentally, or arise from tho action of an irrational agent or an inani. mate object; what is performed is done by specific efforts; it is, therefore, like effect, the consequence of design, and requires a rational agent. To effect respects both the end and the means by which it is brought about; to produce respects the end only; to perform the means only. No person ought to calculate on effecting a reformation in the morals of men without the aid of rellgion; changes both in individuals and communities are often produced by trifles.

[^51]Though prudeace does in a great measure produce oar good or in fortune, there are many uaforeseen occurrences wnich pervert the finest scbemes that can be laid by human wisdom.

AdDison.
Where there is a power to perform, God does not accept tbe will.

Soota.
To effect is said of that which emanates frorn the mind of the agent bimself; to perform of that which is marked out by rule, or prescribed by another. We effect 2 purpose, we perform a part, a duty, or office. A truc Cbristian is always happy when be can effect a reconciliation between parties who are at variance: it is a laudable ambition to strive to perform one's part creditably in society.

> He (God) did it, after our forefathers were reduced to extremities, and had tired themselves by various attempts to bring this grent end about, and had been baffed in all of them, and had sat down at last in despair of effecting it.

ATTEARURY.
Some men are brave in battle who are weak in council, which daily experience sets before our eyes; others deliberate wisely, bat are weak in the performing part.

Dryden.

## EFFECTIVE, EFFICLENT, EFFECTUAL, EFFICACIOUS.

EFFECTIVE significs capable of effecting; EFFICIENT signifies literally effccting; EFFECTUAL and EFFICACIOUS signify having the effcct, or possessing the power to effect. Effective and efficient are used only in regard to physical objects: an army or a revenue is effective that can be employed to effect any ohject: a cause is efficient that is adequate to produce an effect.
I should suspend my congratulations on the new liberties of France until I was informed how it had been combined with government, with the discipline of the armies, and the collection of an effective revenue.

Borie.
No searcher has yet found the effeient canse of sleep.

Jounson.
Effectual and efficacious are said of operations and intellectual objects: an end or result is effectual; the means are efficacious: a remedy or cure is effectual that is in reality effected; a medicine is efficacious that effects a cure. No effectual stop can be put to the vices of the lower orders, while they bave a vicious example from their superiors: a seasonable exercise of severity on an offender is often very efficacious in quelling a spirit of in-
subordination. When a thing is not found effectual, it is requisite to have recourse to furtber measures; that which has been proved to be inefficacious should never be adopted.
Nothing so effectually deadens the taste of tho sublime, as that which is light and radiant.

Bueke.
He who labors to lessen the dignity of humao nature, destroys many affeacious motives for practising worthy actions.

Warton.

## EFFUSION, EJACULATION.

EFFUSION signifies the thing poured out, and EJACULATION the tbing ejaculated or thrown out, both indicating a species of verbal expression; the former either by utterance or in writing; the latter only by utterance. The effusion is not so vehement or sudden as the ejaculation; the ejaculation is not so ample or diffuse as the effusion; effusion is seldom taken in a good sense; ejaculation rarely otherwise. An effusion commonly flows from a beated imagination uncorrected by the judgment; it is, therefore, in general not only incoherent, but extravagant and senseless: an ejaculation is produced by the warmth of the moment, but never with out reference to some particular circumstance. Enthusiasts are full of extravagant effusions; contrite sinners will often express their penitence in pious ejaculations.
Brain-sick opinionators please themselves in nothing but the ostentation of their own extemporary effusions.

SOOTH
All which prayers of our Saviour's and others of like brevity are properly such as we call ejac. utations.

Souta

## ELDERLY, AGED, OLD.

These three words rise by gradation in their sense; AGED denotes a greater degree of age than ELDERLY: and OLD still more than eitber. The elderly man has passed the meridian of life; the aged man is fast approaching the term of our existence; the old man has already reached this term, or has exceeded it. In conformity, however, to the vulgar preposses. sion against age and its concomitant in. firmities, the term elderly or aged is al ways more respectful than old, which lat. ter word is often used by way of reproach, and can seldom be used free from such an association, unless qualified by an epithet of praise, as good or venerable.

I have a ruce of orderly, elderly persons of both sexes, at my command. Swifr. A godlike race of heroes once I know, Such as no more theso aged eyes shall view. Pope.
The fleld of combat fits the young and bold, The solemn council best becornes the old. Pope.

## ELIGIBLE, PREFERABLE.

ELIGIBLE, or fit to be elected, and 2REFERABLE, fit to be preferred, serve as epithets in the sense of choose and prefer ( $v$. To choose, prefer); what is eligible is desirable in itself, what is preferable Is morc desirable than another. There may be many eligible situations, out of which perhaps there is but one preferable. Of persons, however, we say rather that they are eligible to an office than preferable.
The middle condition is the most eligible to the man whe woold improve himeelf in virtue.

Admison.
The saying of Plato is, that labor is preferable to Idleness as brightuess to rust! Huones.

## elocution, thloquence, oratory, RIETORIC.

ELOCUTION and ELOQUENCE are derived from the same Latin verb, eloquor, to speak out. ORATORY, from oro, to implore, signifies the art of maklng a set speech.

Elocution consists in the manrer of delivery; eloquence in the matter that is delivered. We employ elocution in repeating the words of another; we cmploy eloquence to express our own thoughts and fcelings. Elocution is requisite for an actor; eloquence for a speaker.

Soft elocution does thy style renown, And the sweet acconts of the peacerul gown, Gentle or sharp according to thy cholce To laugh at follies or to lagh at vlce. Dnyden.

He was long much admired for his eloquence. Bernet.
Eloquence lies in the person: it is a natural gift: oratory lies in the mode of expression; it is an acquired art. RHETORIC, from $\dot{\rho} \varepsilon \omega$, to speak, is properly the theory of that art of which oralory is the practice. But the term rhet oric may be sometimes cmployed in an improper sense for the display of oratory or scientific speaking. Eloquence speaks one's own feelings; it comes from the beart, and speaks to the heart : ora
tory is an imitative art; it describes what is felt by another. Rhetoric is either in the technical sense the science of oratory, or oratory reduced to rule, or, in the vulgar acceptation, it is the affectation of oratory.
As harsh aod irregular sounds are not harmony, so neither is banging a cushion oratory.

Swift.
Be bnt a person in credit with the multitude, he shall be able to make popular rambling stuff pass for high rhetoric and moving preaching.

Sovtr.
Eloquence often consists in a look or an action; oratory must always be accompanied with language. There is a dumb eloquence which is not denied even to the brutes, and which speaks nore than all the studied graces of speech and action employed by the orator.

Some other poets knew the art of speaking well; but Virgil, beyond this, knew the admirable secret of being eloquently silent. Walsh.

## to embarrass, perplex, entangle.

EMBARRASS (v. Diffculty) respects a person's manners or circumstances; PERPLEX ( $v$. To distrcss), his views and conduct; ENTANGLE (v. To disengage) is said of particular circumstances. Embarrassments depend altogether on ourselves: the want of prudence and presence of mind is the common cause; perplexities depend on extraneous circumstances as well as ourselves; extensive doalings with others are mostly attended with perplexities; entanglements arise mostly from the evil designs of others. That embarrasses which interrupts the even coursc or progress of one's actions: that perplexes which interferes with one's decisions: that entangles which binds a person in his actions. Pecuniary diffculties embarrass, or contending feelings produce embarrassment; contrary counsels or interests perplex; the artifices of cunning entangle. Steadiness of mind prevents embarrassment in the outward behavior. Firmness of character is requisite in the midst of perplexities; cantion must be employed to guard against entanglements.

[^52]It is scarcely possible, in the regularity and composure of the present time, to image the tumult of absurdity and clamor of contradiction which perplewed doctrine, disnrdered practice, and disturbed hoth public and private quiet in the time of the rebellion.

JOHNSON.
I presume you do not entangle yourself in the particalar controversies hetween the Romanists and us.

Clarendon.

## EMBRYO, FOETUS.

EMBRYO, in French embryon, Greek $\varepsilon \mu \beta \rho v o v$, from $\beta \rho v \omega$, to germinate, sigaifies the thing germinated. FGETUS, in French fotus, Latin foetus, from foveo, to cherish, signifies the thing cherished, both words referring to what is formed in the womb of the mother; but embryo properly lmplies the first-fruit of conception, and the fcetus that which is arrived to a maturity of formation. Anatomists tell us that the embryo in the human subject assumes the character of the foetus about the forty-second day after conception.

Frotus is applicable only io its proper seose to animated beings : embryo has a figurative application to plants and fruits when they remain in a confused and imperfect state, and also a moral application to plans, or whatever is roughly conceived in the mind.

The thievish jay
Seeking her food, with ease might have purloined The auburn nut that held thee, swallowing down Thy yet close-folded latitude of boughs And all thine cmbryo vastaess at a gulp.

Cowper.

## EMISSARY, SPY.

EMISSARY, in Latin emissarius, from emitto, to send forth, signifies one sent out. SPY, in French espion, from the Latin specio, to look into or look about, signifies one who searches.

Both these words designate a person sent out by a body on some public concern among their enemies; but they differ in their office according to the etymology of the words. The emissary is by distinction sent forth; he is sent so as to mix with the people to whom he goes, to be in all places, and to associate with every one individually as may serve his purpose; the $s p y$, on the other hand, takes his station wherever he can best perceive what is passing ; he keeps himself at a distance from all but such as may particularly aid him in the object of his search. Although the offices of emis-
sary and spy are neither of them honor able, yet that of the former is more disgraceful than that of the latter. The emissary is generally employed by those who have some illegitimate object to pursue; spies, on the other hand, are employed by all reguiar governments in a time of warfare. Nations that are ar war sometimes send emissaries into the states of the enemy to excite civil commotions. At Sparta, the trade of a $s p y$ was not so vile as it has been generally esteemed; it was considered as a selfdevotion for the public good, and formed a part of their education.

The Jesuits send uver emissaries with instructions to personate themselves members of the several sects among us.

Swirt.
These terms are applied to other ob. jects figuratively.
What generally makes pain itself, if I may so say, more painful, is that it is considered as the emissary of the king of terrors.

Bubie.
These wretched spies of wit must then confess They take more pains to please themselves the less.

Dayden.

## to emit, exhale, evaporate.

EMIT, from the Latin emitto, expresses properly the act of sending out: EXHALE, from halitus, the breath, and EVAPORATE, from vapor, vapor or steam, are both modes of emitting.

Emit is used to express a more positive effort to send out; exhale and evaporate designate the natural and progressive process of things: volcanoes emit fire and flames; the eartl exhacles the damps, or flowers exhale perfumes; liquids evaporate. Animals may emit by an act of volition; things exhale or evaporate by an external action upon them; they exhale that which is foreign to them; they evaporate that which constitutes a part of their substance. The polecat is reported to emit such a stench from itself when pursued, as to keep its pursuers at a distance from itself: boge and fens exhale their moisture when acted upon by the heat: water evaporates by means of steam when put into a state of ebullition.
Full in the blazing sun great Hector shin'd
Like Mars commission'd to confound mankind;
His nodding helm emits a streamy ray,
His piercing eyes through all the battle stray.
POPE

## EMPIRE

Here paus'd a moment, while the gentle gale convey'd that freshness the cool seas exhale.

POPE.
After allowing the first fumes and heat of their zeal to enaporate, she (Elizabeth) called Into her presence a certain number of each house.

Robertaon,

## EMPIRE, KINGDOM,

Althoven these two words obviously refer to two species of states, where the princes assume the title of either emperor or king, yet the difference between them is not limited to this distinction.

The word EMPIRE carries with it the idea of a state that is vast, and composed of many different people; that of KING. DOM marks a state more ilmited in extent, and united in its composition. In kingdoms there is a uniformity of fundamcital laws; the difference in regard to particular laws or modes of jurispru dence heing merely varlations from custom, whioh do not affect the unity of political administration. From this unlformity, indeed, in the functions of government, we may trace the origin of the words king and kingdom: since there is but one prince or sovereign ruler, although there may be many empioyed in the administration. With empires it is different: one purt is somstimes governed by fundamental laws, very different from those by which another part of the same empire is governed; which diversity destroys the unity of government, and makes the union of the state to consist in the submission of certain ehiefs to the commands of a superior general or chief. From this very right of commanding, then, it is evident that the words empire and emperor derive their origin; and hence it is that there may be many princes or sovereigns, and kingdoms, in the same empire. Rome, therefore, was first a kingdom, while it was formed of only one people: it acquired the name of empire as soon as other nations were brought into sabjection to it, and hecame members of it; not by losing their distinctive character as nations, but by submitting themselves to the supreme command of their conquerors. For the same reason the German empire was so denomineted, because it consisted of sereral states independent of each other, yet ail subject to one ruler or emperor; so
likewise the Russian empire, the Ottoman empire, and the Magul empire, which are composed of different nations: and, on the other hand, the kingdom of Spain, of Portugal, of France, and of England, all of which, though dlvided into different provinces, were, nevertheless, one peopie, hating butt one ruler. While Frauce, however, included many distinct countries within its jurisdiction, it properly assumed the name of an empire; and England, having by a legislative act united to itseif a country distinct both in its laws and customs, has likewise, with equal propriety, been denominated the British empire.

We have a great empire to rule, composed of a vastness of heterogeneons governments, all more or less free and popular in their forms, all to be kept in peace, and to be held in subordination to this country.
In the vast fabric of kingdoms and commonWealths, it is in the power of kings and rulers to extend and enlarge the bounds of empire.

Bacon.

## EMPIRE, REIGN, DOMINION.

In the preceding article EMPIRE has been considered as a species of state: in the present case it conveys the idea of power, or an exercise of sovereignty. In this sense it is allied to the word REIGN, which, from the verb to reign, signifies the act of reigning; and to the word DOMINION, which, from the Latin dominus, a lord, signifies either the power or the exercise of the power of a lord.

As empire signifies command, or the power exercised in commanding, it properly refers to the country or people commanded; and as reign signifies the act of reigning, it refers to the individual who reigns. If we speak of an extended empire, it has regard to the space over which it extends; if of an extended reign, it has regard either to the country reigned over, or to the length of time that a prince reigns.

In this expedition, he (Xerxes) led an army of ahout two millions to be slaughtered, in the same place where hls predecessors had, by a similar madness, consumed the flower of so many kingdoms and wasted the force of so extensive an empire.

Butee
Why boast we, Glanicus, onr extended reign,
Where Xanthus' streams enrlch the Lycian plain.
POPE
From this distinction of the terms, the

## EMPTY

epithats vaat, united, dismemberized, and the like, are most appropriately applied to empire ; the epithets peaceful, warlike, glorious, prosperous, and the like, to reign. Empire and reign are properly applied to eivil government or the exercise of regular power; dominion signifies either the aet of ruling by a aovereign or a private individual, or the power exercised in ruling, which may either be regular or irregular; a sovereigo may have dominion over many nations by force of arms; he holds his reign by foree of law.

The sage historie muse
Should next eonduct us through the deeps of time,
Sbow us how empire grew, declin'd, and fell.
Thomson.
He who, like a father, held hils reign, So soon forgot, was wise and just in vain. Pope.
They affected no uncontrollable dominion or absolute sway, but preferred the good of their people, for whose protection they knew and acknowledged themselves to have been advanced, before any ambitious designs of their own.

Pottea.
If empire and reign be extended in their application to other objeets, it is figurative; thus a female may be said to hold her empire among her admirers, or fashions may be said to have their reign. Dominion may be applied in the proper aense to the power whieh man exereises over the brutes or inanimate objeets, and figuratively to the power of the passiona.
Let great Achilles, to the gods resign'd,
To reason yield the empire of his mind. Pope.
The frigid zone,
Where for relentless months coutinual night
Holds o'er the glittering waste her starry reign.
THom8on.
By timely caution those desires may be repressed to which indulgence would give absolute dominion.

Jonnson.

## TO EMPLOY, USE.

EMPLOY, from the Latin implico, signifies to implieate, or apply for any special purpoge. USE, from the Latin usius and utor, signifies to enjoy or derive benefit from.

Employ expresses less than use; it is in fact a species of partial using: we alwaya employ when we use; but we do not alwaye use when we employ. We employ whatever we take into our gerviee, or make subservient to our convenienee for a time; we use whatever we entirely de-
vote to our purpose. Whatever 18 cm ployed by one person may, in its turn, be employed by another, or at different times be employed by the same person: but what is used is frequently consumed or rendered unfit for a similar use. What we employ may frequently belong to another; but what one uses is supposed to be his excluaive property. On this ground we may speals of employing peraons as well as things: but we speak of using things only, and not persons, exeept in the most degradiag aense. Peraons, time, atrength, and power are employed; houses, furniture, and all materiala, of whieh either necessities or convenienees are composed, are used. It ia a part of wisdom to employ well the short portion of time whieh is allotted to us in this sublunary state, and to use the thinga of this world so as not to abuse them. No one is exculpated from the guilt of an immoral action, by suffering himself to be employed as an instrument to serve the purposes of another: we ought to use our utinost endeavors to abstain from all eonnection with sueh as wish to implicate ua in their guilty practiees.
Thou, godlike Hector! all thy force employ; Assemble all th' united bands of Troy. Pope. Straight the broad belt, with gay embrold'ry grac'd,
He loos'd the eorslet from his breast unbrac'd ;
Then suek'd the blood, and sov'reign balm infus'd
Which Chiron gave, and Eseulapius us'd.

## Pore.

## EMPTY, VACANT, VOID, DEVOID.

EMPTY, is Saxon aemti, from aemtian, to be idle or vacant, has the aame original meaning as VACANT, in the Latin vacans, from the Hebrew bekak, to empty. VOID and DEVOID, in Latin viduus, and Greek iotos, signifies solitary or bereft.

Empty is the term in most general use; vaeant, void, and devoid are employed in partieular cases; empty and vacant have either a proper or an improper applica. tion; void or devoid only a moral aeceptation. Empty, in the natural sense, marks an absence of that which is subatantial, or adapted for filling: vacant designates or marks the absenee of that which should oecupy or make uae of a thing. That which ia hollow may be emp$t y$ : that which respeets an even apace
may be vacant. A house is empty which has no inhabitants; a seat is vacant which is without an occupant; a room is empty which is without furniture; a space on paper is vacant which is free from writing.

I look apon an ahte statesman out of business like a huge whale that will endeavor to overturn the ship unless he has an empty cask to play with.

Tatlee.
The astonish'd mother finds a vacant nest By the hard hand of unrelenting elowns Robb'd.

тномвол.
In their figurative application empty and vacant have a similar analogy : the empty is opposed to that which is substantial : the vacant to that which is or ought to be occupied; a dream is said to be empty, or a title empty; a stare is said to be vacant, or an hour vacant.
To honor Thetis' sen he hends his care, And plunge the Greeks in all the woes of war ; Then hids an empty phantom rise to sight, And thus commands the vision of the night.

Pope.
An inquisitive man is a creature naturally very vacant of thought in itself, and therefore forced to apply itself to foreign assistance. Steele.

Void or devoid are used in the same sense as vacant, as qualifying epithets, but not prefixed as adjcctives, and always followed by some object; thus we speak of a creature as void of reason, and of an individual as devoid of com-mon-sense.

My next desire is, void of care and strife, To lead a soft, secure, inglorious lifc. Dayden.
We Tyrians are not so devoid of scnse,
Nor so remute from Phebus' influence.
Dryden.

## encomium, eulogy, panegyric.

ENCOMIUM, in Greek $\varepsilon \gamma \kappa \omega \mu \iota \nu$, signified as set form of verses, used for the purposes of praise. EULOGY, in Greek ev $\lambda o y เ a$, from $\varepsilon v$ and $\lambda o y o c$, signifies, literally, speaking well of any one. PAN-
 $\pi a s$, the whole, and ayooa, an assembly, signifies that which is spoken before an assembly, a solémn oration.

The idea of praise is common to all these terms; but the first seems more properly applied to the thing, or the unconscious object; the second to persons in general, their characters and actions; the third to the person of some particular
individual: thus we bestow encomiume upon any work of art or production of genius, without reference to the performer; we hestow eulogies on the exploits of a hero, who is of another age or country; but we write panegyrics either in a direct address, or in direct reference to the person who is panegyrized: the encomiaum is produced by merit, real or supposed; the eulogy may spring from admiration of the person eulogized; the panegyric may he mere flattery, resulting from servile dependence: great encomiums have been paid by all persons to the constitution of England; our naval and military heroes have received the eulogies of many hesides their own countrymen; authors of no mean reputation have condescended to deal out their panegyrics pretty freely, in dedications to their patrons.

Our lawyers are, with justice, copious in their encomiums on the common law. Blacestone.

Sallust would say of Cato, "That he had rather be than appear good:" but indeed this oulo. gium rose no higher than to an inoffensiveness.

Steele.
On me, when dunees are satiric, I take it for a panegyric.

SWift.
TO ENCOURAGE, ANIMATE, INCITE, IMPEL, URGE, STIMULATE, INSTIGATE.
ENCOURAGE, v. To cheer. ANIMATE; v. To animate. INCITE, from the Latin cito, and the Hebrew sat, to stir up, signifies to put into motion toward an object. IMPEL, o. T'o actuate. URGE, in Latin urgeo, comes from the Greek ovoyen, to set to work. STIMULATE, from the Latin stimulus, a spar or goad, and INSTIGATE, from the Latin stigo, and Greek $\sigma \tau \iota \zeta \omega$, signify literally to goad. The idea of actuating, or calling into setion, is common to these terms, which vary in the circumstances of the action.

Encouragement acts as a persuasive: animate as an impelling or enlivening cause: those who are weak require to be encouraged; those who are strong become stronger by being animated: the former require to have their difficulties removed, their powers renovated, their doubts and fears dispelled; the latter may have their bopes increased, their prospects brightened, and their powers invigorated; we are encouraged not to give up or slacken in our exertions; we
are animated to increase our efforts: the sinner is encouraged by offers of pardon, through the merits of a Redeemer, to turn from his sinful ways; the Cbristian is animated, by the prospect of a blissful eternity, to go on from perfection to perfection.

Every man encourages the practice of that Fice which he cemmits in appearance, though he svoids it in fact.

Hawkewonte.
He that presecutes a lawful purpese by lawful means, acts always with the approhation ef his $0 \pi \mathrm{n}$ reasen; he is animated through the course of his endeavors by an expectation which he knewa to be jast.

Jounaon.
What encourages and animates acts by the finer feelings of our nature; what incites acts through the medium of our desires: we are encouraged by kindness; we are animated by the hope of reward: we are incited by the desire of distinction.

He would have women follow the camp, to be the spectators and encouragers of noble actions. Buaton.
While a rightful clainn to pleasure or to afflnence must be procured either by slow industry or ancertain hazard, there will always be multitudes whom cowardice or impatience incite to mere safe and speedy methods of getting wealth. JeHnson.

What impels, urges, stimulates, and instigates, acts forcibly, be the cause internal or external: we are impelled and stimulated mostly by what is internal ; we are urged and instigated by both the internal and external, but particularly the latter: we are impelled by motives; we are stimulated by appetites and passions; we are urged and instigated by the representations of others: a benevolent man is $i m$ pelled by motives of humanity to relieve the wretched; an ardent mind is stimulated by ambition to great efforts; we are urged by entreaties to spare those who are in our power; one is instigated by malicious representations to take revenge on a supposed encmy.
So Myrrha's mind, impoll' $d$ on either side, Takes every hent, hut cannet long abide.

Dryden.
The magistrate cannat urge obedience apen euch petent grounds as the minister. Sooth.
For every want that stimulates the breast Beeomes a seurce of pleasure when redrest.

Geldsmith.
We may be impelled and urged though not properly stimulated or instigated by
circumstances; in this case the two for mer differ only in the degree of force in the impelling cause: less constraint is laid on the will when we are impelled than when we are urged, which leaves no alternative or choice: a monarch is sometimes impelled by the state of the nation to make a peace less advantageous than he would otherwise do; be is urged by his desperate condition to throw himself upon the mercy of the enemy: a man is impelled by the mere necessity of choos. ing to take one road in preference to another; be is urged by his pecuniary embarrassments to raise money at a great loss.
Thus, while around the wave-snbjected soil Impels the native to repeated toil, Industrious hahits in each bosem reiga.

Goddsmite
What I have dene my safety urged me to.
Stakspenre.
We may be impelled, wrged, and stimu. lated to that which is bad; we are never instigated to that which is good: we may be impelled by curiosity to pry into that which does not concern us; we may be urged by the entreaties of those we are connected with to take steps of which we afterward repent; we may be stimulated by a desire of revenge to many foul deeds; but those who are not hardened in vice require the instigation of persons more abandoned than themselves, before they will commit any desperate act of wickedness.

That fire abated, which impela rash youth Prond of his speed to evershoot the truth, As time inproves the grape's authentic juice, Mellewa and makes the speech 10ore fit for use.

Cowper.

## Urge me ne mere.

## Shatspaak.

When piracy was esteemed henerable these il. lustriens rebbers directed that all their rich plander sheuld be depesited with their remains in order to stimulate their effspring te suppert themselves.

Pennant.
There are few instigatiens in this conntry to a hreach of confidence.

Haweesworth.
Encouragement and incitement are the abstract nouns either for the act on encouraging or inciting, or the thing thst encourages or incites: the encouragement of laudable undertakings is itself laudable; a single word or look may be au encouragement: the incitement of passion is at all times dangerous, but particularly

In youth; money is ssid to be an incitement to evil. Incentrve, which is another derivative from incite, has a higher application for things that incite than the word incitervent; the lstter being mostly applied to sensible, and the former to spiritusl objects: savory food is an incitement to sensualists to indulge in gross acts of intemperance: a religious man wants no incentives to virtues; his own breast fumishes him with those of the moblest kind. Impulse is the derivative from impel, which denotes the act of impelling; stinulus, which is the root of the word stimulate, naturally designates the instrument, namely, the spur or gosd with which one is stimulated: hence we speak of acting by s blind impulse, or wanting s stimulus to exertion.

For when he dies, farewell sll honor, bonnty, All generous encouragement of arts. Otwax.
Belng sensible how subjact ha is to all violent passions, be svoids all incitemants to them.

SWIFT.
Even the wisdom of God hath not suggested more pressing motives, mors powerful incentives to charity than these, that we shall be judged by it at the lsst dreadful dsy. Attenbury.
If these little impulses set the grest wheels of davotion on work, the largeness and height of that shall not at all be prejudiced by the smallness of the occasion.

South.

## TO ENCOURAGE, ADVANCE, PROMOTE, PREFER, FORWARD.

To ENCOURAGE, $v$. To encourage, animate. ADVANCE, v. To advance. PROMOTE, from the Latin promoveo, signifies to move forward. PREFER, from the Lstin prefero, or fero and pree, to set before, signifies to set up before others. To FORWARD is to put forwsrd.
The idea of exerting an influence to the advantage of an object is included in the signification of all these terms, which differ in the circumstances and mode of the sction: to encourage, advance, and promote are applicable to both persons and things; prefer to persous only; forward to things only.
First as to persons, encourage is partisl as to the end, and indefinite as to the means: we may encourage a person in snything however trivisl, snd by sny mesns; thus we may encourage a child in his rudeness by not checking him ; or we may encourage an artist or man of letters
in some great national work; but to ad vance, promote, snd prefer are more genersl in their end, and specific in the means; a person may advance himself, or may be advanced by others; he is promoted snd preferred only by others: в person's ad. vancement may be the fruit of his lndustry, or result from the efforts of his friends; promotion and preferment are the work of one's friends; the former in regard to offices in general, the latter mostly in regsrd to ecclesiasticsl situations: it is the duty of every one to encourage, to the utmost of his power, those smong the poor who strive to obtain an honest livelihood; it is every man's duty to advance himself in life by every legitimate mesns; it is the duty and the pleasure of every good man in the state to promote those who show themselves deserving of promotion; it is the duty of a minister to accept of preferment when it offers, but it is not his duty to he solioitous for it.

Religlon depends upon the sncouragement of thosa that are to dispense and assert it.

South.
No man's lot is so unalterably fixed in this life, but that s thoussnd accidents may either forward or dissppoint his advancement. Hughes.
Your zeal ln promoting my interest deserves my warmest scknowledgments. Beattie.

If I were now to accept prefarment in the church, I shonld be apprehensive that I might strengthen the hands of the gainssyers.

## Beatie.

When taken in regard to things, encourage is used in an improper or figurative acceptation; the rest are spplied properly: if we encourage an undertaking, we give courage to the undertaker; but when we spesk of advancing a csuse, or promoting an interest, or forwarding a purpose, these terms properily convey the idea of keeping things slive, or in a motion toward some desired end: to advance is, however, generally used in relation to whatever admits of extension and aggrandizement; promote is applied to whatever admits of being brought to a point of maturity or perfection ; forward is but a partial term, employed in the sense of promote in regard to particular objects: thus we advance religion or learning; we promote an art or an invention; we forvord a plar.

The great encouragemont which has been given to learning for some years last past has made our own nation as glorious upon this account as for its late triumphs and conquests.

Aodiaon.
1 love to see a man zealous in a good matter, and especially when his zeal ahows itself for $a d$ vancing morality, and promoting the happiness of mankind.

Addison.
It behooves us not to be wanting to ourselves in forwarding the intention of nature by the oulture of our minds.

Bebeeley.

## TO ENCOURAGE, EMBOLDEN.

To ENCOURAGE is to give courage, and to EMBOLDEN to make bold; the former impelling to action in general, the latter to that which is more difficult or dangerous: we are encouraged to persevere; the resolution is thereby confirmed: we are emboldened to begin; the spirit of enterprise is roused. Success encourages; the chance of escaping danger emboldens.

Intrepid throngh the midst of danger go,
Their friends encow'ags and amaze the foe.
Dryden.
Ermbolden'd then, nor hesitating more, Fast, fast, they plunge amid the flashing wave.

Thomson.

## TO ENCROACH, INTRENCF, INTRUDE,

 INVADE, INFRINGE.ENCROACH, in French encroeher, is compounded of en or in and crouch, cringe or creep, signifying to creep into anything. INTRENCH, compounded of in and trench, signifies to trench or dig beyond one's own ground into aoother's ground. INTRUDE, from the Latin intrudo, signifies literally to thrust upon ; and INVADE, from invado, signifies to march in upon. INFRINGE, from the Latin infringo, compounded of in and frango, signifies to break in upon.

All these terms denote an unauthorized procedure; but the first two designate gentle or silent actions, the latter violent if not noisy actions. Encroach is often an imperceptible action, performed with such art as to elude observation, it is, according to its derivation, an insensible creeping into: intrench is, in fact, a species of encroachment, namely, that perceptible species which consists in exceeding the boundaries in marking out the ground or space.

Where the fair colnmas of St. Clement's ataad, Whose atraiten'd bounda encroach upon thy Straad.
Like powerful armies trenching at a town, By slow and silent, but reaistleas sap, In hia pale progress gently gainiag grouad, Death urg'd his deadly siege. Youna.

In an extended and figurative applica. tion of the terms one is said to encroach on a person or on a person's time, etc. ; to intrench on the sphere or privileges of another.

It is observed by one of ths fathers that he who restrains hinself ia the use of things lawful will never encroach upon things forbidden.

Jonnaon.
Religion intrenches upon none of our privileges.

Sonth.
Intrude and invade designate an unauthorized entry; the former in violation of right, equity, or good manners; the latter in violation of public law : the former is more commonly applied to individuals; the latter to nations or large com. munities: unbidden guests intrude themselves sometimes into families to theit no sraall amnoyance; an army never in. vades a country without doing some mis. chief.
It is certain that in so grest a crowd of men some will intrude who are of tempers very unbecoming their function.

Admaon.
The hirds of the air had neats, and the beasta of the fild had caverns, the invasion of which they esteemed a very flagrant injnatice.
blacestone.
They are figuratively applied to other objects: intrude in the sense of going in without being invited, as unwelcome thoughts intrude themselves into the mind: invade in the sense of going in by force, as sounds invade the ear.
One of the chief characteristics of the golden age, of the age in which neither care nor danget had intruded on mankind, is the community of possessions.

Johmgon.
No sooner were his eyes ia slumber bound, When from above a more than mortal somend Invades his ears.

Dryden.
To invade and infringe are hoth violent acts; but there is more violation of good faith in infringing than in invading, as the infringement of a treaty. A priv. ilege may be either invaded or infringed; but to invade in this sense is applied to any privilege however obtained; but in fringe properly applies to that which
persons hold under some grant, compact, or law.
Women have natural and equitable claims as
well as men, and thpse claims are not to be ca-
priciously or lightly superseded or infringed.
Joinson.
Religion invades noae of our pleasures.
South.

## TO END, TERMINATE, CLOSE.

To END is either to come to an end or put an end to. To TERMINATE either to come to a term or set a term to. To CLOSE, to come or bring to a cloas. To end is indefinite in its meaning and general in its application; terminate and close are modes of ending: to terminate is to end finally; to close to end gradually. Whatever is begun will end, and it may end in any way; but what terminates is that which bas been designedly brought to an end; a string, a line, a verse, etc., may end, but a road is said properly to terminate.
A needless Alexandrine onds the song,
That, like a wounded snake, drags its slow length along.

Pope.
As I had a mind to know how each of these roads terninated, I joined myself with the assembly that were in the flower and vigor of their age, and called themselves the band of lovers.

Abdison.
Things may end abruptly or at once, but they close by a process, or by bringing the parts or points together; a scene may close, or several lines may close.
Orestes, Acamas, in front appear,
And Enomaus and Thoon close the rear. Pore.
Any period of time, as a day, a life, may end or close.
Greece in her single heroes strove in vain,
Now hosts oppose thee, and thou must be slain:
So shall my days in one sad tenor run,
And end with sorrows as they first begun.
Pape.
Let the rich fumes of od'rous incense fly, A grateful savor to the gods on high;
The due libation nor neglect to pay,
When evening closes, or when dawns the day.
Potter.

## END, EXTREMITY.

Both these words imply the last of those parts which constitute a thing; but the END designates that part generally; the EXTREMITY marks the particular point. The extremity is from the Latin extremus, the very last end, that which is outermost. Hence end may be aid of that which bounds anything; but
extremity of that which extends farthest from us: we may speak of the ends of that which is circular in its form, or of that which has no specific form; but we speak of the extrenities of that only which is supposed to project lengthwise. The end is opposed to the beginning; the extremity to the centre or point from which we reckon. When a man is said to go to the end of a journey or the end of the world, the expression is in both cases indefinite and general; but when he is said to go to the extremities of the earth or the extremities of a kingdom, the idea of relative distance is manifestly im. plied. He who goes to the end of a path may possibly have a little farther to go in order to reach the extremity. In the figurative application, end and extremity differ so widely as not to admit of any just comparison.

Now with full force the yielding horn he bends, Drawn to an arch, and joins the doubling ends. Pore.
Our female projectors were all the last summer so taken up with the improvement of their petticoats that they had not time to attend to anything else; but having at length sufficiently adorned their lower parts, they now begin to turn their thoughts upon the other sootremity.

AdDIBON.
TO ENDEAVOR, AIM, STRIVE, STRUGGLE.

To ENDEAVOR ( $v$. Attempt) is general in its object; AIM (v. Aim) is particular; we endeavor to do whatever we set about; we aim at doing something which we have set before ourselves as a desirable object. To STRIVE (v. Discord, strife) is to endeavor earnestly; to STRUG. GLE, a frequentative of strive, is to strive earnestly. An endeavor springs from a sense of duty; we endeavor to do that which is right, and avoid that which is wrong: aiming is the fruit of an aspiring temper; the object aimed at is always something superior either in reality or imagination, and calls for particular exertion : striving is the consequence of an ardent desire; the thing striven for is always conceived to be of importance: struggling is the effect of necessity; it is proportioned to the difficulty of attainment, and the resistance which is opposed to it ; the thing atruggled for is in. dispensably necessary. Those only whe
endeavor to discharge their duty to God and their fellow-creatures can expect real tranquillity of mind. Whoever aims at the acquirement of great wealth or much power opens the door for much misery to himself. As our passions are acknowledged to be our greatest enemies when they obtain the ascendency, we should always atrive to keep them under our control. There are some men who struggle through life to obtain a mere competence, and yet die without succeeding in their object.
Tis no uncommon thing, my good Sancho, for
ons half of the world to use the other half like
brutes, and then endeavor to make them so.
Sterne.
However man may aim at elevation,
Ths properly a female passion. Shenstone.
All uuderstand their great Creator's will, Strive to be happy, and in that fulfll, Mankind excepted, lord of all beside, But only slave to folly, vice, and pride. Jenyns.
So the boat's brawny crew the current stem, And slow advancing etrugole with the stream.

Dryden.

## ENDEAVOR, EFFORT, EXERTION.

ENDEAVOR, v. Attempt and To endeavor. EFFORT, in French effort, Italian sforza, may possibly be connected with the word force, and the Latin fortis, strong, signifying to force out the atrength; or it may be changed from the Latin effert, from effero, to bring forth, that is, to bring out power. EXERTION, in Latin exertio, from exero, signifies the putting forth power.

The idea of calling our powers into action is common to thesa terms: endeavor expresses little more than this common idea, being a term of general import: effort and exertion are particular modes of endeavor; the former being a special strong endeavor, the latter a continued strong endeavor. An endeavor is called forth by ordinary circumstances ; effort and exertion by those which are extraordinary. An endeavor flows out of the condition of our being and constitution; as rational and responsible agents we must make daily endeavors to fit our. selves for a hereafter; as willing and necessitous agents, we use our endeavors to obtain such things as are agreeable or needful for us: when a particular emergency arises we make a great effort. An endeavor may call forth one or many
powers ; an effort calls forth but one power: the endeavor to please in society is landable, if it do not lead to vicious compliances; it is a laudable effort of fortitude to suppress our complaints in the moment of suffering.
But he, whom ev'n in life's last stage
Endeavors laudahle engage,
Is paid at least in peace of mind,
And sense of having well design'd.
Cowper,
The influence of custom is such, that to conquer it will require the utmost efforts of fortitude and virtue.

Joznal.
The exertion is as indefinite as the en. deavor as to the means, but like the ef. fort is definite as to the object: when 3 serions object is to be obtained, suitable exertions must be made. The endeavor is mostly applied to individuals, but the exertion may frequently be the combined endeavors of numbers.
To walk with circumspection and steadiness in the right path onght to be the constant endeav. or of every rational being. Jornson.
The discomfitures which tha repnblic of assas sins has suffered have uniformly called forth new exertions.

Buree.
ENEMY, FOE, ADVEREARY, OPPONENT, ANTAGONIST.
ENEMY, in Latin inimicus, compounded of in privative and amicus, a friend, signifies one that is unfriendly. FOE, in Saxon fah, most probably from the old Toutonic fian, to hate, signifies one that bears a hatred. ADVERSARY, in Latin adversarius, from adversus, against, signifies one that takes part against another; adversarius in Latin was particularly applied to those who contested a point in law with another. OPPONENT, in Latin opponens, participle of oppono or obpono, to place in the way, signifies ona pitted against another. ANTAGONIST, in Greek avrayevioros, componnded of $a \nu \tau \iota$, against, and $a \gamma \omega \nu \iota \% \rho \mu a \iota$, to contend, signifies one struggling against another.
An enemy is not so formidable as a foe; the former may be reconciled, but the latter always retains a deadly hate. An enemy may be so in spirit, in action, or in relation; a foe is always so in spirit, if not in action likewise : a man may be an enemy to himself, though not a foe. Those who are national or political enemies are often private fyiends, but a foe is never anything but a foe. A single
act may create an enemy, but continued warfare creates a foe.

Plutarch says very finely that a man should sot allow himself to hate evea his enemiss.

ADDIson.
So frown'd the mighty combatants, that hell
Grew darker at thelr frown: so match'd they stood;
For never but once more was either like

## To meet so great a foes.

Miluton.
Enemies are either public or prlvate, collective or personal; in the latter sense the word enemy is most analogous in signification to that of adversary, opponent, antayonist. The term enemy is always taken in a larger sense than the other terms: a private enemy is never inactive; he seeks to do mischief from the desire of so doing. An adversary, opponent, and antagonist may be so simply from the relation which they stand in to others: the adversary is one who is adverse either in his claims, his opinions, his purposes, or his endeavers; he is active against others only as far as his interests and views require. An opponent is one who stands or acts in opposition to another: an opponent opposes the opinions, principles, conduct, and writings of others. An adversary is always personal, and sets himself up immediately against another; but an opponent has nothing to do with the person, but with the thing that emanates from or is coonected with the person. A man can have no adversaries except while he is living, but he may have opponents after he is dead; partisans are always opponents to each other. An antagonist is a particular species of opponent either in combat or action; it Is personal or otherwise, according to circumstanees : there may be antagonists who contend for victory without any feeling of animosity ; such were the Horatii and Curiatii among the Romans: or they may engage in a personal and bloody conflict, as the gladiators who fought for their lives: in this sense wild beasts are antagonists when they engage in battle: there are also literary antagonists who are dircetly pitted against each other ; as Scaliger and Petavius among the French; Boyle and Bentley among the English.

He has not taken the least care to disguise his beiug an enemy to the persons agaiast whom he writes.

Addison.
Thowe disputents (the persecutorsl convince
thelr adversaries with a sorites commony call ed a pile of fagots. Adpison.
The name of Boyle is indeed revered, but his works are neglected; we are contented to know that he coaquered his opponents, without inquiring what cavils were produced against him.

Jobnson.
Enemy and foe are figuratively applied to moral objects, the first in a general, the second in a particular sense: our passions are our enemies when indulged: envy is a foe to happiness. The word antagonist may also be applied metaphorically to other objects.

He (the Duke of Monmouth) was brave, geaerous, affable, and extremely handsome, constent In his friendships, just to his word, aad an atter enemy to all cruelty.

Welwoon. Life, thonght, worth, wisdom, all ( $O$ foul revolt 1) Ooce frleads to peace, goac over to the foes.

Youma.
Sir Francis Bacon observes that a well-written book, compared with its rivals and antagonists, is like Moses's serpent that immediately swallow. ed up those of the Egyptiaos.

Adpibon.

## ENERGY, FORCE, VIGOR.

ENERGY, in French énergie, Latin energia, Greek $\varepsilon \nu \varepsilon \rho \gamma \iota a$, from $\varepsilon \nu \varepsilon \rho \gamma \varepsilon \omega$, to operate inwardly, signities the power of producing positive effects. FORCE, v. To compel. VIGOR, from the Latin vigeo, to flourish, signifies unimpaired power, or that which belongs to a subject in a sound or flourishing state.

With energy is connected the idea of activity; with force that of capability; with vigor that of health. Energy lies only in the mind; force and vigor are the property of either body or mind. Knowledge and freedom combine to produce energy of character; force is a gift of nature that may be increased by exercise: vigor, both bodily and mental, is an ordinary accompaniment of youth, but is not always denied to old age.
Oar powers owe moch of their energy to our hopes: "Possunt quia posse videatur." Whan success seems attaioable, diligence is enforced.

Jonssor.
On the passive main
Descends th' ethereal force, and with strong gust Turns from its bottom the discolored deep.

Tнomson.
No man at the age snd vigor of thirty is fond of sugar-plums and rattles.

Soutr

## ENJOYMENT, FRUITION, GRATLEICATION.

ENJOYMENT, from enjoy, to have the joy or pleasure, signifies either the act
of enjoying, or the pleasure itself derived from that act. FRUITION, from fruer, to enjoy, is employed only for the act of enjoying; we speak either of the enjoyment of any pleasure, or of the enjoyment as a pleasure: we speak of those pleasures which are received from the fruition, in distinction from those which are had in expectation. Enjoyment is either corporeal or spiritual, as the enjoyment of music, or the enjoyment of study: but the fruition of eating, or any other sensible, or at least external, object: hope intervenes between the desire and the fruition.
The enjoyment of fame brings but very little
pleasure, though the loss or want of it be very
sensible and afficting.
Fame is a good so wholly foreign to our natores that we have no faculty in the sonl adapted to it, nor any organ in the body to relish it: an object of desire placed ont of the possibility of fruition.

AdDison.
GRATIFICATION, from the verb to gratify, to make grateful or pleasant, signifies either the act of giving pleasure, or the pleasure received. Enjoyment springs from every object which is capable of yielding pleasure; by distinction, however, and in the latter sense, from moral and rational objects: but gratification, which is a species of enjoyment, is obtained through the medium of the senses. Enjoyment is not so vivid as gratification: gratification is not so permanent as enjoyment. Domestic life has its peculiar erjoyments; brilliant spectacles afford gratification. Our capacity for enjoyment depends upon our intellectual endowments; our gratification dcpends upon the tone of our feelings, and the nature of our desires.
His hopes and expectations are bigger than his
onjoyments.
Trlotson.
The man of pleasure little knows the perfect loy he loses for the disappointing gratifications which he pursues.

Addison.

## TO ENLARGE, INCREASE, EXTEND.

ENLARGE signifies literally to make arge or wide, and is applied to dimension and extent. INCREASE, from the Latin incresco, to grow to a thing, is applicable to quantity, signifying to become greater in size by the junction of other matter. EXTEND, in Latin extendo, or ex and tendo, signifies to stretch out, that is, to make greater in space. We speak
of enlarging a house, a room, premisea, or boundaries; of increasing an army, or property, capital, expense, etc.; of extending the houndaries of an empire. We say the hole or cavity enlarges, the head or hulk enlarges; the number increases, the swelling, inflammation, and the like, increase: so likewise in the figurative sense, the views, the prospccts, the powers, the ideas, and the mind, are enlarged; pain, pleasure, hope, fear, anger, or kindness, are increased; views, prospects, connections, and the like, are extended.

Great objects make
Great minds, enlarging as their views enlarge, Those still more godlike, as tbese more divine. Young,
Good sense alone is a sedate and quiescent quality, whicb manages its possessions well, bnt does not inerease tbem.

Johnson.
The wise, extending their inquiries wide,
See how both states are by connection tied: Fools view but part, and not tbe whole survey. So crowd existence all into a day. Jenrna

## ENMITY, ANIMOSITY, HOSTILITY.

ENMITY lies in the heart; it is deep and malignant. ANIMOSITY, from ani$m u s$, a spirit, lies in the passions; it is fierce and vindictive: HOSTLITY, from hostis, a political enemy, lies in the action; it is mischievous and destructive. Ennity is something permanent; ani. mosity is partial and transitory: in the feudal ages, when the darkness and ignorance of the times prevented the mild in. fluence of Christianity, enmities between particular families were handed down as an inheritance from father to son; in free states, party-spirit engenders greater animosities than private disputes.
In some instancis, indeed, the enmity of others cannot be avoided withont a participation in their guilt; but then it is the enmity of those with whom neither wisdom nor virtue can desire to associate.

Jognson.
I will never let my heart reproach me for have ing done anything toward increasing those animosities that extinguish religion, deface govern. ment, and make a nation miserable. Andison.

Enmity is altogether personal ; hastil. ity respects public or private measures. Enmity often lies concealed in the heart and does not betray itself by any open act of hostility.
That space the evil one abstracted stood
From his own evil, and for the time remain'd
Stupidly good, of enmity disarm'd. Mntom

Erasmur himself had, it seems, the misfortune to fall into the hands of a party of Trojans, who lald on him with so many blows and buffets, that be never forgot their hostilities to his dying day.

Addison.

## INORMOUS, HUGEF, IMMENBE, VABT.

ENOKMOUS, from e and norma, a rule, signifies out of rule or order. HUGE is in all probability conneeted with high, which is hoogh in Dutch. IMMENSE, in Latin immensus, compounded of in privative and mensus, measured, signifies not to be measured. VAST, in French vaste, Latin vastus, from vaco, to be vacant, open, or wide, signifies extended in space.

Enormous and huge are peculiarly applicable to magnitude; immense and vast to extent, quantity, and number. Enormous expresses more than huge, as immense expresses more than vast: what is enormous exceeds in a very great degree all ordinary bounds; what is huge is great only in the superlative degree. The enormous is always out of proportion; the huge is relatively extraordinary in its dimensions. Some animals may be made enormously fat by a particular mode of feeding: to one who has seen nothing but level ground common hills will appear to be huge mountains. The immense is that which exceeds all calculation: the vast comprehends only a very great or unusual excess. The distance between the earth and sun may be said to be immense: the distance between the poles is vast.

Of all these terms huge is the only one confined to the proper application, and in the proper sense of size: the rest are employed with regard to moral objects. We speak only of a huge animal, a huge monster, a huge mass, a huge size, a huge bulk, and the like; but we speak of an enormous waste, an immense difference, and a vast number.

The Thracian Acamas his falchion found, And hew'd the Bnormous giant to the ground. Pope.
Great Areïthous, known from shore to shore, By the $h u g e$, lsnotted, iron macc he bore,
No lance he shook, nor bent the twanging bow,
Bnt broke with this the battle of the foe. Pope.
Well was the crime, and well the vengeance sparr'd,
E'en power immense had found such battle hard. Pope.

Just on tbe briok they neigh and paw th ground,
And the turf trembles, and the skies resound;
Eager they view'd the prospect dark aad deep,
Fast was the leap, and headlong hung the steep.
Pops
ENORMOUS, PRODIGIOUS, MONSTROUS.
ENORMOUS (v. Enormous). PRO. DIGIOUS comes from prodigy, in Latin prodigium, which in all probability comes from prodigo, to lavish forth, signifying literally breaking out in excess or ex travaganee. MONSTROUS, from monster, in Latin monstrum, and monstro, to show or make visible, signifies remarkable, or exciting notice.

The cnormous contradicts our rules of estimating and calculating; the prodigious raises our minds beyond their ordinary standard of thinking: the monstrous contradicts nature and the course of things. What is enormous excites our surprise or amazement: what is prodigious excites our astonishment: what is monstrous does violence to our senses and understanding. Tbere is something enormous in the present scale upon which property, whether public or private, is amassed and expended: the works of the ancients in general, but the Egyptian pyramids in particular, are objects of admiration, on account of the prodigious labor which was bestowed on them: ig. norance and superstition have always been active in producing monstrous images for the worship of its blind votaries
Jove's hird on sourding pinions beat the skies, A bleeding serpent of enormous size,
His talons truss'd, alive and curling ronad,
He stang the bird, whose throat receiv'd tha woand.

POPE.
I dreamed that I was in a wood of so prodig. ious an extent, and cut into such a variety of walks and alleys, that all mankind were lost and bewildered in it.

Aadigon.
Nothing so monatrous can be said or feign'd But with belief and joy is entertain'd. Dryden.

## RNOUGH, SUFFICLENT.

ENOUGH, is in German genug, which comes from genügen, to satisfy. SUFFI. CIENT, in Latin sufficiens, partieiple of sufficio, compounded of $s u b$ and facio, sig. nifies made or suited to the purpose.

He has enough whose desires are satisfied; he has sufficient whose wants are supplied. We may therefore frequently bave sufficiency when we have not enough,

A greedy man is commonly in this case, who has never enough, although he has more than a sufficiency. Enough is aaid only of physical objects of desire: suff cient is employed in a moral application for that which serves the purpose. Children and animals never have enough food, nor the miser enough money: it is requiaite to allow sufficient time for everything that is to be done, if we wish it to be done well.

My loss of honor's great enough, Thon need'st not brand it with e scoff. Bdtlez.
The time present seldom affords suffoient employment for the mind of man.

ADDIBON.
TO ENROLL, ENLIST, OR LIST, REGIS-
TER, RECORD.
ENROLL, compounded of $e n$ or in and roll, signifies to place in a roll, that is, ln a roll of paper or a book. ENLIST, compounded of in and list, signifies to put down in a list. REGISTER, in Latin registrum, comes from regestum, participle of regero, signifying to put down in writing. RECORD, in Latin recordor, compounded of re, back or again, and cors, the heart, signifies to bring back to the heart, or call to mind by a memoran. dum.

Enroll and enlist respect persons only ; register respects persons and thlngs; record respects things only. Enroll is generally applied to the act of inserting names in an orderly manner into any book; enlist is a species of enrolling applicable only to the military. The enrollment is an act of authority; the enlisting is the voluntary act of an individual. Among the Romans it was the office of the censor to enroll the names of all the citizens, in order to ascertain their number, and estimate their property:. in modern times soldiers are mostly raised by means of enlisting.

Anciently no man was suffered to abide in England above forty days, unless he were enrolled in some tithing or decennary. Blackatone.

The lords would, by listing their own servants, persuade the gentlemen of the town to do the like.

Clarendon.
In the moral application of the terms, to enroll is to assign a certain place or rank; to enlist is to put one's self under a leader or attach ore's self to a party.

Hercules was enrolled among the goda; the common people are always ready to enlist on the side of anarchy and rebel lion.

[^53]To enroll and register both imply writ ing down in a book; but the former is a less formal act than the latter. The in. sertion of the bare name or designation in a certain order is enough to constituta an enrollment; but registering comprebends the birth, family, and other collateral circumstances of the individual. The object of registering likewise differs from that of enrolling: what is registered serves for future purposes, and is of permanent utility to society in general; but what is enrolled often serves only a particular or temporary end. Thus in numbering the people it is necessary simply to enroll their names; but when in addition to this it was necessary, as among the Romans, to ascertain their rank in the state, everything connected with their property, their family, and their connection required to be registered; so in like manner, in more modern times, it has been found necessary for the good government of the state to register the births, marriages, and deaths of every citizen: it is manifest, therefore, that what is registered, as far as respects persons, may be said to be enrolled; but what is enroll. $e d$ is not always registered. Persons only, or things personal, are enrolled, and that properly for public purposes only; but things as well as persons are registerad for private as well as public purposes.
I hope yon take care to keep an exact journal, and to register all occurrences and observations, for your friends here expect snch a book of trav: els as has not often been seen.

Jounson
To register in its proper sense is to place in writing; to record is to make a memorial of anything, either by writing, printing, engraving, or otherwise: registering is for some specific and immediate purpose; as to register decrees or other proceedings in a court: recording is for general and oftentimes remote purposes; to record events in history.

## ENTHUSIAST

All nas its date below : the fatal hour Was registered in heaven ere time began.

Cowpea.
In an extended and figurative application, things may be said to be register$s d$ in the memory; or events recorded in history. We have a right to believe that the actions of good men are register$e d$ in heaven; the particular sayings and actions of princes are recorded in history, and handed down to the latest posterity.

The medals of the Romans were their current money; when an action deserved to be recorded in coin, it was stamped perhaps upon a hundred thousand pieces of money, like our shillings or half-pence.

ADDIBON.

## TO ENSLAVE, CAPTIVATE.

To ENSLAVE is to bring into a state of slavery. To CAPTIVATE is to make a captive.
There is as much difference between these terms as between slavery and captivity: he who is a slave is fettered both body and mind; he who is a captive is only constrained as to his body: hence to enslave is always taken in the bad sense ; captivate in a good or bad sense : enslave is emploged literally or figuratively ; captivate only figuratively: we may be ensluved by persons, or by our gross passions; we are captivated by the charms or beauty of an object.

The will was then (before the fall) subordinate but not enslaved to the understanding. Soutr.

Men should beware of being captivated by a kind of savage philosophy, women by a thoughtless gallantry.

Andison.

## ENTERPRISING, ADVENTUROUS.

These terms mark a disposition to engage in that which is extraordinary and bazardous; but ENTERPRISING, from enterprise ( $v$. Attempt), is connected with the understanding; and ADVENTUROUS, from adventure, venture or trial, is a charaeteristie of the passions. The enterprising character conceives great projects, and pursues objects that are difficult to be obtained; the adventurous character is contented with seeking that which is new, and placing himself in dangerous and unusual situations. An enterprising spirit belongs to the commander of an army or the ruler of a nation; an adventurous disposition is suit-
able to men of low degree. Peter the Great possessed, in a peculiar manner, an enterprising genius; Robinson Crusos was a man of an adventurous turn. En. terprising characterizes persons only; but adventurous is also applied to things, to signify containing adventures; hence a journey, or a voyage, or a history may be denominated adventurous.

One Wood, a man enterprising and rapaeious, had obtained a patent, empowering him to eoin one hundred and eighty thousand pounds of halfpence and farthings for the kingdom of Ireland.

Johngon.
But 'tis enough,
In thls late age, advent'rous to have touch'd Light on the mmbers of the Samian sage; High heaven forbids the bold presumptuous straln. Thomson.

## ENTHUSLAST, FANATIC, VISIONABY.

The ENTHUSIAST, FANATIC, and VISIONARY have disordered imaginations; but the entlousiast is only affected inwardly with an extraordinary fervor, the fanatic and visionary betray that fervor by some outward mark; the former by singularitics of conduct, the latter by singularities of doctrine. Fanatics and visionaries are therefore always more or less enthusiasts; but enthrsiasts are not always fanatics or visionaries. Ev日ovoıa$\sigma \tau a \iota$ among the Greeks, from $\varepsilon \nu$, in, and itog, God, signified those supposed to have, or pretending to have, aivine inspiration. Fanatici were so called among the Latins from fana (temples), in which they spent an extraordinary portion of their time; they, like the evӨovatarral of the Greeks, pretended to revelations and inspirations, during the influence of which they indulged themselves in many extravagant tricks, cutting themselves with knives, and distorting themselves with every species of antic, gesture, and grimace.

In the modern acceptation of these terms, the fanatic is one who fancies himself inspired, and, rejecting the use of his understanding, falls into every kind of extravagance; it is mostly ap. plied to a man's religious conduct and belief, but may be applied to any extraragaut conduct founded on false princi. ples.
They who will not believe that the philosophical fanatics who guide in these matters hava
fong entertained the design (of aholishing religion), are uitterly ignorant of their character.

Burke.
An enthusiast is one who is under the influence of any particular fervor of mind, more especially where it is a relig. ious fervor.

> Devotion, when it does not lie under the check of reason, ia very apt to degenerate into enthusiasm.

> Addiaon.

There may be enthusiasm in other matters, where it is less mischievous. There may be enthusiasts iu the cause of humanity, or in the love of one's country, or in any other matter, in which the affections may be called into exercise.
Her little soul is ravish'd, and so pour'd Into loose ecstasies, that she is placed Above herself, music's enthusiast. Crasnaw.

The visionary is properly one that sees or professes to see visions, and is mostly applied to those wio pretend to supernatural visions, but it may be employed in respect to any one who indulges in fantastical theories.

The sons of infamy ridicule everything as romantic that comes in competition with their present intery st, and treat those persons as visionaries who dare stand up in a corrupt age for what has not its immediate reward joined to it.

Addison.

## EPITHET, ADJECTIVE.

EPITHET is the technical term of the rhetorician; ADJECTIVE that of the grammarian. The same word is an epithet as it qualifies the sense; it is an adjective as it is a part of speech: thus, in the phrase "Alexander the Great," great is an epithet, inasmuch as it designates Alexander in distinction from all other persons: it is an adjective as it expresses a quality in distinction from the noun Alexander, which denotes a thing. The opithet ( $\varepsilon \pi i \theta \eta \tau o \nu$ ) is the word added by way of ornament to the diction; the adjective, from adjectivum, is the word added to the noun as its appendage, and made subservient to it in all its inflections. When we are estimating the merits of any one's style or composition, we should speak of the epithets he uses; when we are talking of words, their dependencies and relations, we should speak of adjectives: an epithet is either gentle or harsh, an adjective is either a noun or a pronoun
adjective. All adjectives are epithets, but all epithets are not adjectives; thus, in Vir. gil's Pater Aneas, the pater is an epithet, but not an adjective.

EQUAL, EVEN, EQUABLE, LIKE, OR ALIKE, UNIFORM.
EQUAL, in Latin aqualis, comes from oequus, and probably the Greek eıкos, similis, like. EVEN is in Saxon efen, German eben, Swedish efwen, jafn, or aem, Greek olog, like. EQUABLE, in Latin equabilis, signifies susceptible of equality. LIKE is in Dutch lik, Saxon gelig, German gleich, Gothic tholick, Latin talis, Greek т $\eta \lambda_{i}$ кos, such as. UNIFORM, compounded of unus, one, and forma, form, bespeaks its own meaning.

All these epithets are opposed to difference. Equal is said of degree, quan tity, number, and dimensions, as equal in years; of an equal age; an equal height: even is said of the surface and position of bodies; a board is made even with another board; the floor or the ground is even: like is said of accidental qualities in things, as alike in color or in feature: uniform is said of thiogs only as to their fitness to correspond; those which are unlike in color, shape, or make, are not uniform, and cannot be made to matci as pairs: equable is used only in the moral acceptation, in which all the otbers are likewise employed.

Suffrages in Parliament are numbered, not weiglued; nor can it be otherwise in those public conncils where nothing is so unequal as the equality.

Bunke.
A hundred yards of even ground will never work such an effect (on the imagination) as a tower a hundred yards bigh, or a rock or a mountain of that altitude.

Burke.
E'en now familiar as in life he came;
Alas! how diff'rent, yet how like the same.
Pope.
And all this uniform uncolor'd scene
Shall be dismantled of its fleecy load And flush into variety again.

Cowpre.
As moral qualities admit of degree, they admit of equality: justice is dealt out in equal portions to the rich and the poor; God looks with an equal eye on all mankind. As the natural path is rendered uneven by high and low ground, so the evenness of the temper, in the fig. urative sense, is destroyed by changes of humor, by elevations and depressions of

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the spirits ; and the equability of the mind is hurt by the vicissitudes of life, from prosperous to adverse.

> Eguality is the life of conversation; and he is as much out who assumes to himself any part above another, as he who considers himself below the rest of society.

> Stezle.
> Good-nature is insufflcient (in the marriage state) unless it be steady and uniform, and accompanied with an onenness of temper.

Spectator.
There is also moderation in toleration of fortane which of Tulley is called equability.

Sir T. Elyot.
Even and equable are applied to the same object in regard to itself, as an even path, or equable course; like or alike is applied to two or more objects in regard to each other, as two persons are alike in disposition, taste, opinions, etc.; uniform is said either of one object in regard to itself, as to be uniform in conduct, or of many objects in regard to each other, as modes are uniform.
In Swift's works is found an equable tenor of easy language, which rather trickles than flows. Jonnson.
How like a dream is this I see and hear ! Love lend me patience to forbear a while.

Shakapeare.
The only doubt is about the manner of their nnity, bow far churches are bound to be uniform in their ceremonies.

Ноокен.

## to eradicate, extirpate, exterminate.

To ERADICATE, from radix, the root, is to get out by the root: EXTIRPATE, from ex and stirps, the stem, is to get out the stock, to destroy it thoroughly. In the natural sense we may eradicate noxiuus weeds whenever we pull them from the ground; but we can never extirpate all noxious weeds, as they always disseminate their seeds and spring up afresh. These words are seldomer used in the physical than in the moral sense; where the former is applied to such objects as are conceived to be plucked up by the roots, as habits, vices, abuses, evils; and the latter to whatever is united or supposed to be united into a race or family, and is destroyed root and branch. Youth is the season when vicious babits may be thoroughly eradicated; by the universal deluge the wholc human race was extirpated, with the exception of Noah and his family.

It must be every man's care to begin by oradfeating those corruptions which, at different times, have tempted him to violate conscience.

Blatr.
Go thou, inglorious, from th' embattled plain; Ships thou hast store, and nearest to the main. A nobler care the Grecians shall empioy, To combat, conquer, and extirpate Troy. Pops.

EXTERMINATE, in Latin extermina tus, participle of extermino, from ex or extra and terminus, signifies to expel beyond the boundary (of life), that is, out of existence. It is used only in regard to such things as have life, and designates a violent and immediate action; extirpate, on the other hand, may designate a progressive action: the former may be said of individuals, but the latter is employed in the collective sense only. Plague, pestilence, famine, extirpate: the sword exterminates.
But for this extraordinary focundity, from their natural weakness they (the lower tribes of animais) would be extirpated.

Coldbmiti.
So violent and black were Haman's passions, that he resolved to exterminate the whole nation to which Mordecai belonged.

Biatr.

## ERROR, MISTAKE, BLUNDER.

ERROR, in French erreur, Latin error, from erro, to wander, marks the act of wandering, as applied to the rational faculty. A MISTAKE is a taking amiss or wrong. BLUNDER is not improbably changed from blind, and signifies anything done blindly.

Error in its universal sense is the gexteral term, since every deviation from what is right in rational agents is termed error, which is strictly opposed to truth; ewror is the lot of humanity; into whateve. we attempt to do or think error will be sure to creep : the term, therefore, is of unlimited use; the very mention of it reminds us of our condition: we have crrors of judgment, errors of calculation, errors of the head, and errors of the heart. The other terms designate modes of error, which mostly refer to the common concerns of life: mistake is an errox of choice; blunder an error of action : children and careless people are most apt to make mistakes ; ignorant, conceited, and stupid people commonly commit blunders: a mistake must be rectified; in commercial transactions it may be of serious consequence: a blunder must be set right; but blundmo

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ors are not always to be set right; and blunders are frequently so ridiculous as only to excite laughter.

Idolatry may be looked upon as an error arising from mistaken devotion. ADDrson.

It happened that the king bimself passed through the gallery during this dehate, and, smiling at the mistake of the dervis, asked him how he could possibly be so dull as not to distinguish a palace from a caravansary. Adoison.
Pope allows that Dennis liad detected one of those blunders which are called bulls.

Jomnson.

## ERROR, FAULT.

ERROR ( $v$. Error) respects the act; FAULT, from fail, respects the agent: an error may lay in the judgment, or in the conduct; but a fault lies in the will or intention: the errors of youth must be treated with indulgence; but their faults must on all accounts be corrected : error is said of that which is individual and partial; fault is said likewise of that which is habitual : it is an error to use intemperate language at any time; it is a foult in the temper of some persons that they cannot restrain their anger.
Bold is the task when subjects, grown too wise, lastruct a monarch where his error lies. Pope.
Other foults are not nnder the wife's jurisdiction, and should, if possible, escape her ohservation ; but jealousy calls npon ber particularly for 1 ts cure.

Addison.

## ERUPTION, EXPLOSION.

ERUPTION, from $e$ and rumpo, signifies the breaking forth, that is, the coming into view, by a sudden bursting; EXPLOSION, from ex and plaudo, signifies bursting ont with a noise: hence of flames there will be properly an cruption, but of gunpowder an explosion: volcanoes have their exuptions at certain intervals, which are sometimes attended with explosions: on this account eruptions are applied to the human body for whatever comes out as the effects of humor, and may be applied in the same manner to any indications of humor in the mind; explosions are also applied to the agitations of the mind which burst out.

Sin may truly reign where it does not actually cage and pour itself forth in continual eruptions.

South.
A burst of fury, an exclamation seconded by a blow, is the first natural explosion of a soul so stung by scorpions as Macbeth's. Comberland.

## TO ESCAPE, ELUDE, EVADE.

ESCAPE, in French échapper, comeq in all probability, from the Latin excipio, to take out of, to get off. ELUDE, $v$. To avoid. EVADE, from the Latin eva, $d o$, compounded of $e$ and vado, signifies to go or get out of a thing.

The idea of being disengaged from that which is not agreeable is comprehended in the sense of all these terms; but escape designates no means by which this is effected; elude and evade defino the means, namely, the efforts, which are used by one's self: we are simply disen. gaged when we escape; but we disengage ourselves when we elude and evade: we escape from danger ; we elude search: our escapes are often providential, and often narrow ; our success in eluding depends on our skill: there are many bad men who escape punishment by the mistake of a word; there are many who escape detection by the art with which they eluds observation and inquiry.
Vice oft is hid in virtue's fair disgnise, And in her borrow'd form escapes inquiring eyes. Spectator.
It is a vain attempt
To hind the amhitious and unjust by treaties;
These they elude a thousand specions ways.
Thomson.
The Earl Rivers had frequently inquired for his son (Savage), and had aiways been amnsed with evasive auswers.

Johnson.
Elude and evade both imply the practice of art on trying occasions; but the former is employed to denote a more ready and dexterous exercise of art than the latter; the former consists mostly of that which is done by a trick, the latter consists of words as well as actions: a thief eludes those who are in pursuit of him by dexterous modes of concealment; he evades the interrogatories of the judge by equivocating replies. One is said to elude a punishment, and to evade a law.

Scveral pernicinus vices, notorinus among ws, elude or escape the punishment of any law yet Invented.

SWIFT.
He submitted to his trial, behaved himself with courage, and easily evoded the greatest part of the evidence they bad against him. Cuarindor.

## ESPECLALLY, PARTICULARLY, PRINCIPALLY, CHIEFLY.

ESPECIALLY and PARTICULARLY are exclusive or superlative in their im-
port; they refer to one object out of many that is superior to all: PRINCIPALLY and CHIEFLY are comparative in their import; they designate in general the superiority of some objects over others. Especially is a term of stronger import than particularly, and principally expresses something less general than chiefly: we ought to have God before our eyes at all times, but especially in those moments when we present ourselves before him in prayer; the heat is very oppressive in all countries under the torrid zone, but particularly in the deserts of Arabia, where there is a want of shade and moisture: it is principally among the higher and lower orders of society that we find vices of every description to be prevalent; robberies happen chiefly by night.
All love has aomething of blindness in it, but the love of money eapecially. Sotit.
Particularly let a man dread every grosa act of sin. South.
Neither Yythagoras nor any of his diaciples were, properly speaking, practitionera of physic, alnce they applied themeelves principatly to the theory.

Јамеа.
The reformera gained credit chiefly among persons in the lower and middle classes.

Robentson.
egsay, treatise, tract, dissertaTION.
All these words are employed by authors to characterize compositions varying in their form and contents. ESSAY, which signifies a trial or attempt ( $v$. At. tempt), is here used to designate in a specific manner an author's attempt to illustrate any point: it is most commonly applied to small detached pieces, which contain only the general thoughts of a writer on any given subject, and afford room for amplification into details also; though, by Locke, in his "Essay on the Understanding," Beattie, in his "Essay on Truth," and other authors, it is modestly used for their connected and finished endeavors to elucidate a doctrine. A TREATISE is more systematic than an essay, it treats on the subject in a methodical form, and conveys the idea of something lahored, scientific, and instructive. A TRACT is only a species of small treatise, drawn up upon particular occasions, and published in a separate form; they are both derived from
the Latin tractus, participle of traho, to draw, manage, or handle. DISSERTATION, from dissero, to argue, is with propriety applied to performances of an argumentative nature.

Embays are either moral, political, philosophical, or literary: they are the crude attempts of the youth to digest his own thoughts, or they are the more mature attempts of the man to communicate his thoughts to others: of the former description are the prize essays in schools; and of the latter are the innumerable essays which have been published on every subject, since the time of Bacon to the present day: treatises are mostly written on ethical, political, or speculative subjecta, such as Fénelon's, Milton's, or Locke's treatise on education; De Lolme's treatise on the constitution of England; Colquhoun's treatise on the police: disser. tations are employed on disputed points of literature, as Bentley's dissertation upon the epistles of Phalaris; De Pauw's dissertations on the Egyptians and Chinese: tracts are ephemeral productions, mostly on political and religious subjects, which seldom survive the occasion which gave them birth; of this description are the pamphlets which daily issue from the press, for or against the measures of goveroment, or the public measures of any particular party.
It is my frequent practice to visit places of resort in this town, to observe what reception my works meet with in the world, it being a privilege asserted by Monsieur Montaigne and others, of vainglorioua memory, that we writers of esa aya may talk of ourseives.

Steele.
The very title of a moral treatize has something in it austere and shocking to the careleess and inconsiderate.

Addison.
A modern philosopher, quoted by Monsieur Bayle, in hia learned diasertation on the soule of brutes, ayys, "Deus est anima brutorum," God himself is the noul of brutes. ADDison.
I deaire my reader to consider every particular paper or discourse as a distinct tract by itself.

ADDISon,
ESTEEM, RESPECT, REGARD.
ESTEEM, v. To appraise. RESPECT, from the Latin respicio, signifies to look back upon, to look upon with attention. REGARD, $v$. To attend to.

A favorable sentiment toward particular objects is included in the meaning of all these terms. Esteem and respect flow
from the understanding; regard springs from the heart, as well as the head: esteem is produced by intrinsic worth; respect by extrinsic qualities; regard is affection blended with esteem: it is in the power of every man, independently of all collateral circumstances, to acquire the esteem of others; but respect and regard are within the reach of a limited number only: the high and the low, the rich and the poor, the equal and the unequal, are each, in their turn, the ohjects of esteem; those only are objects of respect who have some mark of distinction, or superiority either of birth, talent, acquirements, or the like; regard subsists only between friends, or those who stand in close connection with each other : industry and sobriety excite our esteem for one man, charity and benevolence our esteem for another; superior learning or abilities excite our respect for another ; a long acquaintance, or a reciprocity of kind offices, excites a mutual regard.
How great honor and esteem will men declare for one whom, perhaps, they never saw before.

Tillotson.
Then what for common good my thoughts inspire,
Attend, and in the son respect the sire. Pope.
On this occasion the philosopher rises into that celebrated sentiment, that there is not on earth a spectacle more worthy the regard of a Creator intent on his works than a brare man superior to his sufferings.

Advison.

## to estimate, compute, rate.

ESTIMATE, v. To appraise. COMPUTE, $v$. To calculate. RATE, in Latin ratus, participle of reor, to think, signifies to weigh in the mind.

All these terms mark the mental operation by which the sum, amount, or value of things is obtained: to estimate is to obtain the aggregate sum in one's mind, either by an immediate or a progressive act; to compute is to obtain the sum by the gradual process of putting together items; to rate is to fix the relative value in one's mind by deduction and comparison; a builder estimates the expense of building a house on a given plan; a proprietor of houses computes the probable diminution in the value of his property in consequence of wear and tear; the surveyor rates the present value of lands or houses.

It is by the weight of silver, and not by the name of the price, by which men astimats commodities and exchange.

LOCEE.
Computa how much water would be mecessary to lay the earth under water. Buaner.
We may then be instructed how to rate all goods by those which concentre unto felicity.

BOTLE.
In the moral acceptation they bear the same analogy to each other: some men are apt to estimate the adventitious privileges of birth or rank too high; it woulà be a useful occupation for men to compute the loss they sustain by the idle waste of time on the one hand, and its necessarily unprofitable consumption on the other: he who rates his abilities too high is in danger of despising the means which are essential to secure success; and he who rates them too low is apt to neglect the means, from despair of success.
To those who have skill to estimate the excel-
lence and diffenlty of this great work (Pope's
translation of Homer), it mnst be very desirable
to know how it was performed.
From the age of sixteen the lite of Pope, as an
anthor, may be computed.
JoHnson.
Sooner we learo and seldomer forget
What critics neorn, than what they highly rats. Hocies.

## ETERNAL, ENDLESS, EVERLASTING.

The ETERNAL is set above time, the ENDLESS lies within time; it is therefore by a strong figure that we apply eternal to anything sublunary; although endless may with propriety be applied to that which is heavenly; that is properly eternal which bas neither beginning nor end; that is endless which has a beginning, but no end: God is, therefore, an eternal, but not an endless being: there is an eternal state of happiness or misery, which awaits all men, according to their deeds in this life; but their joys or sorrows may be endleess as regards the present life. That which is endless has no cessation; that which is EVERLASTING has neither interruption nor cessation: the endless may be said of existing things; the everlasting naturally extends itself into futurity: hence we speak of endless disputes, an endless warfare; an everlasting memorial, an everlasting crown of glory.
Distance immense between the powers that shind Above, eternal, deathless, and divine, And mortal man 1

The faithful Mydon, as he turn'd from fight His flying courses, snok to endless night. Pope. Back from the car he tumbles to the ground, And everlasting shades his eyes snrround.

Pope.

## to evade, equivocate, prevariCATE.

EVADE, v. To escape. EQUIVOCATE, v. Ambiguity. PREVARICATE, in Latin provaricatus, participle of proe and varicor, to go loosely, signifies to shift from side to side.

These words designate an artful mode of escaping the scrutiny of an inquirer : we evade by artfully turning the subject or calling off the attention of the inquirer; we equivocate by the use of equivocal expressions; we prevaricate by the use of loose and indefinite expressions; we avoid giving satisfaction by evading; we give a false satisfaction by equivocating: we give dissatisfaction by prevaricating. Evading is not so mean a prac. tice as equivocating: it may be sometimes prudent to evade a question which we do not wish to answer; but equivocations are employed for the purposes of falsehood and interest: prevarications are still meaner ; and are resorted to mosily by criminals in order to escape detection.

Whenever a trader has endeavored to evade the just demands of his creditors, this hath been declared by the legislature to be an act of bankruptcy. Blacastone.
When Satan told Eve, "Thou shalt not surely die," it was in his equivooation "Thou shalt not incur present deatli."

Browne's Vuloar Ernors.
There is no prevaricating with God when we are on the very threshold of his presence.

Cumberland.

## EVASION, SHIFT, SUBTERFUGE.

EVASION (v. To evade) is here taken only in the bad sense; SHIFT and SUBTERFUGE are modes of evasion: the former signifies that gross kind of evasion by which one attempts to shift off an obligation from one's self; the subterfuge, from subter, under, and fugio, to fly, is a mode of evasion in which one has recourse to some screen or shelter. The evasion, in distinction from the others, is resorted to for the gratification of pride or obstinacy: whoever wishes to maintain a bad cause must have recourse to evasions ; candid minds despise all eva-
sions; the shift is the trick of a knave, it always serves a paltry, low purpose; he who has not courage to turn open thief will use any $s h i f t s$ rather than not get money dishonestly: the subterfuge is the refuge of one's fears; it is not resorted to from the hope of gain, but from the fear of a loss; not for purposes of interest, but for those of character; he who wants to justify himself in a bad cause has recourse to subterfuges.

The question of a future state was hung up in doubt, or baaded between conflicting dispntaots through all the quirks and evasions of sophistry and logle.

Comberland.
When such little shifts come once to be laid open, how poorly and wretchedly must that man needs sneak who finds himself hoth guilty and baffled too.

SOUTH.
What further subterfuge can Turuus find.
Drydin.
EVEN, SMOOTH, LEVEL, PLAIN.
EVEN, v. Equal. SMOOTH is in all probability connected with smear. LEV. EL, in Saxon loefel, signifies a carpenter's instrument. PLAIN, $v$. Apparent.

Even and smooth are both opposed to roughness: but that which is even is free only from great roughness or irregularities; that which is smooth is free from every degree of roughness, however small: a board is even which has no knots or holes; it is not smooth unless its surface be an entire plane: the ground is said to be even, but not smooth; the sky is smooth, but not even. Even is to level, when applied to the ground, what smooth is to even; the even is free from protuberances and depressions on its exterior surface; the level is free from rises or falls: a path is said to be even; a meadow is level: ice may be level, though it is not even; a walk up the side of a hill may be even, although the hill itself is the reverse of a level: the even is said of that which unites and forms one uninterrupted surface; but the level is said of things which are at a distance from each other, and are discovered by the eye to be in a parallel line; hence the floor of a room is even with regard to itself; it is level with that of another room. Evenness respects the surface of bodies; plainness respects their direction and freedom from external obstructions: a path is even which has no indentures or

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footmarks; a path is plain which is not atopped up or interrupted by wood, water, or any other thing intervening.

Wren we look at a naked wall, from the evenness of the object the eye rana along its whole space, and arrives quickly at its termioation.

BuRke.
Tha effects of a rugged and broken surface seem stronger than where it is s7hooth and polisked.

Bdrle.
Tbe top is level, an offensive seat of war.

Dryden.
A blind man would never be able to imagine how the several prominences and depressions of a human body coald be shown on a plain piece of canvas that has on it no unevenness.

ADDIaON.
When applied figuratively, these words preserve their analogy: an even temper is secured from all violent changes of humor; a smooth speech is divested of everything which can ruffle the temper of others; but the former is always taken in a good sense; and the latter mostly in a bad sense, as evincing an illicit design or a purpose to deceive: a plain speech, on the other hand, is divested of everything obscure or figurative, and is consequently a speech frce from disguise and easy to be understood.

A man who lives in a state of vice and impenitence can have no title to that evenness and traaquillity of mind which is the health of the aoul.

Adpian.
Thia smooth disconrse and mild behavior oft Conceal a traitor.

Abpiaon.
Express thyaelf in plain, not donbtful worda, That ground for quarrels or disputes affords.

Denfam.
Even and level are applied to conduct or condition ; the former as regards ourselves; the latter as regards others: he who adopts an even course of conduct is in no danger of putting himself upon a level with those who are otherwise his inferiors.
Some angel guide my pencil, while I draw What nothing less than angel can excced, A man on earth devoted to tbe skies; Alike throughont is hia consistent pace, All of one color, and an even thread. Youno.

Falsehood turns all above ns into tyramny and barharity; and all of the aame level with us into discord.

Souta.

## EVENT, INCIDENT, ACCIDENT, ADVENTURE, OCCURRENCE.

EVENT, in Latin eventus, participle of evenio, to come out, signifies that which falls out or turns up. INCIDENT, in

Latin incidens, from incido, signifies that which falls in or forms a collateral part of anything. ACCIDENT, v. Accident. ADVENTURE, from the Latin advenio, to come to, signifies what comes to or befalls one. OCCURRENCE, from the Latin occurro, signifies that which runa or comes in the way.

These terms are expressive of what passes in the world, which is the sole signification of the term event; while to that of the other terms are annexed some accessory ideas : an incident is a personal event; an accident an accidental event which happens by the way; an adventure an extraor: dinary event; an occurrence an ordinary or domestic event: event, in its ordinary and limited acceptation, excludes the idea of chance; accident excludes that of deaign ; incident, adventure, and occurrence are applicable in both cases.

Events affect nations and communities as well as individuals; incidents and adventures affect particnlar individuals ; accidents and occurrences affect persons or things particularly or generally, individually or collectively : the making of peace, the loss of a battle, or the death of a priuce, are national events; the forming a new acquaintance and the revival of an old one are incidents that have an interest for the parties concerned; an escape from shipwreck, an encounter with wild beasts or savages, are adventures which individuals are pleased to relate, and oth ers to hear; a fire, the fall of a house, the breaking of a limb, are accidents or occurrences; a robbery or the death of individuala are properly occurrences which afford subject for a newspaper, and excite an interest in the reader.

Event, when used for individuals, is always of greater importance than an incident. The settlement of a young person in life, the adoption of an employment, or the taking a wife, are events, but not incidents; while, on the other hand, the setting out on a journey or the return, the purchase of a house, or the despatch of a vessel, are characterized as incidents, and not events.

Theas eventa, the permission of which seams to acenas his goodness now, may in the consummation of things both magnify his goodness and exalt his wiadom.

Appison.
I have laid before you only small incidents
seemingly frivolons, hut they are princtpally evils of this nature which make marriages unhappy.

Steele.
For I must love, and am resolv'd to try My fate, or, failing in the adventure, die.

Dryden.
I think there is somewhere in Montaigne mention made of a family book, wherein all the occurrences that happened from one generation of that house to another were recorded. Stezls.

It is further to be observed that accidert, event, and occurrence are said only of that which is supposed really to happen: incidents and adventures are oftcn fictitious; in this case the incident cannot be too important, nor the adventure too marvellous, History records the events of nations; plays require to be full of incident in order to render them interesting: romances and novels derive most of their charms from the extravagance of the adventures which they describe; periodical works supply the public with information respecting daily occurrences.

No person, no incident in the play, but mast be of use to the main design. Dripen.

To make an episode, "takc any remaining adventure of your former collection," in which you could no way involve your hero.

Pofe.

## UVIL OR ILL, MISFORTUNE, IIARM, MIGCHIEF。

EVIL, in its full sense, comprehends every quality which is not good, and consequently the other terms express only modifications of evil. The word is, however, more limited in its application than its meaning, and admits, therefore, of a just comparison with the other words here meationed. They are all taken in the sense of evils produced by some external cause, or evild inherent in the object and arising out of it. The evil, or, in its contracted form, the ILL, befalls a person; the MISFORTUNE comes upon him ; the HARM, which slgnifies originally grlef, is taken, or one receives the harm; MISCHIEF, from mischieve, i. e., the thing ill-achieved, is done to the person.

Evil, in its limited application, is taken for evils of the greatest magnitude; it is that which is evil without any mitigation or qualification of circumstances. The misfortune is a minor evil; it depends upon the opinion and circumstances of the individual; what is a misfortune in
one respect may be the contrary in an other respect. An untimely death, the fracture or loss of a limb, are denominated evils; the loss of a vessel, the over. turning of a carriage, and the like, are misfortunes, lnasmuch as they tend to the diminution of property; but as all the casualties of life may produce various consequences, it may sometimes happen that that which seems to have come upon us by our $i l l$ fortune turns out ultimately of the greatest benefit ; in this respect, therefore, misfortune is but a partial evil: of evil it is likewise observable that it has no respect to the sufferer as a moral agent; but misfortune is used in regard to such things as are controllable or otherwise by human foresight. The evil which befalls a man is opposed only to the good which be in general experiences; but the misfortune is opposed to the good fortune or the prudence of the individual. Sickness is au evil, let it be endured or caused by whatever circumstances it may; it is a misfortune for an individual to come in the way of having this evil brought on himself : his own relative conditiou in the scale of boing is here referred to.
Yet think not thus, when freedom's ills 1 state, I mean to flatter kiogs or court the great.

Goldsmith.
A misery is not to be measured from the nature of the evil, but from the temper of the sufferer. Adnison.
Misfortune stands with her bow ever bent
Over the world; and he who wounds another
Directs the goddess, by that part where he wounds,
There to strike deep her arrows in himself.
Young.
Harm and misehief are species of minor evils; the former of which is much less specific than the latter both in the nature and cause of the evil. A person takes harm from oircumstances that are not known; the mischief is done to him from some positive and immediate circum. stance. He who takes cold takes harm; the cause of which, however, may not be known or suspected: a fall from a horse is attended with misehief, if it occasion a fracture or any evil to the body. Evil and misfortune respect persons only as the objects ; harm and mischief are said of inanimate things as the object. A tender plant takes harm from being exposed to the cold air: mischief is done to it when

Its branches are violently broken off or its roots are laid bare.
To me the labora of the field reaign, Me Paris injured; all the war be mine, Fall he that must, beneath his rival's arms, And leave the rest secure of future harms.

Pope.
To mourn a mischief that is past and gone, Is the next way to draw new mischief on.

Siakapeabe.

## EXACT, EXTORT.

EXACT, in Latin exactus, participle of exigo, to drive out, signifies the exercise of simple force; but EXTORT, from extortus, participle of extorqueo, to wring out, marks the exercise of unusual force. In the application, therefore, to exact is to demand with force, it is commonly an act of iojustice: to extort is to get with violence, it is an act of tyranny. The collector of the revenue exacts when he gets from the people more than he is authorized to take: an arbitrary prince extorts from his conquered subjects whatever he can grasp at. In the figurative sense, defercnce, obedience, applause, and admiration are exacted: a confession, an acknowledgment, a discovery, and the like, are extorted.
While to the Established Church is given that protection and support which the iaterests of religion render proper and due, yet no rigid conformity is exacted.

Blair.
If I err in believing that the souls of men are Immortal, not while I live would I wish to have this delightful error eatorted from me.

Steele.
fexact, nice, particular, punctual.
EXACT, v, Accurate. NICE, in Saxon nise, is connected with the German geniessen, etc., to enjoy, that is, having a quick and discriminating taste. PARTICULAR signifies here directed to a particular point. PUNCTUAL, from the Latin punctum, a point, signifies keeping to a point.

Exact and nice are to be compared in their application either to persons or things: particular and penctual only in application to persons. To be exact is to arrive at perfection; to be nice is to be free from faults; to be particular is to be nice in certain particulars; to be punctual is to be exact in certain points. We are exact in our conduct or in what we do; nice and particular in our mode of do-
ing it; punctual as to the time and season for doing it. It is necessary to be exact in our accounts; to be nice as an artist in the choice and distribution of colors; to be particular, as a man of business, in the number and the details of merchav. dises that are to be delivered out; to be punctual in observing the hour of the day that has been fixed upon.

What if you and I inquire how money matters stand hetween us? With all my heart; I love exact dealing, and let Hoeus audit.

## Abbuthnot.

Every age a man passes thrnagh, and way of life he engages in, has some particular vice or imperfection naturally cleaving to it, which it will require his niceat care to avoid. Bodoedi.

I have been the more particular in this inquiry, because I hear there is scarce a village in England that has not a Moll White in it.

Adoison.
The trading part of mankind snffer by tha want of punctuality in the dealings of persons above them.

Steele.
Exactness and punctuality are always taken in a good sense; they designate an attention to that which cannot be dispensed with: they form a part of one's duty: niceness and particularity are not always taken in the best sense; they designate an excessive attention to things of inferior importance; to matters of taste and choice. Early habits of method and regularity will make a man very exact in the performance of all his duties, and particularly punctual in his payments: an over niceness in the obsern ance of mechanical rules often supplies the want of genius; it is the mark of a contracted mind to amuse itself with particularities about dress, personal appearance, furniture, and the like.
Thus critics, of less jndgment than caprice, Curious, not koowing, not exact, bnt nice.

Pore.
Good lady,
Make yonrself mirth with your particular fancy, And leave me ont on't.

SHARBFRABE.
When exact and nice are applied to things, the former expresses more than the latter; we speak of an exact resemblance, and a nice distinction. The exact point is that which we wish to reacb; the nice point is that which it is difficult to keep.

We know not so much as the true names of either Humer or Virgil, with any exactness.

W10日s

What if (aince daring on so nice a theme) I show thee friendship delicate, as dear, of teader violations apt to die:

Young.
EXAMINATION, SEARCH, INQUIRY, REGEARCH, INVESTIGATION, SCRUTLNY.

EXAMINATION, $v$. To discuss. SEARCH is a variation of seek and qee. INQUIRY, v. To $x z k$. RESEARCH is an intensive of search. LNVESTIGATI(N, from the Latin vestigium, a track, aignifies seekiog by the tracka or footatepa. SCRUTINY, from the Latin scrutor, to search, and scrutum, lumber, signifies looking for among lumber and rubbiah, to ransack.

Examination ia the most general of these terms, which all agree in expressing an active effort to find out that which is unknown. An examination may be made without any particular effort, and may be made of tbings that are open to the observation; as to examine the face or features of a person; or anatomically to examine the body: a search is a close examination into matters that are hidden or less obvious: as to search the person or papers of one that is suspected; to search a house for atolen goods.

The body of man is such a subject as stands the atmost test of examination. ADDison.
Then Mallery was called for, but hy no seurch could he be found.

Clarendon.
Examinations may be made by putting questions; an inquiry ia always made in thia manner. We may examine persona or things; we inquire of persons and into thiogs: an examination of persons is alwaya done for some apecific and public purpose; one person inquires of another only for private purposes; a atudeat is examined for the purpoae of ascertaining his progress in learning; an offender is examined in order to ascertain bis guilt; a person inquires as to the residence of another, or the road to be taken, and the like.

He sent for Mr. Mordaunt, and very strictly examined him, whether he had seeu the Marqais of Ormoud during his late being in London.

Clarentor.

## You have oft inquired

After the shepherd that complain'd of love.
SEAKSPEARE.
In the moral application of these terms, the examination is, as before, a
general and indefinite action, which may either be confined simply to those matters which present themselves to the mind of the csaminer, or it may be extended to all points: the search is a laborious examination into that which is remote; the inquiry ia extended to ex amination into that which is doubtful.

[^54]If you search purely for trath, it will be indiffereat to you where yoo find it. Budgell.
Inquiries after happiness are not so decessary and useful to mankind as the arts of consolstion. Adulson.
A research is a remote search; an investigation is a minute inquiry; a scrutiny is a atrict examination. Learned men of inquisitive tempers make their researches into antiquity: magistrates in. vestigate doubtful and mysterious affairs; physicians investigate the causes of diseases; men scrutinize the actions of those whom they bold in suspicion. Acuteness and penetration are peculiarly requisite in making researches, patience and perseverance are the necessary qualifications of the investigator; a quick discernment will essentially aid the scrutinizer.
To all inferior animals 'tis giv'a
T' eajoy the state allotted them by heav'u; No vain reseurches e'er disturb their rest.

Jentwa.
We have divided oatural philosopby into the investigation of causes, and the prodaction of effects.
bacon.
Before I go to bed, I make a scrutiny what peccant humors have reigned in me that day.

Howell.

## TO EXAMINE, SEARCH, EXPLORE.

EXAMINE, v. Examination. SEARCH, ข. Examination. EXPLORE, in Latin exploro, compounded of ex and ploro, xig. nifies properly to burst out.

These worda are bere conzidered as they designate the looking upon places or objects, in order to get acquainted with them. To examine expresses a lesa effort than to search, and this expresses less than to explore. We examine objects that are Dear; we search those that are hidden or removed at a certain distance; we explore tbose that are unknown or very distant. The painter examines a
landseape in order to take a sketch of it; the botanist searches after curious plants; the inquisitive traveller explores unknown regions. An author examines the books from which be intends to draw his authorities: the antiquarian searches every corner in which he bopes to find a monument of antiquity\} the classic scbolar explores the learning and wisdom of the ancients.
Compare each phrase, examine every line, Weigh every word, and ev'ry thought refine.

Pope.
Not thou, nor they ahall search the thoughts, that roll
Up in the cloae recesses of my and. Pope.
Hector, he said, my courage bids me meet
This high achievement, and explore the fleet.
POPE.

## EXAMPLE, PATTERN, ENSAMPLE.

EXAMPLE, in Latin exemplum, very probably changed from exsimulum and exsimatio, or simulo, slgnlities the thing framed according to a likeness. PATTERN, v. Copy. ENSAMPLE signifies that'whicb is done according to a sample or example.
All these words are taken for that which ought to be followed: but the $e x$ ample must be followed generally; the pattern must be followed particularly, not only as to what, but how a thing is to be done: the former serves as a guide to the judgrent ; the latter to guide the actions. The example comprebends what is eitber to be followed or avoided; the pattern only that which is to be followed or copied: the ensample is a species of example, the word being employed only in the solemn style. The example may be presented either in the object itself, or the description of it; the pattern displays itself most completely in the objeet itself; the ensample exists only in the description. Those who know what is right should set the example of practising it; and those who persist in doing wrong must be made an example to deter others from doing the same: every one, let his age and station be what it may, may afford a pattern of Christian virtue; the child may be a pattern to his playmates of diligence and dutifulness; the citizen may be a pattern to his fel-low-eitizens of sobriety, and conformity to the laws,' the eoldier may be a pattern
of obedlence to his comrades: our Sav. iour bas left us an example of Cbristiat perfection, which we ought to imitate, although we cannot copy it: the Seripture characters are drawn as ensomplas for our learning.
The king of men his hardy hust inspires
With land command, with grest examples fires.
Pope.
The fairy way of writing, as Mr. Dryden calls it, is more difficult than any other that depends upon the poet's fancy, because he has no patteran to follow in it.

ADDIEON.
Sir kinight, that doest that voyage rashly take, By this forbidden way in thy despight,
Doest by other's death eñsample take.
Speniajr

## EXAMPLE, PRTCEDENT.

EXAMPLE, v. Example. PRECE. DENT, from the Latin precedens, preceding, signifies by distinction that preceding which is entitled to notice. Both these terms apply to that which may be followed or made a rule; but the example is commonly present or before our eyes; the precedent is properly something past; the example may derive its author. ity from the individual; the precedent acquires its sanction from time and common consent: we are led by the $e x$. ample, or we copy the example; we are guided or governed by the precedent. The former is a private and often a partial affair; the latter is a public and often a hiational concerv; we quote examples in literature, and precedents in law.
Thames ! the most lor'd of all the ocean's sons, 0 could I flow like thee! and make thy stream My great example, as it is my theme. Deniani.
At the revolution they threw a politic veil over every circumstance which might furniah a preesedent for any future departure from what they had then settled forever.

Buber.

## EXAMPLE, INSTANCE.

EXAMPLE (v. Example, pattern) refers in this case to the thing. INSTANCE, from the Latin insto, signifies that which stands or serves as a resting point.
The cxample is set forth by way of illustration or instruction; the instance is adduced by way of evidence or proof. Every instance may serve as an example, but every example is not ant instance. The example consists of moral or intellectund objects; the instance consists of actions only, or of what merves as
proof. Ruies are illuatrated by examples; characters are illuatrated by instances: the best mode of instructing childrea is by furnishing them with ex amples for every rule that is laid down; the Roman history furnishes us with many extraordinary instances of self-devotion for their country.

Let me (my son) an ancient fact unfold, A great esoample drawa from times of old.

Pape.
Many instances may be produced from good sathorltiss that children actually suck in the saveral passiona and depraved inclinations of their nurges.

Steele.

## TO HXCEED, EXCRL, SURPASS, TRANT SCEND, OUTDO.

EXCEED, from the Lativ excedo, compounded of $e x$ and cedo, to pass out of, or beyoud the line, is the general term. SURPASS, compounded of sur, over, and pass, is one species of exceeding. EXCELL, compounded of ex and cello, to lift or move over, is another species.

Exceed is applied mostly to thinga in the sepase of going beyond in measure, degree, quantity and quality ; one thing exceeds another lo magnitude, height, or any ather dimensions; a persan'a success exceeds his expectations.

By means of thase canals and navigable rivars they carry on that immensa trade which bus aever been exceceded by any other people.

History of Inland Navigation.
It is taken either in an indifferent or bad sense, particularly in regard to persons, as a person exceeds his instruetions, or exceeds the due measure,
Mau's bonadless avarice easeeeds, And on his neighbors round about him feeds.

WALHFR
To excel and surpass signify to exceed, or be superior in that which ia good. To excel may be used with reference to all persons generally, as a person strives to excel; to surpass is used in regard to particular objeots, as to surpass another in any trial of skill.
To him the king: How mach thy years escel In arts of counsel, and in apesking wall. Pope.
The first in uative dignity surpass'd,
Artleas and unadorn'd ahe pleas'd the more !
Louti.
When excel is used in respect of parsicular objects, it is more general in

Its mense than surpass: the Duteh and Itallans formerly excelled the English in painting; one peraon may surpues another in bravery, or a thing may surpass one's expectation. Men excel in learning, arts, or arms ; competitora surpast each other in feats of agility.
Their trades and arts wherein they eacel or
cona ahort of ns.
Nrwton.
Dryden ofted surpasses expectation, and Pope never falls below it.

Johnson,
The derivatives excessive and excellent have this obvious distinction between them, that the former always signifies exceeding in that which ought not to be exceeded; and the latter exceeding in that where it is honorable to exceed: he who Is habitually excessive in any of his indulgences must be inseusible to the excellence of a temperate life.
Dark wlth excepsive light thy skirts oppear.
Мпток.
The mora closely the origin of religion and government are (is) examined, the more clearly their excellences appear.

BUREE
TRANSCEND, from trans, bexond, and seendo or scando, to climb, sighifies to climb heyond ; and OUTD 0 , that ts, to do out of the ordinary course, are particular modes of excelting or exceeding. The genius of Homer transcends that of alo moat every poet ; Heliogabalus outdid every other emperor in extravagance.
Augplclona pricee, in arms a mighty name, But yet whose actions far transcend yoor fame. Deyden.
The last and crowning instance of our love to our enemies is to pray for them. For by this a maa would faln to outdo himself.

Soura.

## EXCELLENCE, SURERIORITY.

EXCELLENCE is an absolute term; SUPERIORITY is a relative term; many may have excellence in the same degree, but they must have superiority in dlifferent degrees; superiority is often superior excellence, but in many cases they are applied to different objects. There is a moral excellence attainable by all who have the will to strive after it ; but there is an intellectual and physical superiority which is above the reach of our wishes, and is granted to a few only.

[^55]TH0M904

To be able to benefit athers is a condition of freedom and ouperiority. Tlllotaon.

## EXCESS, SUPERFLUITY, REDUNDANCY.

EXCESS is that which exceeds any measure; SUPERFLUITY, from super and fluo, to flow over; and REDUNDANCY, from redundo, to stream back or over, signifies an excess of a good measure. We may have an excess of heat or cold, wet or dry, when we have more than the ordinary quantity; but we have a superfluity of provisions when we have more than we want. Excess is applicable to any object; but superfluity and redundancy are species of excess; the former applicable in a particular manner to that which is an object of our desire; and redundaney to matters of expression or feeling. We may have an excess of prosperity or adversity ; a superfluity of good things; and a redundancy of speech or words.
It is wisely ordered In our present state that Joy and fear, hope and grief, should act alternately as checks and balances upon each other, in order to prevent an excess in any of them.

Blaim.
When by force of pollcy, by wisdom, or by fortune, property and superiority were introduced and established, then they whose possessions awelied above their wants naturally laid out their suparfiuities on pleasure. Johnaon.

The defect or redundance of a syllable might be easily covered in the recitation. Tyawhit.

## EXCESSIVE, IMMODERATE, INTEMPERATE.

The EXCESSIVE is beyond measure; the IMMODERATE, from modus, a mode or measure, is without measure; the INTEMPERATE, from tempus, a time or term, is that which is not kept within bounds.

Excessive designates excess in general; immoderate and intemperate designate excess in moral agents. The excessive lies simply in the thing which exceeds any given point: the immoderate lies in the passions which range to a boundless extent: the intemperate lies in the will which is under no control. Hence we speak of an excessive thirst physically considered: an immoderate ambition or lust of power : an intemperate indulgence, an intemperate warmth. Eacessive admits of degrees; what is excessive may exceed
in a greater or less degree: immoderats and intemperate mark a positively great degree of excess; the former still higher than the latter : immoderate is in fact the highest conceivable degree of excess. The excessive use of anything will always be attended with some evil consequence: the immoderate use of wine will rapidly tend to the ruin of him who is guilty of the excess: the intemperate use of wine will proceed by a more gradual but not less sure process to his ruin.

Who knows not the languor that attends every excesnivs indulgence in pleasure?

Blaia.
One of the first objects of wish to every one is to maintain a proper place and rank in society: this among the vain and ambitious is always the favorite aim. With them it arises to immoderate expectations founded on their supposed talents and imagined merits.

Blaif.
Let no wantonneas of youthful apirits, no compliance with the intemperats mirth of others, ever betray you into profane allies. BLaIr.

TO EXCHANGE, BARTER, TRUCK, COMMUTE.
To EXCHANGE ( $v$. To ehange) is the general term signifying to take one for another, or put one thing in the place of another; the rest are but modes of exchanging. To BARTER (v. To ehange) is to exchange one article of trade for another. To TRUOK, from the Greek rooxaw, to wheel, signifying to bandy about, is a familiar term to express a fa. miliar action for exchanging one article of private property for another. $\quad \mathbf{C O M}$ MUTE, from the Latin syllable com or contra and muto, to change, signifies an exchanging one mode of punishment for another, or one mode of payment for another; we may exchange one book for another; traders barter trinkets for golddust; coachmen or stablemen truck a whip for a handkerchief; government commutes the punishment of death for that of banishment.

Pleasure can be exechanged only for pleassre. Haweesworta.
Some men are willing to barter their hlood for lucre.

Burke.
Show all her secrets of housekeeping,
For candles how she trucks her dripping.
Swift.
This is the measure of commutative justice, of of that jnstice which supposes exchange of things protitable for things profitable.

Jeremy Taylab

## EXCUSE

to excite, incite, provoke.
To EXCITE (v. To awaken) is said more particularly of the inward feelings; INCITE ( $v$. To encourage) is said of the external actions; PROVOKE (v. To aggravate) is said of both. A person's passions are excited; he is incited by any particular passion to a course of conduct; a particular feeling is provoked, or he is $p$ rovoked by some feeling to a particular step. Wit and conversation excile mirth; men are incited by a lust for gain to fraudulent practices; they are provoked by the opposition of others to intemperate language and intemperate measures. To excite is very frequently used in a physlcal acceptation; incite always, and provoke mostly, in a moral application. We speak of exciting hunger, thirst, or perspiration ; of inciting to noble actions; of provoking impertinence, provoking scorn or resentment. When excile and provoke are applied to similar objects, the former designates a much stronger action than the latter. A thing may excite a smile, but it provokes laugh. ter; it may excite displeasure, but it provokes aoger; it may excite joy or sorrow, but it provokes to madness.
Can then the aons of Greece (the sage rejoln'd) Excite compassion in Achilles' mind? Pope.
To her the god: Great Hector's soul incite
To dare the boldeat Greek to single fight,
Till Grcece, provok'd, from all her numbers ahnw
A warrior worthy to be Hector's foe.
Pope.
Among the other torments which this passion produces, we may nasually observe that none are greater mourners than jealous men, when the peraon who provoked their Jealousy is taken from them.

Addison.

## EXCURSION, RAMBLE, TOUR, TRIP, JAUNT.

EXCURSION signifies going out of one's course, from the Latin ex and cursus, the course or prescribed path: a RAMBLE is a going without any course or regular path, from roam, of which it is a frequentative: a TOUR, from the word turn or return, is a circuitous course: a TRIP, from the Latin tripudio, to go on the toes like a dancer, is properly a pedestrian excursion or tour, or any short journey that might be made on foot: JADNT is from the French jante, the felly of a wheel, and janter, to put the
felly in motion. To go abroad in a carriage is an idle excursion, or one taken for mere pleasure: travellers who art not contented with what is not to be seen from a high-road make frequent es cursions into the interior of the country. Those who are fond of rural scenery, and pleased to follow the bent of their incli. nations, make frequent rambles. Those who set out upon a sober scheme of enjoyment from travelling are satisfied with making the tour of some one country or more. Those who have not much time for pleasure take trips. Those who have no better means of spending their time make jaunts.

I am now so rus-In-urhlah, I believe I shal stay here, except little excursions and vagaries, for a year to come.

Gray.
I am going on a short ramble to my Lord Oxford's. Pope
My last anmmer'a tour was throagh Worcestershire, Gloucestershire, Monmouthshire, and Shropshire.

Gaay.
I hold the resolntion I told yon in my last of seeing you, if you cannot take a trip hither bes fore I go.

Pops.
If you are for a merry faunt, I'll try for once who can foot it fartheat.

Dryper.

## TO EXCUBE, PARDON.

We EXCUSE ( $\boldsymbol{v}$. To apologize) a person or thing by exempting him from blame. We PARDON (from the prepositive par or per and dono, to give) by giving up to punishment the offence ons has committed.

We excuse a small fault, we pardon a great fault: we excuse that which personally affects ourselves; we pardon that which offends against morals: we may excuse as equals; we can pardon only az superiors. We exercise good-nature in excusing: we exercise generosity or mercy in pardoning. Friends excuse each other for the unintentional omission of formalities; it is the prerogative of the king to pardon criminals whose offences will admit of pardon: the violation of good-manners is inexcusable in those whe are cultivated; falsehood is unpardonable even in a child.

I will not quarrel with a slight mistake,
Roscommon.
Those who know how many volumes hav been written on the poems of Homer and Virg'a
will easily pardon the length of my discourse apon Milton. Addison.

## TO EXECUTE, FULFIL, PERFORM.

EXECUTE ( $v$. To accomplish), in Latin executus, participle of exequor, compounded of ex and sequor, is to follow up to the end. To FULFIL is to fill up to the full of what is wanted. To PERFORM is to form thoroughly or make complete.

To excecute is more than to fulffl, and to fulfil than to perform. To execute is to bring about an end; it involves active measures, and is peculiarly applicable to that which is extraordinary, or that which requires particular spirit and talents; schemes of ambitlon are executed: to fub fil is to satisfy a moral obligation; it is applicable to those duties in which rectitude and equity are involved; we fulffl the duties of citizens: to perform is to carry through by simple action or labor; it is more particularly applicable to the ordinary and regular business of life; we perform a work or a task. One executes according to one's owo intentions or those of others; the soldier exceutes the orders of his general; the merchant executes the commissions of his correspondent: one fulfils according to the wishes and expectations of one's self or others; it is the part of an honest man to enter into no engagements which he cannot fulfl; it is the part of a dutiful son, by diligence and assiduity, to endeavor to fulfil the expectations of an anxious parent: one performs according to circumstances what suits one's own couvenience and purposes; every good man is anxious to perform his part in life with credit and advantage to himself and others.

Why delays
His hand to executs what his decree
Fix'd on this day?
Minton.
To whom the white-arm'd goddess thas replles: Enough, thon know'st the tyrant of the skies, Severely bent his purpose to fulfil,
Unmov'd his mind, and unrestrain'd his will.
Pope.
When those who round the wasted fires remain, Perform the last sad office to the slain.

Dryden.

## SO EXERCISE, PRACIISE.

EXERCISE, in Latin exerceo, from ex and arceo, signifies to drive or impel forth.

PRACTISE, from the Greek $\pi \rho a \sigma d \omega$, to do, signifies to perform a part.

These terms are equally applied to the actions and habits of men; but we exercise in that where the powers are called forth; we practise in that where frequency and habitude of action is requisite: we exercise an art ; we practise a profession: we may both exercise or proutisé a virtue; but the former is that which the particular occurrence calls forth, and which seems to demand a peculiar effort of the mind; the latter is that which is done daily and ordinarily: thus we in a peculiar manner are said to exercise patience, fortitude, or forbearance; to practise charity, kindness, benevolence, and the like.

> Every virtue requires time and place, a proper object, and a fit comjuncture of circumstances for the due exercise of it.

> ADDISON.

All men are not equally qualified for getting money: but it is in the power of every one alike to practise this virtue (of thrift). Budatis.

A similar distinction characterizes these words as nouns: the former applying solely to the powers of the body or mind; the latter solely to the mechanical operations: the bealth of the body and the vigor of the mind are alike impaired by the want of exercise; in every art practice is an indispensable requisite for acquiring perfection: the exercise of the memory is of the first importance in the education of children; constant practice in writing is almost the only means by which the art of penmanship is acquired.

Reading is to the mind what exerciss is to the body. ADDISON. Long practice has a sure improvement found, With kindled fires to hurn the barrea ground.

Dryden.

## TO EXERT, EXERCISE.

The employment of some power or qualification that belongs to one's self is the common idea conveyed by these terms; but EXERT (v. Endeavor) may be used for what is internal or external of one's self; EXERCISE (v. Exercise) only for that which forms an express part of one's self: hence we speak of excerting one's strength, or exerting one's voice, or exerting one's influence : of exo ercising one's limbs, excrcising one's uhd derstanding, or exercising one's tongue

## EXIT

Exert is often uged only for an individual act of calling forth into action; exercise always conveys the idea of repeated or continued exertion; thus a person who calls to another exerts his voice; be who speaks aloud for any length of time exercises his lungs.

Haw has Milton represented the whole Godhead, excerting itself toward man in its full be. nevolence, ynder the threefold distinction of a Creator, a Redecmer, and Comforter. Addison.

God made no faculty, but he also provided it with a proper object upon which it might easersise itself.

SLuth.

## TO EXHORT, PERSUADE.

EXHORT, in Latin exhorter, compounded of ex and hortor, from the Greck upras, perfect passive of oow, to excite or impel. PERSSUADE, $v$. Conviction.

Exhortation has more of impelling in it; persuasion more of drawing: a superior exhorts; his words carry authority with them, and rouse to action: a friend and an equal persuades; he wins and draws by the agreeableness or kindness of his expressions, Exhortations are employed only in matters of duty or necessity ; persuasions are employed in matters of pleasure or convenience.

Their pinions still In loose librations stretch'd, to trust the wold Trembling refuse, till down before them fly The parent guides, and chide, exhort, command.

Thomson.
Gay"s friends persuaded him to sell his share In the South Sea stock, but he dreamed of dignity and splendor. Jounson.

## EXIGENCY, EMERGENCY,

Necessity is the idea which is oommon to the aignifioation of these terms: EX, IGENOX, from the Latim exigo, to demand, expresses what the case demands ; and EMERGENCY, from emerga, to arise out of, denotes what rlses out of the case.

The exigency is more common, but less pressing ; the emergency is imperious when it comes, but comes lesa frequently: a prudent travellor will never carry more money with him than what will supply the exigencies of his journey; and in case of an emergency will rather borrow of his friends than risk his property.

Savage was again conflned to Bristol, where he was every dsy hurted by bailiffs. In this esoigence he once more found is friend who sheltered him in bis house.

Jornimon.

When it was formerly the fashion to husband a lie and to trump it np in some extraordinary emergeney, it generally did execution: but at present every msn is on his guard. ADDIsos.

## TO EXIST, LIVE.

EXIST, $v$. To be. LIVE, through the medium of the Saxon libban, and the oth er Northern dialects, comes in all prabo ability from the Hebrew leb, the heart, which is the seat of animal life.

Existence is the property of all things in the universe; life, which is the inherent power of motlon, is the particular property communicated by the Divino Being to some parts only of his creation : exist, therefore, is the general, and live the specific term: whatever lives, exists according to a certain mode; but many things exist without living: when we wish to speak of things in their most abstract relation, we say they exist ; when we wish to characterize the form of existence, we say they live.

Existence, in its proper sense, is the attribute which we commonly ascribe to the Divine Being, and it is that which is immediately communlcable by himself; life is that mode of existence which he bas made to he communicable by other objects besides himself: existence is taken only in its strict and proper sense, independent of all its attributes and appendages; but life is regarded in- connection with the means by which it is supported, as animal life, or vegetable life. In llke manner, when speaking of spiritual objects, exist retains its abstract sense, and live is employed to denote an active principle: animosities should never exist in the mind; and everything which is calculated to keep them alive should be kept at a distance.
Can any now remember or relate
How he epristed in an embryo state? Jenyss.
Death to such a man is rather to be looked upon as the period of his mortality than the end of his life.

Melmoth's Letteas of Pliny.

## EXIT, DEPARTURE.

Both these words are metaphorically employed for death, or a passage out of this life; the former is borrowed from the act of going off the stage; the latter from the act of setting off on a journey. Exit seems to conyey the idea of voli tion; for we speak of making our exit:

## EXPERIENCE

departure designates simply the event; the hour of a man's departure is not made known to him. When we speak of an exit, we think only of the place left; when we speak of a departure, we think of the place gone to : the unbeliever may talk of his exit ; the Christian most commonly speaks of his departure.

There are no ideas strike more forcibly upon our imaginationa than those which are raised from reflections upon the exits of great and excellent men. Sterle.
Onr Saviour prescribea faith in himself as a special remedy against that trouble which possassed the minds of his disciples upon the apprebension of his departure from them.

Tillotson.

## TO EXONERATE, EXCULPATE.

EXONERATE, from onus, a burden, signifies to take off the burden of a charge or of guilt; to EXCULPATE, from culpa, a fault or blame, is to throw off the blame: the first is the act of another ; the second is one's own act: we exonerate him upon whom a charge has lain, or who has the load of guilt; we exculpate ourselves when there is any danger of being blamed: circumstances may sometimes tend to exonerate; the explanation of some person is requisite to exculpate: in a case of dishonesty, the absence of an individual at the moment when the act was committed will altogether exonerate him from suspicion; it is fruitless for any one to attempt to exculpate himself from the charge of faithlessness who is detected in conniving at the dishonesty of others.
I entreat your lordships to consider whether there ever was a witness brought hefore a court of jnstice who had stronger motives to give testimony hoatile to a defendant for the purpose of exomerating himself. State Trials.
Lord Clarendon most allude to her eaculpation of the charge, whatsoever it was, whea he mentions her as a lady of extraordinary beauty, and as extraordinary fame.
pennant.

## EXPEDIENT, RESOURCE.

The EXPEDIENT is an artificial means; the RESOURCE is a natural means: a cunning man is fruitful in ex. pedients; a fortunate man abounds in resources: Robinson Crusoe adopted every expedient in order to prolong his existence at a time when his resources were at the lowest ebb.

When there happens to be anything ridienlous in a visage, the best expedient is for the owner to be plearant upon himaelf.

Sterle.
Since the accomplishment of the revolution, France has destroyed every resource of the state which depends upon opiniona.

Buris

## EXPEDIENT, FIT.

EXPEDIENT, from the Latin expedio, to get in readiness for a given occasion, supposes a certain degree of necessity from circumstances; FIT (v. Fit) for the purpose, signifies simply an agreement with, or suitability to, the circumstances: what is expedient must be fit, hecause it is called for; what is fit need not be expedient, for it may not be required. The expediency of a thing depends altogether upon the outward circumstances; the fitness is determined by a moral rule: it is imprudent not to do that which is expedient ; it is disgraceful to do that which is unfit: it' is expedient for bim who wishes to prepare for death, occasionally to take an account of bis life; it is not fit for him who is ahout to die to dwell with anxiety on the things of this life.

To far the greater number it is highly oxpodient that they ahould by some settled scheme of duties be rescued from the tyranny of caprice.

Jornaon.
Salt earth and bitter are not fit to aow,
Nor will be tam'd and mended by the plongh.
Dryoen.

## EXPERIENCE, EXPERIMENT, TRIAL, PROOF, TEST.

EXPERIENCE, EXPERIMENT, from the Latin experior, compounded of $e$ or ex and perio or pario, signifies to bring forth, that is, the thing brought to light, or the act of hringing to light. TRIAL signifies the act of trying, from try, in Latin tento, Hebrew tucr, to explore, examine, search. PROOF signifies either the act of proving, from the Latin probo, to make good, or the thing made good, proved to be good. TEST, from testis, a witness, is that which serves as evidence, or from the Italian testa, a test or cuppel in which metals are tried.

By all the actions implied in these terms, we endeavor to arrive at a certainty respecting some unknown particular: experience is that which has been tried; an experiment is the thing to be tried; experience is certain, as it is a de-
duction from the past for the service of the present; the experiment is uncertain, and serves a future purpose: experience is an unerring guide, which no man can desert without falling into error; experiments may fail, or be superseded by others more perfect.

A man may, by experienco, be persuaded that his will is free: that he can do this, or not do it. Tillotson.
Any one may easily make this experiment, and even plalnly see that there is no hud in the corn which ants lay up.

AnD180N.
Experience serves to lead us to moral truth; experiments aid us in ascertaining speculative truth: we profit by experience to rectify practice; we make experiments in theoretical inquiries: he, therefore, who makes experiments in matters of experience rejects a steady and definitive mode of coming at the truth for one that is variable and uncertain, and that, too, in matters of the first moment.
'Tis greatly wise to talk with our past hours, And ask them, what report they hore to heav'n, And how they might have borne more welcome news:
Their answers form what men experience call.
Youno.
It is good also not to try experiments $\ln$ states, except the necessity he urgent, or the utility be evident.
bacon.
The experiment, trial, and proof have equally the character of uncertainty; but the experiment is employed only in matters of an intellectual nature; the trial is employed in matters of a personal nature, on physical as well as mental objects; the proof is employed in moral subjects: we make an experiment in order to know whether a thing be true or false; we make a trial in order to know whether it be capable or incapable, convenient or inconvenient, useful or the contrary; we put a thing to the proof in order to determine whether it be good or bad, real or unreal : experiments tend to confirm opinions; the philosopher doubts every position which cannot be demonstrated by repeated experiments: trials are of absolute necessity in directing our conduct, our taste, and our choice; we judge of our strength or skill by trials; we judge of the effect of colors by trials, and the like: the proof is the trial that proves; it determines the judgment in the knowledge of men
and things; the proof of men's characters and merits is best made by observing their conduct. The test is the most decisive kind of proof, whence the phrase " to stand the test."

When we are searching out the nature or properties of any being, by various methods of trial, this sort of observation is called eaperiment.

Watrs.
But he himself betook another way,
To make more trial of his hardiment, And seek adventures, as he with Prince Arthur went.

Spensea.
0 goodly usage of those ancient tymes I
In which the sword was servant unto right:
When not for malice and contentious crymes,
But all for praise and proof of manly might.
All thy vexations
Were but my trials of thy love, and thou
Hast strangely stood the test. Shanspeari.
The proof and test may be taken for that which serves to prove, with the same distinction: to give proofs of sincerity; ridicule is not the test of truth.

Such a tyranny in love, which the fair lmpose upon us, is a Hitle too severe, that we must demonstrate our affection for them by no certain proof, but hy hatred for one another. Tatler.
Unerring nature, still divinely hright,
One clear, unchanged, and universal light, Life, force, and beanty, must to all impart, At once the source and end, and test of every art. Pope.

TO EXPLAIN, EXPOUND, INTERPRET.
EXPLAIN signifies to make plain, 0 Apparent. EXPOUND, from the Latin expono, compounded of ex and pono, signifies to set forth in detail. INTERPRET, in Latin interpreto and interpretes, compounded of inter and partes, that is, linguas, tongues, signifying to get the sense of one language by means of another.
To explain is the generic, the rest are specific: to exponend and interpret are each modes of explaining. Single words or sentences are explained; a whole work, or considerable parts of it, are expounded; the sense of any writing or symbolical sign is interpreted. It is the business of the philologist to explain the meaning of words by a suitable definition; it is the business of the divine to expound Scripture; it is the business of the antiquarian to interpret the meaning of old inscriptions, or of hieroglyphics. An explanation serves to assist the un-
deratanding, to supply a deficiency, and remove obscurity; an exposition is an ample explanation, in which minute particulars are detailed, and the conneetion of events iu the narrative is kept up; it serves to assist the memory and awaken the attention: both the explanation and exposition are employed in clearing up the sense of things as they are, but the interpretation is more arbitrary; it often consists of affixing or giving a sense to things which they have not previously had; hence it is that the same passages in authors admit of different interpretations, according to the character or views of the commentator.

[^56]Johnson.
To explain and interpret are not confined to what is written or said, they are employed likewise with regard to the actions of men; exposition ls , howéver, used oniy with regard to writings. The major part of the misunderstandings and animosities which arise among men might easily be obviated by a timely explanation; it is the characteristic of good-nature to interpret the looks and actions of men as favorably as possible. The explanation may sometimes fiow out of circumstances; the interpretation is always the act of a voluntary and rational agent. The discovery of a plot or secret scheme will serve to explain the mysterious and strange conduct of such as were previously acquainted with it. According to an old proverb, "Silence gives consent;" for thus at least they are pleased to interpret it who are interested in the decision.
It is a serious thing to have connection with a people who live only under positive, arbitrary, and changeable institutions ; and these not petfected, not supplied, nor explained, by any coimmoh acknowledged rule of moral science.

Bdrke.

Laok how we cann, or sad or mèrrily, Interpretation will misquote our looks.

Shakbteart

## to explahk, lllustrate, eluciDATE.

EXPLAIN, v. To explain, expoind. ILLUSTRATE, in Latin illusitatus, pasticlple of illustro, compounded of the intensive syllable zin and lustro, signifies to make a thing bright, or easy to be surveyed and examined. ELUCIDATE, in Latin elucidatus, participle of elucido, from lux, light, signifies to bring forth into the light.

To explain is simply to render intelligible; to illustrate and elucidate are to give additional clearness: everything requires to be explained to one who is ignorant of it; but the best informed will require to have abstruse subjects illustrated, and obscure subjects elucidated. We always explaina when we illustrate or elucidate, and we always elucidate when we illustrate, but not vice versa. We explain by reducing compounds to simples, and generalis to particulars; we illustrate by means of examples, similes, and allegotical figures; we elucidate by commentaries, or the statement of facts. Words are the common subject of explanation; morad truths require illustration; poetical allusions and dark passages in writers require elucidation.
I khow I meant just what yon explain; but I did not eaxpluth iny own meaning so well as you. Pope.
It is indeed the same system as mine, bit illustrated with a ray of your own.

Popb.
If ont rellgious tehets should ever want a futther eluciddition, we shall not call on athreismi to explain them.

Bifke.

## EXPLLANATORY, EXPLICIT, EXPRESS.

EXPLANATORY signifies containing or belonging to explaration ( $\%$. To kxplain). EXPLICIT, in Latin explicatus, from explito, to unfold, signifies unfolded or laid opeu. EXPRESS, in Latin expressus, siguifies the same as expressed or delivered in specific terms.

The explanatory is that which is superadded to clear up difficulties or obscurities. A letter is explanatory which contains an explanation of sométhing preceding, in lieu of anything new. The explicit is that which of itself obviates every dif.

## EXPRESS

fleulty ; an explicit letter, thepefore, will leave nothing that requires explanation: the explicit admits of a free use of words; the express requires them to be unam. biguous. A person ought to be explicit when he enters into an engagement; he ought to he express when be gives commands.
An eqpolanatory law stops the current of a precedent atatute, nor does either of them admit oxtension afterward.
bacon.
Since the revolution the hounds of prerogativa and liberty have been better dafined, the principles of government more thoraughly examined and understaga, and the rights of the aubject more ecoplicitily guarded by legal provistons, than in any other period of the Engliat hiatory.
blaorstone.
I hava deatroyed the letter I received from you hy the hands of Lucius Aruntius, though it was much too innocent to deserve so severe a treatment; however, it was your expresa desire I should destroy it, and I have complied aceordingly.

Menmote's Lеттедs of Choiro,

## TO EXPOSTULATE, REMONSTRATE.

EXPOSTULATE, from positulo, to demand, signifies to demand reasons for a thing. REMONSTRATE, from monstro, to show, signifles to show reasons against a thing:

We expostulate in a tone of authority; wa remonstrate in a tone of oomplaint. He who expastulates passes a censure, and claims ta be heard; he wha rexanstrates presents his case and raquests to be heard. Exppostulation may often be the precursor of violence; remonstrance mostly resta on the farce of reason and representation : he who admits of expostacatian from an inferior undermines his awn authority; he who is deaf to the remonstrances of his friends is far gone in folly; the expostulation is mostly on matters of personal interest; the remonsthamace may as often be made on matters of propriety. The Saythian ambassadors expostrelated with Alexander against his invasion of their country; King Richard expostulated wlth Wat ' Tyler an the subject of his insurreotion; Artahanes remonstrated with Xerxes on the folly of his projected invasion.
With the hypocrite it is not my bnsiness at prasent to exspostuLate.

Jobssan.
I have been hut a little time conversant with the world, yet I have had already freqnent opportunities of observing the little effleacy of remonetrance and complaint,

Joheson.

TO EXPREBS, DECLARE, SIGNIFY, TESTIFY, UTTER.
Atl these terms are taken in the sense of communicating to others. To EXPRESS, from the Latin exprimo, or ex, out, and premo, to press, signifying to bring out by a partioular effort, is the general term. To DEOLARE (v. To doelare), and the ather terms, are different modes of expressing, varying in the manner and circumstances of the action. To express is the simple act of communica tion, resulting from our circumstances as social agents ; to declare is to express clearly and openly. A person may express his opinions to an individual, but to declare is to make olear ar known to several. We may express directly or indirectly; we declare dlrectly, and sometimes Ioudly.
As the Supreme Being has expreseed, and, as it were, printed his ideqs in the creatlon, men exapressi their ideas in booke.

ADDISON.
On him coufer the Poet's sacred name,
Whose lofty vaice deckars the heavenly flame.
ApDISOM.
Words, looks, gestures, or movements serve to express ; actions and things may sometimes declare: sometimes we cannot express our contempt in so strong a manner as by preserving a perfect silence when we are required to speak; an act of hostility on the part of a nation is as much a declaration of war as if it were expressed in positive terms.
Thus Roman youth deriy'd from ruin'd Troy, In rude Saturnian rhymes eappreag their joy.

Dhtiden.
Th' unerring sun by certain signs declares, What the late ev'n or early morn prepares.

Difind.
To express is to convey to another by any means that which passes in one's mlind. To SIGNIFY, from signum, a sign, and facio, to make, is to convey by some outward sign. To express is said generally of one's opintons and feellngs ; to signify is to make one's particular wishes known to an individual: we express mostly in positive terms; we may signify in any manner, either by looks or words.

[^57]The sionification of our eentimeats made by toaes and geatures has this advantage above that made by words, that it is the language of nature.

Blala.
Words may both express and signi. $f y$ : they express the commonly received meaning affixed to them; but they signify more or less according to circumstances or the intention of the speaker; the word no expresses simple negation, but it may be made to signify very differently by any one using it.
The warrior thus in song hia deeds eospress'd,
Nor vainly boasted what he but confess'd;
Whila warlike actions were proclaim'd abroad,
That all their praises ahonld refer to God. Parnell.
Life's but a shadow, a poor player
That struta and frets his hour upon the stage And then is heard no more; it is a tale
Full of sound and fury, signifying nothing.
Shakspeare.
As epithets, expressive and significant admit of a similar distinction : an expressive look is that which is fitted to express what is intended; a significant look is that which is calculated to signify the particular feeling of the individual.
And four tair queens, whose hands austain a flow'r,
Th' expressive emblem of their aofter pow'r.
Pope.
Common life is full of this kind of significant expressions, by knocking, beckoning, frowning, and ponting, and dumb persons are sagacious in the use of them.

Holdea.
To signify and TESTIFY, from testis, a witness, and fio, to become, like the word express, are employed in general for any act of communication otherwise than by words; but express is used in a stronger sense than either of the former. The passions and strongest movements of the soul are expressed; the simple intentions or transitory feelings of the mind are signified or testified. A person expresses his joy by the sparkling of his eye, and the vivacity of his countenance; he sigmifies his wishes by a nod; he testifies his approbation by a smile. People of vivid sensibility must take care not to express all their feelings; those who expect a ready obedience from their inferiors must not adopt a haughty mode of signifying their will: nothing is more gratifying to an ingenuous mind than to testify its regard for merit, wherever it may discover itself.

If there be no canse exepressed, the jailer is not bound to detain the prisoner. For the law jndges in this respect, aaith Sir Edward Coke, like Festus the Roman governor; that it is unreasonable to aend a prisoner, and not to signify withal the crimea alleged againat him.

Blacestone.
What consolation can be had, Dryden has afforded, hy living to repent, and to testify his repentance (for his immoral writings). Jounson.

UTTER, from the preposition out, sig. nifying to bring out, differs from express in this, that the latter respects the thing which is communicated, and the former the means of communication. We ex press from the heart; we utter with the lips: to express an uncharitahle sentiment is a violation of Christian duty; to utter an unseemly word is a violation of goodmanners: those who say what they do not mean, utter, but not express; those who show hy their looks what is passing in their hearts, express, but do not utter.
Kneeling at the commnnion is designed to exo press humility and reverence. FALENER.
The multitude of angels, with a shout
Lond as from numbers without number, aweet Aa from blessed voices, uttering joy. Mitos.

## EXTEND, STRETCH, REACH.

These words are nearly allied to each other in the sense of drawing out so as to enlarge the dimensions, particularly that of length. EXTEND, from $e x$ and tend, signifying to tend outward or away from an object, is the most general of these terms. STRETCH, as connected with strike and stroke, as also with strain, is a mode of extending, namcly, with an effort, and as far as we can. REACH, which is a variation of stretch, conveys the idea of attaining a point or an object by extending. Things may extend in any manner, either by simply passing over or occupying a certain space; as a piece of water extends into a country.
One of the earthquakes at Catanea most particularly described in history is that which happened in the year 1693 . It eastended to a circumference of two thonaand air hundred leagnes.

GoLnsmite.
They may also be extended by adding to their dimensions; as to extend the gar den beyond the house.

Its length was extended toward the enemy, and exceeded its depth.

Pottil:

Things are stretched or extended length. wise as far as they will admit of extension; as to stretch one's neck; to lie stretched on the ground.
But not till half the prostrate forest lay
Strotch'd in long ruin and expos'd to day.
Pope.
Wherefore these words may be applied to the same objects with this distinction : to extend the srm or hand is simply to put it out; to stretch the arm is to extend it its full length.

In assemblies and places of public resort, it seldom fails to happen that though at the entrance of some particular person every face brightens with gladness and every hand is eootended in salutation, yet if you pursue him beyond the tirst exchange of civilities, you will tind him of very small importance.

Rambler.
But brave Cleanthus, o'er the rolling floods, Stretch'd wide hls hands, and inrok'd the gods.

Pitt.
A country is said to extend in its ordinary spplication, but it is only said figuratively to stretch when it seems to extend itself by an effort to its utmost length.

Ita course has been etopped in many places by the eruptions of the volcano, so that, strictly speaking, the skirts of Atrla eootend much beyond it (the river Acis), though it has generally been considered as the boundary. Baydone.

## Plains immense

Lie atretch'd below, interminable meads.
Thoman.
To extend is indefinite as to the distance; it may be shorter or longer, and requires, therefore, to be expressly defined: to reach is defined by the point srrived at, which may be either expressed or implied; as the road extends many miles; it will not reach so far, i. e., as the house or other object implied.

This little spot of earth you stand upon Is more to me than the eatended plaina Of my great father's kingdom. Southean.

Some got Into loog alleys which did not reach far up the hill before they ended, and did not go Garther.

Addison.
Persons extend things, as one extends a field, boundary, etc.; persons or things reach things ; a person reaches a place; a sound reaches the esr.

The lucky sonnd no sooner reach'd their ears, But straight they quite diamisg'd their fears.

Dafions.

In the moral and extended spplication they are distinguished in a similsr manner: influence, power, observations, etc., may be extended in sn indefinite manner as before, but they are ssid to be stretch. ed when they are carried as far as they csn, snd sometimes farther than is convenient.

For while the boundless theme eatends our thought,
Ten thousand thouasad rolling years are naught. GAX.
Life's span forbids us to extend our cares, And atretch our hopes beyond our years.

Cerect.
One reaches a certain age, or one reaches a goal; the understsnding reaches an object of contemplation.

I cast my face upward, and began to consider what a rare prerogative the optic virtue hath, much more the intuitive virtue of the thonght; that the one in a moment can reach heaven, and the other go beyond it.

Howell.

## TO EXTENUATE, PALLIATE.

EXTENUATE, from the Latin tenuis, thin, small, signifies literally to make small. PALLIATE, in Latin palliatus, participle of pallio, from pallium, a cloak, significs to throw s cloak over a thing so that it may not be seen.
These terms are both applicable to the moral conduct, and express the act of lessening the guilt of any impropriety. To extenuate is simply to lessen guilt without reference to the means; to palliate is to lessen it by means of art. To extenuate is rather the effect of circumstances: to palliate is the direct effort of an individual. Ignorance in the offender may serve as an extenuation of his guilt, although not of his offence : it is but a poor palliation of a man's guilt to say that his crimes have not been attended with the mischief which they were calculated to produce.
Savage endeavored to extenuate the fact (of
having killed Sinclair), by urging the suddenness of the whole action.

Johnson.
Mone. St. Epremond lias endeavored to palliate the superstitions of the Roman Catholic religion.

Addison.

## extraneous, extrinsic, foreign.

EXTRANEOUS, compounded of exterraneous, or ex and terra, signifies out of the land, not belonging to it. EXTRINSIC, in Latin extrinsecus, compounded of
extra and secus, signifies outward, external. FOREIGN, from the Latin foris, out-of-doors, uignifies not belonging to the tamily.

The extraneous is that which forms no necessary or natural part of anything: the extrinsic is that which forms a part or has a connection, but only in an indirect form; it is not an inherent or component part: the foreign is that which forms no part whatever, and has no kind of connection. A work is said to contain extraneous matter which contains much matter not decessarily helonging to, or illustrative of, the subject: a work is said to have extrinsic merit when it borrows its value from local circumstances, in distinction from the intrinsic merit, or that which lies in the contents.

Extraneous and extrinsic have a general and abstract sense; but foreign has a particular signification; they always pass over to some object either expressed or understood: hence we say extraneous ideas, or extrinsic worth; but that a particular mode of acting is foreign to the general plan pursued. Anecdotes of private individuals would be extraneous matter in a general history: the respect and credit which men gain from their fellow-citizens by an adherence to rectitude is the extrinsic advantage of virtue; the peace of a good conscience and the favor of God are its intrinsic advantages: it is foreign to the purpose of one who is making an abridgement of a work to enter into details in any particular part.
TVat which makes me believe is something estransous to the thing that 1 believe. Locke.
Affluence and power are advantages eatrinsic and adventitious.

Johnson.

## For loveliness

Needs not the aid of foreign ornaments;
Bat is when unadorn'd adorn'd the most.
THOMSON.

## EXTRAORDINARY, REMARKABLE,

Are epithets both opposed to the ordinary; and in that sense the EXTRAORDINARY is that which in its own nature is REMARKABLE : but things, however, may be extraordinary which are not remarkable, and the contrary. The extraordinary is that which is out of the ordinary course, but it does not always excite remark, and is not therefore remarkable, twhen we speak of an extraordinary
loan, an extratardinary measure of govern. ment: on the other hand, when the ex. traordinary conveys the idea of what deserves notice, it expresses much more than remarkable. There are but few extraordin nary things, many things are remarkable: the remarkable is eminent; the extraordi. nary is supereminent: the extraordinary excites our astonishment; the remarkabla only awakens our intsrest and attention. The extraardinary is unexpected; the re. markable is sometimes looked for: every instance of sagacity and fidelity in a dog is remarkable, and some extraordinary instances have been related which would almost stagger our belief.
The love of praise is a pission deep in the mind of every extraordinary person. Hughes.

The heroes of literary history have been no less remarkable for what they have suffered than for what they have achiefed.

Johnson.

## EXTRAVAGANT, PRODIGAL, LAVISH, PROFUSE.

EXTRAVAGANT, from extra and vogans, signifies in genctal wandering from the line; and PRODIGAL, from the Latin prodigus, and prodigo, to launch forth, signifies in general sending forth, or giving out in great quantities. LAVISH comes probably from the Latin lavo, to wash, signifying to wash away in waste. PROFUSE, from the Latin profusus, participle of profundo, to pour forth, signifies pouring out freely.

The idea of using immoderately is implied in all these terms, but extravagant is the most general in its meaning and application. The extravagant man spends his money without reason; the prodigal man spends it in excesses: one may be extravagant with a small sum where it exceeds one's means; one can be prodigal only with large sums.

An eatravagant man who has nothing else to recommend him but a false generosity is often more beloved than a persion of a more finished character who is defectlre in this particular.

Adbrsod.
He (Sir Robert Walpole) was an honorable man and a sound Whig. He was not, as the Jacobites and discontented Whigs of his own time have represented him, and as ill-informed people still rep. resent him, a prodigal and corrapt minister.

Buhes
Extravagant and prodigal designate habitual as woll as particular actions: lav.

## FABLE

isk and profuse are properly applied to particular actions, the former to dencte an expenditure more or less wasteful or superfinous, the latter to denote a full supply wlthout any sort of scant. He who is lavish consumes without considering the value of what is spent; but profuseness may sometimes arise from an excess of liberality.
The wild eastrquagant, whose thoughtless hand With lavish, tasteless pride, commits expense, Ruin'd, perceiving his waning age demand Sad reparation for his youth's offence.

DODALEX.
Ope of a mean fqrtupe manages his store with extreme parsimony, but with fear of running into profuseneas never arrives to the magniffcence of living.

DRYDEN.
As extravagance has respect to the disorder of the mind, it may be employed with equal propriety to ather objects; as to be extravagant in praises, requests, etc. As prodigal refers to excess in the measure of consumption, it may be applied to other objects than worldly possesssions; as to be prodigal of one's time, treasnre, strength, and whatever is near and dear to us. Lavish may be applied to any objects whioh may be dealt out without regard to their value; as to be lavish of one's compliments by scattering them indiscriminately. Profuse may be applied to whatever may be given in superabundance, but mostly in a good or indifferent sense.

No one is to admit into his petitiops to his Maker things superfluous and eatravagant.

SOUTH.
Here patriots llve, who for their country's good, In fighting flelds, were prodigal of blood.

DRTDEN.
See where the winding vale its lavigh stores Irriguous spreads.

Thomson.
Cicero was most liberally profuse in commending the ancients and his contemporaries.


## EXTREMITY, EXTREME,

EXTREMITY is used in the proper or the improper sepse; EXTREME in the improper sense: we speak of the extremity of a liae ar an avenne, the extremity of distress, but the extreme of the fashion. In the moral sense, extremity is applicable to the outward oircumstances; extreme to the opinions and conduct of men : in matters of dispute between individuals it is * happy thing to guard against coming
to extremities; it is the characteristic of volatile tempers to be always in extremes, either the extreme of joy or the extrem of serraw.
Savage suffered the utmost extramities of poverty, and often fasted so long that he was seized with laintnes.

Jодмson.
The two extresmes to be guarded against ara despotism, where all are staves, and anarchy, where all would rule and none obey. Buail.

## EXUBERANT, LUXURIANT.

EXUBERANT, from the Latin exuberaus, or ex and ubero, signifies very fruitful or superabundant; LUXURLANT, in Latin luxuriains, from laxus, signifies expanding with unrestrained freedom. These terms are both applied to vegetation in a flourishing state; but exuberanca expresses the excess, and luxuriance the perfection: in a fertile soil, where plants are left unrestrainedly to themselves, there will be an exuberance; plants are to be seen in their luxuriance only in seasons that are favorable to them.
Another Flora there of bolder hues And richer sweets, beyond our garden's pride, Plays o'er the fields, and showers with sudden hand
Elquberant spring.
Thomson.
On whose luxurious herbage, balf conceal'd, Like a full'n cedar, far difíus'd his train,
Cas'd in green scales, the crocodile extends.
Thomson.
In the moral application, exuberance of intellect is often attended with a restless ambition that is incompatible both with the happiness and advancement of its possessor; luxuriance of imagination is one of the greatest gifts which a poel can boast of.

## F

FABLE, TALE, NOVEL, ROMANCE.
FABLE, in Latin fapula, from for, to speak or tell, and TALE, from to tell, both designate a species of narration; NOVEL, from the Italian novella, is an extended tale; ROMANCE, from the Italian romanzo, is a wonderful tale, or a tale of wonders, such as was most in rogne in former times, Different species of composition are expressed by the above
worda : the fable is allegorical; ite ac*iona are natural, but its agenta are imuginary: the tale is fictitioua, but not imaginary; both the agents and actions are drawn from the passing acenes of life. Goda and goddesses, animals and men, trees, vegetables, and inanimate objects in general, may be made the agents of a fable; but of a tale, properly speaking, only men or auperoatural spirits can be the agents: of the former deseription are the celehrated fables of $\nleftarrow$ sop; and of the latter the tales of Marmontel, the tales of the Genii, the Chineese tales, etc. : fables are written for instruction; tales priacipally for amusement: fables consist mostly of only one incident or action, from which a novel may be drawn; tales always of many which excite an interest for an individual.

When I travelled, I took a particular delight in hearing the songs and fables that are come from father to son, and are most in vogue among the common people.

ADDISON.
Df Jason, Theseus, and such worthies old, light seem the tales antiquity has told.

Watlea.
The tale, when compared with the nov$e l$, is a simple kind of fiction, it consista of but few persons in the drama; while the novel, on the contrary, admits of every possible variety in characters; the tale is told without much art or contrivance to keep the reader in suspense, without any depth of plot or importance in the catastrophe; the novel affords the greatest scope for exciting an interest by the rapid succession of events, the involvements of interest, and the unravelling of its plot. If the novel awakens the attention, the romance rivets the whole mind and engagea the affections; it presents nothing but what is extraordinary and calculated to fill the imagination: of the former description, Cervantes, La Sage, and Fielding have given us the best specimens; and of the latter we have the beat modera specimens from the pen of Mrs. Radeliffe.
A novel conducted upon one uniform plan, eontaining a series of events in familiar life, is in effect a protracted comedy not divided into acts. Cumberland.
In the romances formerly written, every transaction and sentiment was so remote from all that passes among men, that the reader was in little janger of making any application to himself.

Johnson.

## FACE, FRONT,

Figuratively designate the particular parts of hodies which bear some sort of resemblance to the human face or forehead. FACE is applied to that part of bodies which gerves as an index or rule, and contains certain marks to direct the observer; FRONT is employed for that part which is most prominent or foremost: hence we speak of the face of a wheel or clock, the face of a paiating, or the face of nature; but the front of a honse or building, and the front of a stage: hence, likewise, the propriety of the expreasiona, to put a good face on a thing, to show a bold front.
A common soldier, a child, a girl, at the door of an inn, have changed the face of fortune, and almost of nature.

Bukie.
Where the deep trench in length extended lay, Compacted troops stand wedg'd in firm array, A dreadful front.

Pope.

## FACE, COUNTENANCE, VISAGE.

FACE, in Latin facies, from facio, to make, signifies the whole form or make. COUNTENANCE, in French contenance, from the Latin contineo, signifies the contenta, or what is contained in the face. VISAGE, from viso and video, to see, signifies the particular form of the face as it presents itself to view ; properly speaking, a kind of countenance. The face consists of a certain set of features; the countenance consists of the general aggregate of looks produced by the mind upon the features; the visage consiata of the whole assemblage of features and looks in particular cases: the face is the work of nature ; the countenance and visage are the work of the mind: the face remains the same, but the countenance and visage are changeable.
No part of the body besides the face is capable of as many changes as there are different emotions in the mind, and of expressing them all by those changes.

Hegers.
As the oountenance admits of so great variety, it requires also great judgment to govern it.

Huobrs.
A sudden trembling seized on all his limbs; His eyes distorted grew, his visage pale; His speech forsook him.

OTway.
The face properly belongs to brutes as well as men, the countenance is the peculiar property of man, although sometimes applied to the brutes; the visage is pe-
culiarly applicable to superior beings: the last term is employed only in the grave or lofty style.

> Awhile they mns'd ; surveying every face Thon hadst suppos'd them of superior race, Their periwigs of wool, and fears combin'd, Stamp'd on each coumtenance such marks of mind.
> Get you gone, CowPER.
> Put on a most importunate aspect,

A visage of demand.
Shakgpeare.

## FACETLOUS, CONVERSABLE, PLEAS-

 ANT, JOCULAR, JOCOSE.All these epithets designate that companionable quality which consists in liveliness of speech. FACETIOUS, in Latin facetus, may probably come from for, to speak, denoting the versatility with which a person makes use of his words. CONVERSABLE is literally able to hold a conversation. PLEASANT (v. Agreeable) signifies making ourselves pleasant with others, or them pleased with us. JOCULAR signifies after the manner of a joke; JOCOSE, using or having jokes.

Facetious may be employed either for writing or eonversation; the rest only in conversation: the facetious man deals in that kind of discourse which may excite laughter; a conversable man may instruct as well as amuse; the pleasant man says everything in a pleasant manner; his pleasantry even on the most delicate subject is without offence: the person speaking is jocose; the thing said, or the manner of saying it, is jocular; it is not for any one to be always jocose, although sometimes one may assume a jocular air when we are not at liberty to be serious. A man is facetious from humor; he is conversable by means of information; he indulges himself in occasional pleasantry, or allows himself to be jocose, in order to enliven conversation; a useful hint is sometimes conveyed in jocular terms.

I have written notbing since I published, except a certain facetioua history of John Gilpin.

Cowper.
But here my lady will object,
Yoar intervals of time to spend, With so oonversible a friend,
It wonld not signify a pin
Whatever climate you were in.
Swift.
Aristophanes wrote to please the multitude; his plaanantries are coarse and unpolite.

Warton.

Thus Venus sports;
When cruelly jocose,
She ties the fatal noose,
And binds unequals to the brazen yokes.
Caesom
Pope sometimes condescended to be focular with servants or inferiors.

Joinson.

## faction, party.

These two words equally suppose the union of many persons, and their opposition to certain views different from their own: but FACTION, from factio, making, denotes an activity and secret machination against those whose views are opposed; and PARTY, from the verh to part or split, expresses only a division of opinion.

The term party has of itself nothing odious, that of faction is always so: any man, without distinction of rank, may have a party either at court or in the army, in the city, or in literature, without being himself immediately implicated in raising it; but factions are always the result of active efforts: one may have a party for one's merit, from the number and ardor of one's friends; but a faction is raised by busy and turbulent spirits for their own purposes: Rome was torn by the intestine factions of Cæsar and Pompey. Faction is the demon of discord, armed with the power to do endless mischief, and intent alone on destroying whatever opposes its progress; woe to that state into which it has found an entrance: party spirit may show itself in noisy debate; but while it keeps within the legitimate bounds of opposition, it is an evil that must be endured.

> It is the restless ambition of a few artful men that thus breaks a people into faetions, and draws several well-meaning persons to their interest by a specious concern for their country.
> Annison.
> As men formerly became eminent in learned societies by their parts and acquisitions, they now distinguish wemselves by the warmoth and violence with which they espouse their respective parties.
> ADnison.

## FACTIOUS, SEDITIOUS.

FACTIOUS, in Latin factiosus, from facio, to do, signifies the same as busy or intermeddling; ready to take an active part in matters not of one's own immediate concern. SEDITIOUS, in Latin seditiosus, signifies prone to sedition (v. Insurrection).

Factions is an epithet to characterize the tempers of men; seditious characterizes their conduct; the factious man attempts to raise bimself into importance, he aims at authority, and seeks to interfere $\ln$ the measures of government; the seditious man attempts to excite otbers, and to provoke their resistance to established authority : the first wants to be a law-giver; the second does not hesitate to be a law-breaker: the first wants to direct the state; the second to overturn it: the factious man is mostly in possession of either power, rank, or fortune; the seditious man is seldom elevated in station or circumstances above the mass of the people. The Roman tribunes were in general little better than factious demagogues; such, in fact, as abound in all republics: Wat Tyler was a seditious disturber of the peace. Factions is mostly applied to individuals; seditious is employed for bodies of men: hence we speak of a factious nohleman, a seditious multitude.

Pope lived at this time (in 1799) among the great with that reception and respect to which his works entitled him, snd which he had not impaired by suy privste misconduct of factious partiality.

JOHNBON.
France is considered (hy the ministry) as merely \& foreign power, and the seditious English only as a domestic faction.

BcaEe.

## FACTOR, AGENT.

Thovar hoth these terms, according to thelr orlgin, imply a maker or doer, yet, at present, they have a distinct signification; tbe word FACTOR is used in a limited, and the word AGENT in a general sense: the factor only buys and sells on the account of others; the agent transacts every sort of business in general: merchants and manufaoturers employ factors abroad to dispose of goods transnitted; lawyers are frequently employed as agents in the receipt and payment of money, the transfer of estates, and various other pecuniary concerns.

Thely (the Puritans) devotion served all aleng pat as an instrument to their avarice, as a foctor or under-agent to their extortion.

Sovth.
No expectations, Indeed, were then formed from renewing a direct spplication to the French regicides, throngh the agent-genersl, for the hamillition of sovereigns.

Borke.

TO EAIL, FALL SHORT, BEL DRFICIKATS
FAIL, in French faillir, German, etc., fehlen, like the word fall, and the Latin fallo, to deceive, comes from the Hebrew repal, to fall or decay. To fail marks the result of actions or efforts; a person fails in his undertaking: FALL SHORT designates elther the result of actions or the state of things; a person falls shont in bis calculation or in his account; the issue falls shart of the expectation: to BE DEFICIENT marks only the state or quality of objects; a person is deficient in good manners. People frequently fail in their best endeavors for want of knowing how to apply their abilities; when our expectations are immoderate, it is not surprising if our success falls short of our hopes and wishes: there is nothing in which people discover themselves to be more deficient than in keeping ordinary engagements. To fail and be deficient are both applicable to the characters of men; but the former is mostly employed for the moral conduct, the latter for the outward behavior; bence a man is caid to fail in his duty, in the discharge of his obligations, in the performance of a promise, and the like: hut to be deficient in politeness, in atten. tion to his friends, in his address, in his manner of entering a room, and the like.
I world not williagly langh, but jastraet ; or if I sometimes fail in this point, when my mirth ceases to be instructive, it shall dever cease to be innocent.

Addison.
There is not, in my opinion, anything more mysterious in nature than this instinct in snimals, which thus rises above reason, and falls infinitely short of it.

ADDIBON.
While all creation speaks the pow'r divine,
Is it deficient in the msin dosign? Jenyms.

## failure, failing.

FAILURE (v. To fail) bespeaks the action, or the result of the action; a FAILING is the hahit, or the habitual faiture: the former is sald of our undertakings, the latter of our moral character. Failure is opposed to success; a failing to a perfection. The merchant must be prepared for failures in his specvlations; the statesman for failurer in his projects; the result of which depends upon contingencies that are above human control. With our failings, howr

## FAIR

cver, it is somewhat different; we must | never rest catisfied that we are withont them, nor contented with the mere consciousaess that we have them.

> The free toanner in which people of quality are discanrsed on at anch meetinge i, but a just reproach of their failures in this kind in payment).

> STEELE.
> There is scarcely any failing of mind or body Which, instead of producing shame and discontolit, its natural effects, has not ohe time or other gladtened vanity with the tope of proise.

Jonnson.

## Fallure, miscarriage, abortion.

FAILURE (v. To fail) has always a reference to the agent and his design; MISCARRIAGE, that is, the carrying or going wrong, is applicable to all anblunary concerns, without reference to any partieular agent; ABORTION, from the Latin aborior, to deviate from the rise, or to pass away before it be come to maturity, is in the proper sense applied to the proccess of animal nature, and in the figurative sense to the thoughts and designs which are conceired in the mind.

Failure is more definite in its aignification, and limited in its application; we speak of the failures of individuals, but of the miscarriages of nations or things: a failure reflects on the person so as to excite toward him some aentiment, either of compassion, displeasure, or the like; a miscarriage is considered mostly in relation to the course of human events: hence the failure of Xerxes's expedition reflected disgrace upon himself; but the miscarriage of military enterprises in general are attributable to the elemente, or some such untoward circumstance. The abortion, in its proper aense, is a species of miscarriage; and in application a apecies of failure, as it applies only to the designs of conscious agents; but it doea not carry the mind back to the agent, for we apeak of the abortion of a scheme with as little reference to the schemer, as when we speak of the miscarriage of an expedition.

He that attempts to show, however modesthy, the failures of a celebrated writer, shall sarely irritate his admirers.

Joanson.
The miscarmiapes of the great designs of princes are recorded in the histories of the world. Jonnson.
All abortion in from infrinity and defect.
Soctic.

## FAINT, LANGUID.

FANT, from the French faner, to fade signifies that which is faded or whthered which has lost its apirit. LANGUID, in Latin languidus, from larigueo, to lan. guish, aignifies languished.

Faint is less than lanuuid; faintness is in fact, in the phyaical application, tha commencefnent of languor; we may be faint for a ahort time, and if continued and extended through the limbs it becomes langror; thus we say, to apeak with a faint tone, and have a languid frame. In the figurative application, to make a faint resistance, to move with a languid air: to form a faint idea, to make a lanyuid effort.

## Low the woods

Bow their hoar head : and here the languid sun, Faint from the west, emits his evening riy.

Trionson.

## FAIR, CLEAR.

FAIR, in Saxon feger, is probably connected with the German fegen, to sweep or make clear. CLEAR, ${ }^{2}$. Clear, bright.

Fair is used in a positive sense; dear in a negative sense : there must be some brightness in what is fair ; there must be no apots in what is clear. The weather is said to be fair, which is not only free from what is disagreeable, but somewhat enlivened by the sun; it is cleat when it is free from clouds or mista. A fair skin approaches to white; a clear skin is without apots or irregularities.
His fair large front, and eyes snblime, declar*a Absolnte rule.

Milon

## I thither went

With nexperienced thought, and laid me dowin On the green bank, to look into the clear Sinooth lake.

Mintos.
In the moral application, a fair farne apeaks mucb in praise of a man; a cleat reputation is free from faults. A fair statement contains everything that can be said pro and con; a clear statement is free from ambiguity or obscurity. Fairness is something desirable and inviting; clearness is an absolute requisite, it cannot be dispensed with.
In the year of his Majesty's happy restoration the first play I nudertook was the Dake of Gnise, as the fairest way which the act of indemnity has left us, of setting forth the rise of the late rebellion.

Detiden.
The king was known to the last to have had a clear opinion of his affection and integitity.

Cramendon:

## FAITH

fair, honest, equitable, reasonaBLE.
FAIR, v. Fair, clear. HONEST, in Latin honestus, comes from honos, honor. EQUITABLE signifies having equity, or according to equity. REASONABLE sig. nifies having receson, or according to reason.

Fair is said of persons or things; honest mostly characterizes the person, either as to his conduct or his principle. When fair and honest are both applied to the external conduct, the former expresses more than the latter: a man may be honest without being fair ; he cannot be fair without being honest. Fairness enters into every minute circumstance connected with the interests of the parties, and weighs them alike for both; honesty is contented with a literal conformity to the law, it consults the interest of one party: the fair dealer looks to his neighbor as well as himself, he wishes only for au equal share of advantage; a man may be an honest dealer while he looks to no one's advantage but his own: the fair man always acts from a principle of right; the honest man may be so from a motive of fear.

If the worldling prefer those means which are the fairest, it is not because they are fair, but becanse they seem to him most likely to prove successful.

Blail.
Should he at length, ao truly good and great, Prevail, and rule with honest views the state, Then muat he toil for an ungrateful race, Submit to clamor, libels, and disgrace. Jenyna.

When fair is employed as an epithet to qualify things, or to designate their nature, it approaches very near in signification to equitable and reasonable; they are all opposed to what is unjust : fair and equitable suppose two objects put in collision; reasonable is employed abstractedly; what is fair and equitable is so in relation to all circumstances; what is reasonable is so of itself. An estimate is fair in which profit and loss, merit and demerit, with every collateral circumstance, is duly weighed; a judgment is equitable which decides suitably and advantageously for hoth parties; a price is reasonable which does not exceed the limits of reason or propriety. A decision may be either fair or equitable; but the former ta said mostly in regard to trifling mat-
ters, even in our games and amusements, and the latter in regard to the important rights of mankind. It is the business of the umpire to decide fairly between the combatants, or the competitors for a prize; it is the business of the judge to decide equitably between men whose property is at issue. A demand, a charge, a proposition, or an offer, may be said to be either fair or reasonable: but the former term always bears a relation to what is right between man and man; the latter to what is right in itself according to circumstances.
A lawyer's dealings should be just and fair, Honesty shines with great advantage there.

Cowper
A man is very pnlikely to jndge equitably when his pasaions are agitated by a sense of wrong. Johnaon.
The reasonableness of a test is not hard to be proved.

Johnson.
FAITH, CREED.
FAITH (v. Belief) denotes either the principle of trusting, or the thing trusted. OREED, from the Latin credo, to believe, denotes the thing believed.

These words are synonymous when taken for the thing trusted in or believed; but they differ in this, that faith has always a reference to the principle in the mind; creed only respects the thing which is the object of faith: faith is the general and creed the particular term, for a creed is a set form of faith: heuce we say, to he of the same faith, or to adopt the same creed. The holy martyrs died for the faith, as it is in Christ Jesus; every established form of religion will have its peculiar creed. The Church of England has adopted that creed which it con. siders as containing the purest principles of Christian faith.

St. Panl affirms, that a sinner is at flrst jnsth. fled and received into the favor of God, by sincere profession of the Christian faith.

TmLotson.
Supposing all the great points of atheisin were formed into a kind of oreed, I wonld fain ask whether it would not require an infinitely greater measure of faith than any set of articles which they so violently oppose?

ADDISON.

## FAITH, FIDELITY.

Thovgh derived from the same source (v. Belief), they differ widely in meaning: FAITH here denotes a mode of action
namely, in acting true to the faith which others repose in us; FIDELITTY, a disposition of the mind to adhere to that faith which others repose in us. We keep our faith, we show our fidelity. Faith is a public concern, it depends on promises; fidelity is a private or personal concern, it depends upon relationships and connections. A breach of faith is a crime that brings a stain on a nation, for faith ought to be kept even with an enemy. A breach of fidelity attaches disgrace to the individual; for fidelity is due from a suhject to a prince, or from a servant to his master, or from married people one to another. No treaty can be made with him who will keep no faith; no confidence can be placed in him who discovers no fidelity. The Danes kept no faith with the English; fashionable husbands and wives in the present day seem to think there is no fidelity due to each other.

The pit resounds with shrieks, a war succeeds For breach of public faith and unexampled deeds. Dryden.
When one hears of Negroes who upon the death of their masters hang themselves upon the next tree, who can forbear admiring their fidelity, thongh it expresses itself in so dreadful a manner?

Adpison.

## FAITHEUL, TRUSTY.

FAITHFUL signifies full of faith or fidelity (v. Faith, fidelity). TROSTTY signifies fit or worthy to be trusted (v. Belief).

Faithful respects the principle altogether; it is suited to all relations and stations, public and private: trusty includes not only the principle, but the mental qualifications in general; it applies to those in whom particular trust is to be placed. It is the part of a Christian to be faithful to all his engagements; it is a particular excellence in a servant to be trusty.

What we hear, With weaker passion will affect the beart, Than when the faithful eye beholds the part.

Francis.
The steads they left their trusty servants hold.
Pope.
Faithful is applied in the improper sense to an unconscious agent; trusty. may be applied with equal propriety to things as to persons. We may speak of a faithful saying, or a faithful picture; a trusty sword, or a trusty weapon.

Though the generality of painters at that time were notequal to the subjects on which they were employed, yet they were close imitators of nature, and have perhaps transmitted more faithful representations than we could have expected from men of hrighter imaginations.

Walpole.
He took the quiver and the trusty bow
Achates used to hear.
Dryden.

## FAITHLESS, UNFAITHFUL.

FAITHLESS is mostly employed to donote a breach of faith; and UNFATTH. FUL to mark the want of fidelity ( $v$. Faith, fidelity). The former is positive; the latter is rather negative, implying a deficiency. A prince, a government, a people, or an individual, is said to be faithless; a husband, a wife, a servant, or any individual, unfaithful. Mettus Fuffetius, the Alban Dictator, was faithless to the Roman people when he withheld his assistance in the battle, and strove to go over to the enemy: a man is unfaithful to his employer who sees him injured by others without doing his utmost to prevent it. A woman is faithless to her husband who breaks the marriage vow; she is unfaithful to him when she does not discharge the duties of a wife to the best of her abilities.
The sire of men and monarch of the aky Th' advice approv'd, and bade Minerva fly, Dissolve the league, and all her arts employ To make the breach the faithless act of Troy.

At length ripe vengeance o'er their head impends, But Jove himself the faithless race defends.

Pope.
If e'er with life I quit the Trojan plain, If e'er I see my sire and spouse again, This how, unfaithful to my glorious aims, Broke by my hand, shall feed the blazing flames. Pope.

FAITHLESS, PERFIDIOUS, TREACHEROUS.
FAITHLESS ( $v$. Faithless) is the generic term, the rest are specific terms, a breach of good faith is expressed by them all, but faithless expresses no more: the others include accessory ideas in their signification. PERFIDIOUS, in Latin perfidiosus, signifies literally breaking through faith in a great degree, and now implies the addition of hostility to the breach of faith. TREACHEROUS, most probably changed from traitorous, comes from the Latin trado, to betray, and sig. nifies one species of active hostile breach of faith.

A faithless man is faithless only for his own interest ; a perfidious man ia expresaly a to the injury of another. A friend ia faithless who consulta his own safety in time of need; he is perfdious if he profita by the confidence reposed in him to plot mlechief against the one to whom he haa made vaws of friendghip. Faithlessness does not suppose any particular efforts to deoeive: it consista of merely violating that faith which the relation producea; perfidy is never so complete as when it has most effectually assumed the mask of aincerity.

> Old Priam, fearful of the war's event, This hapless Polydore to Thracia sent, From noise and tumnlts, and destructive war, Committed to the faithless tyrant's care.

DRYDEX.
When a friend is turned into an enemy, the world is just enough to accuse the perfidiousness of the friend, rather than the indiscretion of the person who conflded in him. ADDIson.
Perfdy may lie in the will to do; reachery liea altogether in the thing done; one may therefore be perfdious without being treacherous. A friend is perfidious whenever he evinces his perfiay; but he ia aaid to be treacherous only in the particular instance in which he betrays the confidence and interesta of another. I detect a man's perfidy, or his pexfuctious aima, by the manner in which he attempts to draw my eecreta from me; I am not made acquainted with hia treachery until I discover that my confidence is hetrayed and my secreta are divulged. On the other hand, we may be treacherous without being perfidious, Perfudy is an offence mostly between individuals; it is rather a breach of fidelity ( $v$. Faith, fidelity) than of faith; treachery, on the other hand, includes breachee of private or public faith. A eervant may be both perfidious and treacherous to his master; a citizen may be treacherous, but not perfidious, toward hia country. It is aaid that in the South Sea Ialands, when a ohief wants a human victim, their offlcers will sometimes invite their friends or refations to come to them, when they take the opportunity of auddenly falling upen them and deapatching them ; here ia perfidy in the individual who acts this falae part, and treachery in the act of betraying him who is murdered. When the school-master of Falerii delivered his
scholars to Camillus, he was gullty of treachery in the act, and of perfidy toward thoae whu had reposed confidence in him. When Romulus ardered the Slabine women to he aeized, it was an act of treachery, but not of perfidy; a0, in like manner, when the daughter of Tarpeius opened the gatea of the Roman oitadel to the enemy.
Shall, then, the Grecians fly, on dire disgrace : And leave unpunish'd this perfidious race?

Pops
And had not Heay'n the fall of Troy design'd, Enough was said and done t' inspire a better mind;
Then had our lances pierc'd the treach'rous wood,
And Ilian towers, and Priam’a empire, stood.
Driden.
FALL, DOWNFALL, RUIN.
FALL and DOWNFALL, from the German fallen, has the aame derivation as fail (v. To fail). RUIN, $v$. Destruction.

Whether applied to phyaical abjects or the condition of persona, fall expresaes less than downfall, and this lesa than ruin, Fall applies to that which ia ereet ; downfall to that which is elevated: ev* erything which is aet up, although as trifing as a stick, may have a fall; but we apeak of the downfall of the loftiest treea or the tallest apires. A fall may be attended with more or leas pischief or even with none at all; but doonfall, and ruin are accompanied with the dis. golution of the bodies that fall. The higher a body is raised, and the greater the art that is employed in the atructure, the completer the doronfall; the great. er the atructure, the more extended the ruin, In the figurative application we may speak of the forl of man from 4 ptate of innocence, a state of ease or a state of prosperity, or hia dounfall from greatness or high rank. He may recov, er from his fall, but his downfall ie commonly fellowed by the entire ruin of his concerns, and often of himself. The fall of kingdoms, and the downfall of empires, must always be succeeded by their ruin as an inevitable result. The fall of kings,
The rage of nations, and the crush of states Move not the man who, from the world escap'd, To Nature's voice attends.

Adpison.
Histories of the dounfall of empires are yead with tranquility,

JPANG日M

Old age seikes upon an tll-spent youth like fire tupofi a fotton house; it was rotten before, and mist have fallen of ltself; so that it is no more than one ruin preventiog another.

South.
TO FALL, DROP, DROOP, GINK, TUMBLE.
FALL, v. Fall. DROP and DROOP, in German tropfen, low German, etc., druppen, is an onomatopceia of the falling of a drop. SINK, in German sinken, is an intensive of siegen, to incline downward. TUMBLE, in German tummeln, is an intensive of taumeln, to reel backward and forward.

Fall is the generic, the rest specific terms: to drop is to fall suddenly, and mostly in the form of a drop; to droop is to drop in part; to sink is to jall gradually; to tumble is to fall awkwardly, or contrary to the usual mode. In cataracts the water falls perpetually and in a mass : in rain it drops partially; in ponds the water $\sin k$ low. The head droops, brit the body may fall or drop from a height, it may $\operatorname{sink}$ down to the earth, it may tumblè by accídent.
Yet come it will, the day decreed by fates,
(How my heart trembles whila my tongne relates !)
The day when thou, Imperial Troy 1 must bend, And see thy warriors fall and glories end.

Pope.
The wounded bird, ere yet she breathed her last, With flagging wings alighted on the mast, A inoment hung, and apread her plulons there, Then sudden $d r o p t$ and left her life in air. .

Pope.
Thrica Dido tried to raise her drodping head, And faiating, thrice foll grovilling on the bed.

Dryden.
Down sunk the priest; the purple hand of death Clos'd his dim oye, and fate suppress'd his breath.

Pope.
Full on his ankle dropt the pond'rous atone,
Barst the strong norves, aod crush'd the golid bone;
Supine he tumbles on the crimson'd sanda.
Pope.
Fall, drop, and sink are extended in their application to moral or other objects; droop and tumble in the physical sense. A person falls from a state of prosperity; words drop from the lips, and sink into the heart. Corn, or the price of corn, falls; a subject drops; a person sinks into poverty or in the estimation of the world.
The third day comes a frost a killing frost,
And when he thinks, good easy man, foll surely His greatmess is a rlpening, thips his shoot, And then he falla ms Ido.

Shakspeane.

I must take notice here of our archhishop's care for a parish church in his province being in danger of dropping down for want of reparation.

Strypz.
How many $\sin k$ in the tevouring flood
Or more devouring flame!
Thomanan.

## FALLACIOUS, DECEITFUL, FRAUDULENT.

FALLACHOUS comes from the Latin fallax and fallo, to deceive, signifying. the property of misleading. DECEITFUL, v. To deecive. FRAUDULENT signifies after the manner of a fraud.
The fallacious has respect to falsehood in opiniot ; deceitful to that which is cxternally false: our hopes are often fallacious; the appearances of things are often deceitful. Fallacious, as characteristic of the mind, excludes the idea of design ; deceitful excludes the idea of mistalke; frdudulent is a gross species of the deceitful. It is a fallacions idea for any bre to lmagine that the faults of others can serve as any extenuation of his own; $\mathrm{i}+$ is a deceitful mode of acting for any one to advise another to do that which he would not do himself; it is fraudulenl to attempt to get money by means of a falsehood.
Bnt when Ulysses, with fallacious arts, Had made impression on the people's liearts, And forg'd a treason in my patron's name, My kingman fell.

DRyDEN.
Such is the power which the sophistry of selflove exercises over us, that almost every one may be assurred he measures himself by a deceitful acale.

Blain.
III-fated Paris 1 slave to womaokind,
As smooth of face ds fraudulent of mind.
Pope.

## FALLACY, DELUSION, ILLUSION.

The Fallacy ( $\%$. Fallacious) is that which has the tendency to deceive; the DELUSION ( $v$. To deceive) is that which deludes, or the state of being deluded; the ILLUSION is that which has the power of illuding or sporting with the mind, or the state of being so played upen. We endeavor to detect the fallacy which lies concealed in a proposition: we endeavor to remove the dellusion to which the judgment bas been exposed, and to dissipate the illusion to which the senses or fancy are liable.
In all the reasonings of freethinkers there are fallacies against which the ig-
norant cannot always be on their guard. The ignorant are perpetually exposed to delusions when they attempt to speculate on matters of opinion. The ideas of ghosts and apparitions are mostly attributable to the illusions of the senses and the imagination.

There is, indeed, no transaction which offers stronger temptations to fullacy and sophistication than epistolary intercourse. Jounson.

## As when a wandering fire,

Hovering and blazing with delusive light,
Misleads th' amaz'd night-wanderer from his way.

Milton.
Fame, glory, wealth, honor, have in tbe prospect pleasing illusions.

Steele.

## FAME, REPUTATION, RENOWN.

FAME (from the Greek $\phi \eta \mu$, to say) is the most noisy and uncertain; it rests upon report: REPUTATION (v. Character, reputation) is silent and solid; it lies more in the thoughts, and is derived from obscrvation. RENOWN, in French renommée, from nom, a name, signifies the reverberation of a name; it is as loud as fame, but more substantial and better founded: hence we say that a person's fame is gone abroad; his reputation is established; and be has got renown.

Europe with Afric in his fame shall join,
But neither shore his conquests shall confine.
Dryoen.
Pope doubtless approached Addison, when the reputation of their wit first brought them together, with the respect due to a man whose abilities were acknowledged.

Johnson.
How doth it please and fill the memory
With deeds of brave renown, while on each hand Historic urns and breathing statues rise, And speaking busts.

Dyer.
Fame may be applied to any object, good, bad, or indifferent; reputation is applied only to real eminence in some department; renown is employed only for extraordinary men and brilliant exploits. The fame of a quack may be spread among the ignorant multitude by means of a lucky cure; the reputation of a physician rests upon his tried skill and known experience; the renown of a general is proportioned to the magnitude of his achievements.

Fame is like a river that beareth up things that are light and airy, and drowneth things weighty and solid.
bacon.

The flrst degiee of literary reputation ls certainly due to him who adorna or improves his country by original writings.

Jonsson.
Well-constituted governments have always made the profeasion of a physician both honerable and advantageous. Homer's Machaon and Virgil's Iapis were men of renown, heroes in war.

Johnson.

## fame, report, rumor, hearsay.

FAME (v. Fame) has a reference to the thing which gives birth to it; it goes about of itself without any apparent instrumentality. REPORT (from re and porto, to carry back, or away from an object) bas always a reference to the reporter. RUMOR, in Latin rumor, from reo, to rush or to flow, has a reference to the flying nature of words that are carried; it is therefore properly a flying report. HEARSAY refers to the receiver of that which is said: it is limited, therefore, to a small number of speakers, or reporters. Fame serves to form or establish a character either of a person or a thing; it will he good or had, according to circumstances; the fame of our Saviour's miracles went ahroad through the land; a report serves to communicate information of events; it may be more or less correct according to the veracity or authenticity of the reporte.; reports of victories mostly precede the official confirmation: a mumor serves the purposes of fiction; it is more or less vague, according to the temper of the times and the nature of the events; every hattle gives rise to a thousand rumors: the hearsay serves for information or instruction, and is seldom so incorrect as it is familiar.
Space may produce new worlds, whereof so rife, There went a fame in hear'n, that he ere long Intended to create.

Muton.
What liberties any man may take in imputing words to me which I never spoke, and what credit Casar may give to such reports, these are points for which it is by no means in my power to be answerable. Melmoth's Letters of Ciceao.

For which of you will stop
The vent of hearing, when loud rumor
Shafspeatb.
What influence can a mother have over a daughter, from whose example the daughter can only have hearsay beneftis ?

Richardion.

## family, house, LINEAGE, RACE.

Divisions of men, according to some rule of relationship or connection, is the
common idea in these terms. FAMILY is the most general in its import, from the Latin familia, a family, famulus, a servant, in Greek $o \mu c \lambda t a$, an assembly, and the Hebrew omal, to labor; it is applicable to those who are bound together upon the principle of dependence. HOUSE figuratively denotes those who live in the same house, and is commonly extended in its signification to all that passes under the same roof: hence we rather say that a woman manages her family; that a man rules bis house. The family is considered as to its relationships; the number, union, condition, and quality of its memhers : the house is considered more as to what is transacted within its walls. We speak of a numerous family, a united or affectionate family; a mercantile house, and the house (meaning the members of the House of Parliament). If a man cannot find happiness in the bosom of his fami$l y$, he will seek for it in vain elsewhere: the credit of a house is to be kept up only by prompt payments.

To live in a famely where there is but one heart and as many good atrong heads as persona, and to have a place in that enlarged single heart, is such a atate of happiness as I cannot hear of without feeling the utmost pleasure. Fielinno.

They two together rule the house. The house I call here the man, the woman, their children, and their servants.

Smith.
In an extended application of these words they are made to designate the quality of the individual, in which case family bears the same familiar and indiscriminate sense as before: house is employed as a term of grandeur. When we consider the family in its domestic relations, in its habits, manners, connections, and circumstances, we speak of a genteel family, a respectable family, the royal family: but when we consider it with regard to its political and civil distinctions, its titles and its power, then we denominate it a house, as an illustrious house ; the House of Bourbon, of Brunswick, or of Hanover; the imperial House of Austria. Any subject may belong to an ancient or noble family: princes are said to be descended from ancient houses. A man is said to be of family or of no fami$l y$ : we may say likewise that he is of a certain house; but to say that he is of no house would be superfluous. In republics
there are families, but not houses, because there is no nobility; in China, likewise, where the private virtues only distinguish the individual or his family, the term house is altogether inapplicable.

## An empty man of a great family is a creature that is scarce conversable. AdDison.

By the quarrels begun upon personal titlea between Stephen and Maud, and the Housbs of York and Lancaster, etc., the people got nothing by the victory, which way soever it fell.

Sidney.
Family includes in it every circumstance of connection and relationship; LINEAGE respects only consanguinity: family is employed mostly for those who are coeval; lineage is generally used for those who have gone before. When the Athenian general Iphicrates, son of a shoemaker, was reproached by Harmodius with bis birth, he said, I had rather be the first than the last of my family: David was of the lineage of Abraham, and our Saviour was of the lineage of David. RACE, from the Latin radix, a root, denotes the origin, or that which constitutes the original point of resemblance. A family supposes the closest alliance; a race suppposes no closer connection than what a common property creates. Family is confined to a comparatively small number; race is a term of extensive import, including all mankind, as the human race; or particular nations, as the race of South Sea Islanders; or a particular family, as the race of the Heraclides: from Hercules sprang a race of beroes.

A nation properly signifies a great number of families derived from the same blood, born in the same conntry, and living under the same government and civil constitutions.

TEMPLE.
We want not cities, nor Sicilian coasta, Where King Acestes Trojan lineage boasts.

Derpen.
Nor knows our youth of noblest race,
To mount the manag'd ateed or urge the chase; More skill'd in the mean arts of vice, The whirling troque or law-forbidden dice.

Francib.
famous, celebrated, renowned, ILLUSTRIOUS.
FAMOUS signifies literally baving fame or the cause of fame; it is applicable to that which causes a noise or sensation; to that which is talked of, written upon, discussed, and thought of; to that which is reported of far and near ; to that which
is circulated among all ranka and orders of men. OELEBRATED signifies literal. ly kept in the memory by a celearatian or memorial, and is applicable to that which is praised and honored with solemnity. RENOWNED signifies literally possessed of a name, and is applicable to whatever extends the name, or causes the name to be often repeated. ILLUSTRIOUS sigmi, fies literally what has or gives a lustre: it is applicable to whatever confers dignity.

Famons is a term of indefinite import; it conveys of itself frequently neither honor nor dishonor, sinee it is employed indifferently as an epithet for things pralseworthy or otherwise ; it is the only one of these terms which may be used in a bad sense. The others rise in a gradvally good sense. The celebrated is founded upon merlt and the display of talent in the arts and sciences; it gains the subject respect: the renowned is fouoded upon the possession of rare or extraordinary qualities, upon successful exertions and an accordance with public opinion; it brings great honor or glory to the subject: the illustrious is founded upon those solid qualities which not only render one known but distinguished; it insures regard and veneration. A person may be famous for his eccentricities; celebrated as an artist, a writer, or a player; renowned as a warrior or a statesman; illustrious as a prince, a statesman, or a senator. The maid of Orleans, who was decried by the English and idolized by the French, is equally famous in both nations. There are celebrated authors whom to oensure, even in that which is censurable, would endanger one's reputation. The renowned heroes of antiquity have, by the perusal of their exploits, given birth ta a race of modern heroes not inferior to themselves. Princes may shine in their lifetime, but they cannot render themselves illustrious to postcrity except by the monuments of goodness and wisdom which they leave after them.

I thought it an agreeable ehange to have my thoughts diverted from the greatest among the dead and fabulons heroes, to the most'famous among the real and lling,

Whife I was in this learned body I applied myself with so much diligence to my studies, that there are very few celebrated books, either in the learned or modern tongues which I am not acquainted with.

Adpison.

Castor and Pollux first in martial force, One bold on fopt, and one renown'd for horse.

Pope.
The reliefs of the envious man are those little blemisbes that discover themselves in an illuo trious character.

Adpison,

## FANCIFUE, FANTASTICAL, WHIMSICAL, CAPRICIOUS.

FANCIFUL signifies full of fancy ( $u_{1}$ Conceit). FANTASTICAL signifies belonging to the fantasy, which is the immediate derivative from the Greek WHIMSICAL signifies either like a whim, or having a whim, CAPRI CIOUS, having caprice.

Fanciful and fantastical are both employed for persons and things; whimsieal and capricious are mostly emplayed for persons, or what is personal. Fanciful is said of that which is irregular in the taste or judgment; fantastical is said of that which violates all propriety, as well as regularity; the former may consist of a simple deviation from rule; the latter is something extravagant, A person may, therefore, sometimes be advantageonsly fanciful, alth8ugh he can never be fantastical but to his discredit. Lively minds will be faxciful in the choice of their dress, furniture, or equipage: the affectation of singularity frequently renders people fantastical in their manners as well as their dress.
There is something very sublime, though very fanoiful, in Plato's description of the Supreme Being, tbast, "truth is his body, and ligbt his shadow."

Apirson.
Methinks herole peesy, tull now,
Like some fantagtic fairy lqund did show.
Cowley,
Fancíful is said mostly in regard to orrors of opinion of taste; it spring from an aberration of the mind: whim sical is a speoies of the fanciful in re. gard to one's likes or dislikes; capricious respects errors of temper, or irregular. ities of feeling. The fanciful does not necessarily imply instability; but the capricious excludes the idea of fixedness. One is fanciful by attaching a reality to that which only passes in one's own mind; one is whimsical in the inventions of the fancy; one is capricious by acting and judging without rule ar reason in that which admits of both,

The Euglish are naturally fanciful.
APDF89

Tis this exalted power, whose business lies In nonsense and impossibilities: Thls made a whimbioul philosopher Before the spuclous world a tub prefer. Rochestea. Many of the pretended friendshtps of youth are founded on capricious liking.

Blata.

## FANCY, IMAGINATION.

From what has already been said on FANCY (v. Conceit and fanciful), the distinction between it and IMAGINATION, as operations of thought, will be obvious. Fancy, considered as a power, simply brings the object to the mind, or makes it appear; but imagination, from image, in Latin imago, or imitago, or imitatio, is a power which presents the images or likenesses of things. The fancy, therefore, only employs itself about things without regardilng their nature; but the imagination aims at tracing a resemblance, and getting a true copy. The fancy consequently forms combinations, either real or unreal, as chance may direct; but the imagination is seldomer led astray. The faricy is busy in dreame, or when the mind is in a disordered state; but the imagination is supposed to act when the intellectual powers are in fuil play.

There was a certaln lady of thin airy shape, who was very active in this solemnity : her name was F'uncy.

ADDison.
And as imagination bodies forth
The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen Turns them to shape.

Shazspeahe.
The fancy is employed on light and trivial objects, which are present to the senses ; the imagination soars above all vulgar objects, and carries us from the world of matter into the world of spirits, from time present to the time to come.
Philosophy ! I say, and call it Ke;
For whatsoe'er the painter's fancy be, It a male virtue seems to me.

Cowley.
Whatever be his subject, Milton never Palls to fill the imagination.

Johnson.
A milliner or mantua-maker may employ her fancy in the decorations of a cap or gown ; but the poet's imagination depicts everything grand, everything bold, and everything remote.

Does airy fancy cheat
My tinind, well pleas'd with the deceit? Ceeech.
There are forms which naturally create respect In the beholders, and at ence inflame and chasten the imagination.

Steele.

Although Mr. Addison has thought proper, for his convenience, to use the words fancy and imagination promiscuously when writing on this subject, yet the distinction, as above pointed out, has been observed both in familiar dis. course and in writing. We say that we fancy, not that we imagine, that we see or hear something; the pleasures of the imagination, not of the fancy.
Eager be riges, and in fianey bears
The voice celestial murmuriog in his ears.
Pofin.
Grief has a natural eloquence belonging to ith and breaks out in more moving sentiments than can be supplied by the finest imagination.

Adpison.

## FARE, PROVISION.

FARE, from the Germao fahren, to go or be, signifies in general the condition or thing that comes to one. PROVISION, from provide, signifies the thing provided for one.

These terms are alike cmployed for the ordinary concerns of life, and may either be used in the limited sense for the food one procures, or in general for whatever nccessary or convenience is procured: to the term fare is annexed the idea of accident; provision includes that of design : a traveller on the Continent must frequently be contented with bumble fare, unless he has the precaution of carrying his provisions with him.
This night, at least, with me forget your care,
Chestnuts, and curds, and cream, shall be your jàre.

Drtien.
The winged nation wanders through the skies, And g'er the plains and shady forest flies; They breed, they hrood, instruct, and educate, And make provision for the future state.

Ditioen.
FARMER, HUSBANDMAN, AGRICULT-

## URIST.

FARMER, from the Saxon feorm, food, signifies one managing a farm, or cultivating the ground for a subsistence: HUSBANDMAN is one following husbandry, that is, the tillage of land by manual labor; the farmer, therefore, conduots the concern, and the husband man labors under his direction: AGRI CULTURIST, from the Latin ager, a field, and colo, to till, signifies any one engaged in the art of cultivation. The farmer is always a practitioner; the agriculturist may be a mere theorist: the farmer fol

## FATIGUE

lows husbandry solely as a means of living: the agriculturist follows it as a science; the former tills the land upon given admitted priaciples; the latter frames new principles, or alters these that are established. Between the farmor and the agriculturist there is the same difference as between practice and theory: the former may be assisted by the latter, so long as they can go hand in hand; but in the case of a collision, the farmer will be of more service to himself and his country than the agriculturist; farming brings immediate profit from personal service; agriculture may only promise future, and consequently contingent advantages.
To check this plague, the skilful farmer chaff And blazing straw hefore his orchard burns.

Thomson.
An improved and improving agriculture, which implies a great augmentation of labor, has not yet found ifself at a stand.

BUREE.
Old husbandmen I at Sahinum know,
Who, for another year, dig, plough, and sow.
Denham.

## OF FASHION, OF QUALITY, OF DISTINCTION.

These epithets are employed promiscuously in colloquial discourse; but not with strict propriety: by men of fashion are understood such men as live in the fashicnable world, and keep the best company; by men of quality are understood men of rank or title; by men of distinction are understood men of honorable superiority, whether by wealth, office, or pre-eminence in society. Gentry and merchants, though not meu of quality, may, by their mode of living, be men of fashion; and by the office they hold in the state, they may likewise be men of distinction.

The free manner in which people of fashion are disconrsed on at such meetings (of tradespeople) is but a just reproach of their failures in this kind (in payment).

Steele.
The single dress of a lady of quality is often the product of a hundred climes. Andison.
It behooves men of distinction, with their power and example, to preside over the public diversions in such a manner as to check anything that tends to the corruption of manners.

Steele.

## FASTLDIOUS, SQUEAMISH.

FASTIDIOUS, in Latin fastidiosus, from fastus, pride, signifies proudly
nice, oot easily pleased: SQUEAMISH, changed from qualmish or weak-stomached, sigaifies, in the moral sense, foolishly sickly, easily disgusted. A female is fastidious whea she criticises the dress or manners of her rival; she is squeam ish in the choice of her own dress, com: pany, words, etc. Whoever examiaes his own imperfections will cease to be fastidious; whoever restrains humor and caprice will cease to be squeamish.

The perception as well as the senses may be improved to our own disqniet; and we may by diligent cultivation of the powers of dislike raise in time an artificial fastidiousness. Johnson.

Were the fates more kind, Onr narrow luxuries would soon grow stale; Were these exhaustless, nature would grow sick And, cloy'd with pleasure, squeamishly complain
That all is vanity, and life a dream. Armbtrong.
fatigue, weariness, Lassitude.
FATIGUE, from the Latin fatigo, that is, fatim, abundantly or powerfully, and ago, to act, or agito, to agitate, designates an effect from a powerful or stimulating cause. WEARINESS, from weary, a frequentative of wear, marks an effect from a continued or repeated cause. LASSITUDE, from the Latin lassus, changed from laxus, relaxed, marks a state without specifying a cause.

Fatigue is an exhaustion of the animal or mental powers; weariness is a wearing out the strength, or breaking the spirits; lassitude is a general relaxation of the animal frame: the laborer experiences fatigue from the toils of the day; the man of business, who is harassed by the multiplicity and complexity of his concerns, suffers fatigue; and the student, who labors to fit himself for a public exbibition of his acquirements, is in like manner exposed to fatigue: weariness attends the traveller who takes a long or pathless journey; weariness is the lot of the petitioner who attends in the antechamber of a great man; the critic is doomed to suffer weariness, who is obliged to drag through the shallow but voluminous writiags of a dull author. Lassitude is the consequence of a distempered system, sometimes brought on by an excess of fatigue, sometimes by sickness, and frequently by the action of the ex. terual air

## FEAST

One of the amusements of Idleness ls reading without the fatigue of close attention.

Johnson.
For want of a process of avants, neither knowl-- dge nor elegance preserve the reader from weaminesa. JoHNBON.
The cattle in the flelds show evident symptoms of lassitude and diagust in an unpleasant geason.

Cowper.

## FAVORABLE, PROPITIOUS.

In a former paragraph (v. Auspicious) I have shown propitious to be a species of the favorable, namely, the favorable as it springs from the design of an agent; what is propitious, therefore, is always favorable, but not vice versa: the favorable properly characterizes both persons and things; the propitious, in the proper sense, characterizes the person only: as applied to persons, an equal may be $f a$ vorable; a superior only is propitious: the one may be favorable only in inclination; the latter is favorable also in granting timely assistance. Cato was favorable to Pompey; the gods were propitious to the Greeks: we may all wish to have our friends favorable to our projects; none but heathens expect to have a blind destiny propitious. In the improper sense, propitious may be applied to things with a similar distinction: whatever is well-disposed to us, and seconds our endeavors, or serves our purpose, is favorable; whatever efficaciously protects us, speeds our exertions, and decides our success, is propitious to us : on ordinary occasions, a wind is said to be favorable which carries us to the end of our voyage; but it is said to be propitious if the rapidity of our passage forwards any great purpose of our own.

Yon have, indeed, evary favorable circumstance for your advaucemant that can be wished.

Melmoti'a Letters of Ciceao.
But all ! what use of valor can be made,
When Heaven'a propitioua powers refuse their sid?

Dayden.
FEARFUL, DREADFUL, FRIGHTFUL, TREMENDOUS, TERRIBLE, TERRIFIC, HORRIBLE, HORRID.
FEARFUL here signifies full of that which causes fear (v. Alarm) ; DREADFUL, full of what causes dread (v. Apprehension) ; FRIGHTFUL, full of what causes fright (v. Afraid) or apprehension; TREMMNDOUS, that which causes trem-
bling; TERRIBLE, or TERRLEIC, caus ing terror (v. Alarm) ; HORRIBLE, or HORRID, causing horror. The application of these terms is easily to be discov. ered by these definitions: the first two affect the mind more than the senses; all the others affect the senses more than the mind : a contest is fearful when the issue is important, but the event doubtful; the thought of death is dreadful to one who feels himself unprepared. The frightful is less than the tremendous; the tremendous than the tervible; the terrible than the horrible: shrieks may be frightful; thunder and lightning may be tremendous; the roaring of a lion is terrible; the glare of his eye terrific; the actual spectacle of killing is horrible or horrid. In their general application, these terms are often employed promiscuously to characterize whatever produces very strong impressions : hence we may speak of a frightful, dreadful, terrible, or horrid dream; or frightful, dreadful, or terrible tempest ; dreadful, terrible, or horrid consequences.
She wept the terrors of the foarful wave,
Too oft, alas ! the wandering lover'a grave.
Falcones.
And dar'at thou threat to anatch my prize away, Due to the deeds of many a dreadful day ?

Pope.
Frightful convulsions writh'd his tortur'd limbs. Fenton.
Out of the limh of the murdered monarohy has arisen a vast, tramendous, unformed spectre, in a far more terrific guise than any which ever yet overpowered the imagination of man.

Borke.
Deck'd in sad trimmph for the monrnful field, O'ar her broad ahonlders hangs hia horrid ahield.

Pope
FEAST, BANQUET, CAROUSAL, ENTERTAINMENT, TREAT.
As FEASTS, in the religious sense, from festus, are always days of leisure, and frequently of public rejoicing, this word has been applied to any social meal for the purposes of pleasure: this is the idea common to the signification of all these words, of which feast seems to be the most general ; and for all of which it may frequently be substitutcd, although they have each a distinct application : feast conveys the idea merely of enjoyment : BANQUET is a splendid feast, attended with pomp and state ; it is a term
of noble use, particularly adapted to poetry and the high atyle: CAROUSAL, in French carrousse, in German geräusoh or rausch, intoxication, from rauschen, to intoxicate, is a drunken feast: ENTERTAINMENT and TREAT oonvey the idea of haspitality.

New parple hengings clothe the palace walls, And sumptuons feasts are made in splendid halls.' DRyden.
With hymns divine the joyous banquet ends, The preans lengthen'd till the sun descends.

Pope.
This game, these oarousals, Ascanlus tangat, And, building Alba, to the Latins brought.

Dryden.
I could not bat smile at the acconnt that was yesterday given me of a modest young gentlemen, who, being invited to en entertainment, thoogh he was not used to drink, had not the confldence to refuse his glass in his turn.

Addison.
I do not iosist that you spread your table with so unbounded a profusion as to furnish qut a splendid treat with the remains.

Melmota's Lextepas of Cicepo.
Feast, entertainment, and treat are taken in a more extended sense, to express other pleasures besides thase of the tahle: feast retaina ita signification of a vivid pleasure, such as voluptuarles derive from delicious viands; entertainment and treat retain the idea of being granted by way of courtesy: we apeak of a thing as being a feast or high delight; and of a person contributing to one's entertaiament, or giving one a treat. To a benevoient mind the spectacle of an afflicted man relieved and comforted is a feast; to a mind ardent in the pursuit of knowledge, an easy access to a well-stecked library is a continual feast: men of a happy temper give and receive entertainment with equai faciiity; they afford entertainment to their gueata by tbe easy cheerfuiness which they impart to everything around them; they in like manner derive entertainment from everything they see, or hear, or obaerve: a treat is given or received only on particuiar occasions; it depends on the reiative circumstances and tastea of the giver and receiver; to one of a musical turn one may give a treat by inviting him to a musical party; and to one of an inteiligent turn it wili be equally a treat to be of the party which conaists of the enlightened and conversable.

Beattie is the only author I knew whose crit. ical and philosophical reseapehes ere diversified and embellished by a poetical imagination, that makes even the driest subject and the leaneat a feust for an epicure in books. Cawres

Let us consider to whom we are indebted for all thess entertainments of sense. Andioon
Sing my praise in strain sublime,
Treat not me with dogg'rel rbyme. Swifr.

## FEAST, FESTIVAL, HOLIDAY.

FEAST, in Latin festum, or festus, ohanged mest probably from fesioe and feria, which lattar, to all probability, comea from the Greek $\varepsilon \in \rho a t$, aacred, because these days were kapt aacrad or vacant from all secular labor: FESTIVAL and HOLIDAY, as the worda themselves denote, have precisely the aame meaning in their original sense, with this difference, that the former derives its origin from heathenish superstition, the latter owea ita rise to the establishment of Christianity in ita reformed atate.
A. feast, in the Christian sense of the word, is applied to avery day which is regarded aa sacred, and observed with particular solemnity, except Sundays; a holyday, or, according to lta modern orthography, a holiday, is simply a day on which ordinary buainess is suspended: among the Roman Catholies, there are many days which are kept holy, and consequently by them denominated feasts, whlch in the English reformed church are only observed as holidays, or days of exemption from public busineas; of this deacription are the aaints' daya, on which the pubiic offices are shut: on the cther hand, Ohristmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide are regarded in both churches more as feasts than as holidays. There are, therefore, many feasts where thare are no holidays, and many holidays. where there are no feasts.
First, I provide myself a nimble thing, To be my page, a varlet of crafts; Next, two new snits for feasts and gale-days. Crmberland.
It happen'd on a summer's holiday, That to the green-wood shade he took his way. Dryden.
A feast is altogether sacred; a holiday has frequently nothing sacred in it, not even in ita cause; it may be a aimpla, ordinary transaction, the act of an molis viduai : a festival has aiwaya elther a aacred of a aerious object. A feast is kept
by religious worship; a holiday is kept by idleness ; a festival is kept by mirth and festivity: some feasts are festivals, as in the case of the carnival at Rome; some festivals are holidays, as in the case of weddings and public thankegivings.

Many worthy persons urged how great the harmooy wes hetween the holidays ond their attributes (if I may cail them edo), and what a confusion would follow if Michaelmas day, for instence, was not to be celehrated when etubble-geese are in their higlrest perfection.

Walpole.
In so enlightened an age as the present, $I$ ehell perhops be ridiculed if I hint, as my opinion, that the observation of certain feetivals is something more than a mere political institution.

## Waypole.

TO FEEL, BE SENSIBLE, CONSCIOUS.
From the simple idea of a sense, the word FEEL has acquired the most extensive signification and application in our language, and may be employed indifferently for all the other terms, but not in all cases: to feel is said of the whole frame, inwardly and outwardly; it is the accompaoiment of existence: to BESENSIBLE, from the Latin sentio, is sald only of the senses. It is the property of all living creatures to feel pleasure and pain in a greater or less degree: those creatures which have not the sense of hearing will not be sensible of sounds. In the moral application, to feel is pecullarly the property or act of the heart; to be sensible is that of the understanding: an ingenuous mind feels pain when it is sensible of having committed àn error: one maty, however, feel as well as be sensible by means of the understanding: a person feels the value of another's service; is mensible of his kindness: one feels or is sensible of what passes outwardly; one is CONSCIOUS only of what passes inwardly, from con or cum and scio, to know to one's self: we feel the force of another's remark; we are sensible of the evil which must spring from the practice of vice; we are conscious of having fallen short of our duty.
The devout men does not only believe, but feels
ADdison. there is Deity.
There ie, doubtless, a facnity in spirits by which they apprehend one another, as our senises do material objectes and there is no question but our sonls, when they are disemhodied, will, by this faculty, be althays sensible of the Divthe presisuce.
adibeot.

A creature of a more exalted kind
Was wenting yet, and then was man derign'd: Consefous of thought, of more capacious breash For empire form'd and ft to rule the rest.

## Detroter,

## feeling, sense, sensation.

FEELING, in Saxon felen, low German foelen, Dutch welen, and SENSE ( $v$. To feel), are taken in a general or particular sense: SENSATION is taken only in a particular sense. Feeling and sense are either physical or moral properties; sensation is a particular act of physical or moral feeling.

Feeling, physically considered, is but a mode of sense; anatomists reckon five senses, of which feeling is one: sense is the abstract faculty of perceiving through the medium of the sense, as to be deprived of sense when stunned by a blow; to be without sense when divested of the ordinary faculties. As all creatures which have life have feeling, the expression creatures without feeling, may be applied to inanimate objects; but in geoeral the term feeling is taken for the sense of feeling.
Ia this a dagger, which $I$ see before me,
The handle toward my hand ? come let me clutch thee--
I have thee not, and yet I see thee still. Art thou not, fatn! vision, sensible
To feeling as to slght? Shakapeare.
In distances of things, their shapes, and size, Our reason judges better than our eyea;
Declares not this the sbul's pre-eminence,
Superior to, and quite distinct from setad ?
JENYNS.
Feeling, in its limited acceptation, is either a state of feeling or an act of feeling: sense is a mode of senise, $i . e$., a mode of perceiving through the medium of any particular organ of sense, or a state of perceiving particular objects. In this acceptation feeling is applied to moral as well as physical objects, sense to intellectual as well as sensible objects: feeling has its seat in the heart, sense in the understanding; feeling is transitory and fluctuating, sense is permanent and regular. There are feelings of love, charity, compassion, etc.; there is a sense of justice, rectitude, propriety, etc.
Their king, out of a princely fesl̈̈ng, was spar-
ing and compassionate toward bis subjects.
Bacon.
This Basiline, having the quick senze of a xover, took, as thongh his mistress had given him, a secret teprehedsibn.

Sibinez

As the sensation denotes a particular act of feeling, it differs from feeling only in application: the term feeling is most adapted to ordinary discourse on familiar matters; sensation to the grave and scientific style: a child may talk of an unpleasant or pleasant feeling, a feeling of cold or hunger; the professional man talks of the sensation of giddiness, a gnawing sensation, and the like.
Those ideas to which any agreeable sensation is annexed are easily excited, as leaving behind them the most strong and permanent impressions.

Somerville.

## FEELLING, SENSIBILITY, SUSCEPTIBILITY.

FEELING, in the present case, is taken for a positive characteristic, namely, the property of feeling ( $v$. To feel) in a strong degree; in this sense feeling expresses either a particular act, or a habitual property of the mind. SENSIBILITTY is always taken in the sense of a habit. Traits of feeling in young people are happy omens in the estimation of the preceptor: an exquisite sensibility is not a desirable gift; it creates an infinite disproportion of pain. Feeling and sensibility are here taken as moral properties, which are awakened as much by the operations of the mind within itself as by external objects: SUSCEP. TIBILITY, from the Latin suscipio, to take or receive, designates that property of the body or the mind which consists in being ready to take an affection from external objects; hence we speak of a person's susceptibility to take cold, or his susceptibility to be affected with grief, joy, or any other passion : if an excess of sensibility be an evil, an excess of susceptibility is a still greater evil; it makes us slaves to every circumstance, however trivial, which comes under our notice.

Gentleness is native fealing improved hy prinsiple.
blair.
By long habit in carrying a hurden we lose in great part our sensibility of its weight.

Johneon.
It pleases me to think that it was from a principle of gratitude in me that my mind was susceptible of such generous transport (in my dreams) when I thought myself repaying the kiudness of my friend.

Bybon.

## TO FEIGN, PRETEND.

FEIGN, in Latin fingo or figo, comes from the Greek $\pi \eta \gamma \omega$, to fix or stamp.

PRETEND, iu Latin proetendo, signifies properly to stretch before, that is, to put on the outside.

These words may be used either for doing or saying; they are both opposed to what is true, but they differ from the motives of the agent: to feign is taken either in a bad or an indifferent sense; to pretend always in a bad seuse: one feigns in order to gain some future end; a person feigns sickness in order to be excused from paying a disagreeable visit : one pretends in order to serve a present purpose; a child pretends to have lost his book who wishes to excuse himself for his idleness. To feign consists often of a line of conduct ; to pretend consists mostly of words, sometimes coupled with assumed looks and manners: Ulysses feigned madness in order to escape from going to the Trojan war : according to Virgil, the Grecian Sinon pretended to be a deserter come over to the Trojan camp.
To win me from his tender arms,
Unnumber'd suitors carne,
Who prais'd me for imputed charms,
And felt or feign'd a flame. Goldsmith.
An affected delicacy is the common improvement in those who pretend to he refined above others. Steela.
In matters of speculation, to feign is to invent by force of the imagination; to pretend is to set up hy force of self-con, ceit or false opinion : it is feigned by tha poets that Orpheus went down into hell and brought back Eurydice, bis wife; infidel philosophers pretend to account for the most mysterious things in nature upon natural, or, as they please to term it, rational principles.
In the dark recesses of antiquity a great poet may and ought to feign such things as be not then, if they can be brought to embellish that subject which he treats.

Dayden.
The Haus towns not only complained, but clamored loudly for breach of their ancient privileges confirmed anto them time out of mind, hy thirteen successive kings of England, which they protended to have purchased with their money.

Howeld.

## TO FELICITATE, CONGRATULATE.

FELICITATE, from the Latin felix, happy, signifies to make happy, and is applicable only to ourselves; CONGRAT. ULATE, from gratus, pleasant or agreea. ble, is to make agreeable, and is applicable either to ourselves or others: we fo
licitate ourselves on having escaped the danger; we congratulate others on their good-fortune.

The astronomers, Indeed, expect her (night) with impatience, and felicitate themsclves upon her arrival.

Jounson.
The fierce young hero who bad overcome tbe Curiatii, instead of being congratulated by his sister for his victory, was upbraided by her for having slain her lover.

Abdison.

## FELLOWSHIP, SOCLETY.

Bотн these terms are employed to denote a close intercourse; but FELLOWSHIP is said of men as individuals, SOCIETY of them collectively: we should be careful not to hold fellowship with any one of bad character, or to join the society of those who profess bad principles.

Ill becomes it me
To wear at once thy garter and thy chains, Though by my former dignity I swear, That, were I reinstated in my throne, Thus to be join'd in fellowohip with thee Would be the first ambition of my soul.

Glubeit West.
Unhappy he! who from the first of joys,
Society, cut off, is left alone,
Amid this world of death.
Tnomson.

## female, feminine, effeminate.

FEMALE is said of the sex itself, and FEMININE of the characteristics of the sex. Female is opposed to male, feminine to masculine.

In the female character we expect to find that which is feminine. The female dress, manners, and habits, have engaged the attention of all essayists, from the time of Addison to the present period. The feminine is natural to the female; the effeminate is unnatural to the male. A feminine air and voice, which is truly grateful to the observer in the one sex, is an odious mark of effeminacy in the other. Beauty and delicacy are feminine properties; robustness and vigor are masculine properties; the former, therefore, when discovered in a man, entitle him to the epithet of effeminate.
Once more her haughty soul the tyrant bends, To prayers and mean submissions she descends ; No female arts or aids she left untried,
Nor counsels unexplor'd, before she died.
Dryden.

> Her heay'nly form

Angelic ; but more soft and feminine Her grsceful innocence.

Muton.

Our martial ancestors, like some of their moderu successors, had no other amusement (but hurting) to entertain their vacant hours; despising all arts as effeminate.

Blacestone.

## IHENCE, GUARD, SECURITY.

FENCE, from the Latin fendo, to fend or keep off, denotes that which serves to prevent the attack of an external enemy. GUARD, which is but a variety of ward, from the German wahren, to see, and wachen, to watch, signifies that which keeps from any danger. SECURITY implies that which secures or prevents injury, mischief, and loss. A fence, in the proper sense, is an inanimate object; a guard is a living agent; the former is of permanent utility, the latter acts to a partial extent: in the figurative sense they retain the same distinction. Modesty is a fence to a woman's virtue; the love of the subject is the monarch's greatest safeguard. There are prejudices which favor religion and subordination, and act as fences against the introduction of licentious principles into the juvenile or unenlightened mind; a proper sense of an overruling Providence will serve as a guard to prevent the admission of im. proper thoughts. The guard only stands at the entrance, to prevent the ingress of evil: the security stops up all the avenues, it locks up with firmness. A guard serves to prevent the ingress of everything that may have an evil intention or tendency: the security rather secures the possession of what one has, and prevents a loss. A king has a guard about his person to keep off all violence.

Whatever disregard eertain modern refiners of morality may attempt to throw on all the instituted means of public religion, they must in their lowest view be considered as the out-guards and fences of virtuous conduct.

Blair.
Let the heart be either wounded by sore dis. tress, or agitated by violent emotions; and you shall presently see that virtue without religion is inadequate to the government of life. It is destitute of its proper guard, of its firmest support, of its chief encouragement. Blaik.
Goodness from its own nature hath this aceurity, that it brings men under the danger of no law.

Tillotson.
FEROCLOUS, FIERCE, SAVAGE.
FEROCIOUS and FEERCE are both derived from the Latin forox, which comes from fera, a wild beast. SAVAGE, a

## FERTILE

Ferocity marks the untamed character of a cruel disposition: fierceness has a greater mixture of pride and anger in it, the word fiers io French being taken for haughtiness: savageness marks a more permanent, but not so violent a sentiment of either cruelty or anger as the two former. Ferocity and fierceness are in common applied to the bruted, to designate their natural tempers: savage is mostly emplayed to designate the natural tempers of man, when uncontrolled by the force of reason and a sense of religion. Ferocity is the natural characteristle of wild beasts; it is a delight in blood that needs no outward stimulus to call it into action; but lt displays itself most strikingly in the moment when the animal is going to grasp, or when in the act of devouring, its prey : fierceness may be provoked in many creatures, but it does not discover itself unless roused by some circumstance of aggravation ; many animals become fievee by being shut up in cages, and exposed to the view of speetators: savageness is as natural a temper in the uncivilized man as ferocity or fierceness in the brute; it does not wait for an enemy to attack, but is restless in search of some one whom it may make an enemy, and have an opportunity of destroying. It is an easy transition for the savage to become the fcrocious cannibal, glutting himself in the blood of his enemies, or the fierce antagonist to one who sets himself up in opposition to him.

In an extended application of these terms, they bear the same relation to each other: the countenance may be either ferocious, fierce, or savage, according to circumstances. A robber who spends his lifc in the act of unlawfully shedding hlood acquires a ferocity of countenance: a soldier who follows a predatory and desultory mode of warfare betrays the licentiousness of his calling, and his undisciplined temper, in the fierceness of his countenance; the tyrant whose enjoyment consists in inflicting misery on bis dependants or subjects evinces the savageness of his temper by the savage joy with which he witnesses their groans and tortures.
The ferocious character of Moloch appears both in the battle and tbe council with exact consistmer.

JOHNBON.

The weary winds sink, breathless. Bnt whe knows
What fiercer tempest yet may sbake this night. THompon.
Nay, the dire monsters that infest the flood, By nature dreadful, and athirst for blood, His will can calm, their savage tempers bind, And turn to mild protectors of mankind.

Youna.
FERTILE, FRUITFUL, PROLIFIC.
FERTILE, in Latin fertilis, from fero, to bear, signifies capable of bearing. or bringing to light. FRUITFUL signifies full of fruit; or containing within itself much fruit. PROLIFIC is compounded of proles and facio, to make a progeny.

Fertile expresses in its proper sense the faculty of sending forth from itself that which is not of its own nature, and is peculiarly applicable to the ground which causes everything within itself to grow up. Fruitful expresses a state coutaining or possessing abundantly that which is of the same nature; it is, therefore, peculiarly applicable to trees, plants, vegetables, and whatever is said to bear fruit. Prolific expresses the faeulty of generating; it convers, therefore, the idea of what is creative, and is peculiarly hp. plicable to animals. We may say that the ground is either fertile or fruitful, but not so properly prolific: we may speak of a female of any species being fruitful and prolific, but not fertile; we may speak of nature as being fruitful, but neither fertile nor prolific. A country is fertile as it respects the quality of the soil; it is fruitful as it respects the abundance of its produce: it is possible, therefore, for a country to be fruitful by the industry of its inhabitants, which was not fertile by nature. An animal is said to be fruitful as it respects the number of young which it has; it is said to be prolific as it respects its generative power. Some women are more fruitful than others; but there are many animals more prolific than human creatures.

Why should I mention those whose oozy soil Is render'd fer'tile by the o'erflowing Nile?

Jentme,
When first the soil receives the fruitful seed, Make no delay, but cover it with speed.

Dryden.
And where in pomp the sunburned people ride On palnted barges o'er the teeming tide,

## FICTION

Which ponring down from Ethlopien lands, Makce grean the soil, with alime and biack prolific sands.

Drtiden.
In the figurative application they admit of a similar distinction. A man is fertile in expedients who readily contrives upon the apur of the occasion; be is fruitful in resources who has them ready at his hand; his brain is prolific if it generates an abundance of new conceptions. A mind is fertile which has powers that adunit of cultivation and expansion: an imagination is fruitful that is rich in atores of imagery; a geniua is prolific that is riob in invention. Females are fertile in expedients and devices; ambition and avarioe are the most fruitful sources of discord and misery in public and private life; novel-writers are the most prolific class of authors.

## To every work Warburton breught a mamory full fraught, togather with a fancy fertile of combinationa. <br> Johnaon. <br> The philosoply received from the Greeks has been frulfful In controvarsiaa, but barren of worka, <br> Bacon.

Parent of light ! all-aeeing sun,
Prolffo beam, whoge raya dlapense
The various gifts of Providence:
GAX.

## fervor, ardar.

FERVOR, from ferveo, to boil, is not so violent a heat as ARDOR, from ardea, to burn. The affections are properly fervent; the passions are ardent: we are fervent in feelling, and ardent in acting; the fervor of devotion may be rational, hut the ardor of zeal is mostly intemperate. The first martyr, Stephen, was filled with a holy fervor; St. Peter, in the ardor of his zeal, promised his Master to do more than he was able to perform.
The joy of the Lord ia not to be understood of high raptures and transports of religious fervor.

Blair.
Do men hasten to thair devotions with that ardor thet thay would to a lewd play? South.

## EESTIVITY, MIRTH.

Tazre is commonly MIRTH with FES TIVITX, but there may be frequently mirth without festivity. The festivity lies in the outward circumstances; mirth in the temper of the mind. Festivity is rather the producer of mirth than the mirth itself. Festivity includes the social enjoyments of eating, drinking, dan-
cing, cards, and other pleasures: mirth includes in it the buoyancy of spirits which is engendered by a participation in such pleasures.
Pisistratua, fearing that the fostivity of his guasts would be interrupted by the misconduct of Thrasippus, ross from his seat, and entreatad him to atay.

Cumberland.
Low lies tbat hopse where nut-brown draught inspir'd
Whara graybeard mirth and amiling toil retir'd. Goldsmiti.

## FLCTION, FABRICATLON, FALSEHOOD.

FICTION is opposed to what is real; FABRICATION and FALSEHOOD to what is true. Fiction relates what may be, though not what is: fabrication and falsehood relate what is not as what is, and vice versa. Fiction serves for amusement and instruction: fabrication aod falsehood serve to mislead and deoeive. Fiction and fabrication both require invention : falsehood consists of simple con. tradiction. The fables of 世sop are fictions of the simplest kind, but yet such as require a peculiarly lively fancy and inventive genius to produce: the fabrication of a play, as the production of Shakspeare's pen, was once executed with sufficient skill to impose for a time upgn the public credulity: a good memory is all that is necessary in order to avoid uttering falsehoods that can be easily contradicted and confuted. In as extended sense of the word fiction, it approaches still ncarer to the sense of fabricate, when said of the fections of the apcients, which were delivered as truth, although admitted now to be false : the motive of the narrator is what here constitutes the difference; namely, that in the former cass he believes what he relates to be true, in the latter he knows it to be false. The heathen mythology consists principally of the fictions of the poets: newspapers commonly abound in fabrication.
All that the Jews tell us of their twofold Mesaiah is a mere fiction, framed without as mach as a pretence to any fonndation in Scripture for it. Prideaux.
The translator or fabricator of Ossian's poems. Mazon.
When speech is employed only as the vehicle of faizehood, every man must disunite himself
from others.
Jounaon. from others.

Fabrication may sometimes be used in a good sense: in thia case it denotes now
the thing fabricated, but the act of fabricating.

With reason has Shakspeare's superiority been asserted in the fabrication of his preternatural nacbines.

Comberlana.
As epithets, fuctitious and false are very closely allied; for what is fictitious is false, though all that is false is not fictitions: the fictitious is that which has been feigned, or falsely made by some one; the false is simply that which is false by the nature of the thing; the fictitious account is therefore the invention of an individual, whose veracity is thereby impeached; but there may be many false accounts unintentionally circulated.
A man who has taken his ideas of mankind from stady alooe generally comes into the world with a heart melting at every fictitious tale of distress.

Goldsmith.
It is on thia priociple that true religion has and must have so large a mixture of fear, and that falsa religions have nothing else but fear to support them.

Borke.

## figure, metaphor, allegory, EMBLEM, SYMBOL, TYPE.

FIGURE, in Latin figura, from fingo, to feign, signifies anything painted or feigned by the mind. METAPHOR, in Greek $\mu \mathrm{era} \mathrm{\phi o} \mathrm{\rho a}$, from $\mu \in \tau a \phi \varepsilon \rho \omega$, to transfer, signifies a transfer of one object to another. ALLEGORY, in Greek $a \lambda \lambda \eta$ yopia, from $a \lambda \lambda o s$, another, and $a \gamma o \rho \varepsilon u \omega$, to relate, signifies the relation of something under a borrowed term. EMBLEM, in Greek $\varepsilon \mu \beta \lambda \eta \mu a$, from $\varepsilon \mu \beta a \lambda$ $\lambda \omega$, to impress, signifies the thing stamped on as a mark. SYMBOL, from the Greek $\sigma \nu \mu \beta a \lambda \lambda \omega$, to consider atten:ively, signifies the thing cast or conceived in the mind, from its analogy to represent something else. TYPE, in Greek rumos, from $\tau v \pi \tau \omega$, to strike or stamp, signifies au image of something that is stamped on something else.

Likeness hetween two objects, by which one is made to represent the other, is the common idea in the signification of these terms. Figure is the most general of these terms, comprehending everything which is figured by means of the imagination; the rest are but modes of the figure. The figure consists either in words or in things generally: we may have a figure in expression, a figure on paper, a figure on wood or stone, and the
like. It is the business of the imagination to draw figures out of anything; the metaphor and allegory consist of a representation by means of words only : the figure, in this case, is any representation which the mind makes to itself of a resemblance between objects, which is properly a figure of thought, which whem clothed in words is a figure of speech: the metaphor is a figure of speech of the simplest kind, by which a word acquires other meanings besides that which is originally affixed to it; as. when the term head, which properly signifies a part of the body, is applied to the leader of an army. The allegory is a continued metaphor, where attributes, modes, and actions are applied to the objects thus figured, as in the allegory of sin and death in Milton.
The apring bears the same floure among the geasons of the year, that the morning does amoug the divisions of the day, or yonth among the stages of life.

Aililison.
No man had a happier manner of expressiog the affections of one sense by metaphors taken from acother than Milton.

Borke.
Virgil has cast the whole system of Platonle philosophy, so far as regards the coul of man, into beautifnl allegories.

Anilison.
The emblem is that sort of figure of thought by which we make corporeal ohjects to stand for moral properties; thus the dove is represented as the emblem of meekness, or the beehive is made the emblem of industry: the symbol is that species of emblem which is couverted into a constituted sign amoog men; thus the olive and laurel are the symbols of peace, aud have been recognized as such among barbarous as well as enlightened nations. The type is that species of emblem by which one object is made to represent another mystically; it is, therefore, only employed in religious matters, particularly in relation to the coming, the office, and the death of our Saviour; in this manner the offering of Isaac is considered as a type of our Saviour's offering himself as an atoning sacrifice.

The stork's the emblem of true piety.
Beadmont.
I need not mention the justness of thought which is observed in the generation of these symbolical persons (in Milton's allagory of sia and death).

Admison.
All the remarkahle events under the law were types of Christ.

Buals.

## FINAL, CONCLUSIVE.

FINAL, in French final, Latin finalis, from finis, the end, signifies having an end. CONCLUSIVE (v. Conclusive) signifies shutting up, or coming to a conclusion.

Final designates aimply the circum. atance of being the last; conclusive the mode of finiahing or coming to the last: 3 determination is final which is to be succeeded by no other; a reasoning is conclusive that puta a stop to farther question. The final is arbitrary; it depends upon the will to make it so or not: the conclusive is relative; it depends upon the circumstaces and the understandiag: a person gives a final answer at option; but in order to make an answer conclusive it must be satisfactory to all parties.

Neither with us in England hath there been (till very lately) any final determination upon the right of anthors at the common-law.

Blackstone.
I hardly think the example of Abraham's complaining, that unless he had some children of his body, his steward, Eliezer of Damascus, would be his heir, is quite conclusive to show that he made him so by will.

Blacestone.
TO FIND, FIND OUT, DISCOVER, ESPY, Descris.
FIND, in German finden, etc., is most prohably connected with the Latin venio, signifying to come in the way. DISCOVER, v. To detect. ESPY, in French espier, comes from the Latin espicio, aignifying to see a thing out, or in distinction from others. DESCRY, from the Latin discerno, signifies to distinguish a thing from ethers.

To find aignifies simply to come within sight of a thing, which is the general idea attached to all these terms: they vary, however, either in the mode of the action or in the object. What we find may become viaible to us by accident, hut what we find out is the result of an effert. We may find anything as wo pass along in the streets; hut we find out mistakes in an account by carefully going over it, or we find out the difficulties which we meet with in learning, by redoubling our diligence. What is found may have been lost to ourselves, but visible to others. What is discovered is always remote and unknown, and when discovered is some-
thing new. A piece of money may be found lying on the ground; but a mine is discovered underground. When Captain Cook discovered the islanda in the South Sea, many plants and animals were found. What is not discoverable may he presumed not to exist ; but that which ia found may be only what has heen lost. What has once been discovered cannot he discovered again; but what is found may be many times found. Find out and discover differ principally in the application; the former being applied to familiar, and the latter to scientific ohjects: acholars find out what they have to learn ; men of research discover what escapes the notice of others.

He finds the frand, and with a smile demands, On what design the boy had bonnd his hands.

Difiden.
Socrates, who was a great admirer of Cretan institutions, set his excellent wit to find out some good cause and use of this evil incliuation (the love of boys).

Walsh.
Gunning is a kind of short-sightedness that discovers the minutest objects which are near at hand, but is not able to discern things at a distance.

Addison.
To espy is a species of finding out, namely, to find out what is very secluded or retired; and descry ia a species of discovering, or ohserving at a distance, or among a number of objects. An astron. omer discovers fresh stars or planeta; he finds out those on particular occasiona which have been already discovered. A person finds out by continued inquiry any place to which he had been wrong directed: he espies an object which liea concealed in a corner or secret place; he descries a horseman coming down a hill. Find and discover may be employed with regard to objects, either of a corporeal or intellectual kind ; espy and descry only with regard to sensible objects of corporeal vision : find, either for those that are external or internal; discover, only for those that are external. The distinction hetween them is the same as before; we find by simple inquiry; we discover by reflection and study: we find or find out the motives which influence a person'a conduct; we discover the reasons or causes of things: the finding serves the particular purpose of the finder; the discovery serves the purpose of science, by adding to the stock of general knowledge.

When It 3 said taste cannot be disputed, it can only mean that no one can atrictly gay what pleasore or pain some particular men may find from the taste of some particular thing. Borke.

Aristotle had reason to say that Homer was the only poet who had found out living worda, Pore.
He wished to-day our enterprise might tirive;
1 fear our purpose is discovered. Sinazapeafe.
There Agamemnon, Prlam here he spies,
And fierce Achilles, who both kings deties.
Dryden.
Through this we pass, and mount the tower from whence,
With unavailing arms, the Trojans make defence; From thls the trembling king had oft descried The Grecian camp, and saw their navy ride.

Dryden.
When find is used as a purely intellectual operation, it admits of a new view, in relation both to discover and to invent, as may be seen in the following article.

> TO FIND, FIND OUT, DISCOVER, INVENT.

To FIND or FIND OUT ( $v$. To find) Is said of things which do not exist in the forms in which a person finds them: to DISCOVER ( $v . T_{0}$ discover) is said of that which exists in an entire state: INVENT, from invenio, signifying literally to come at, is said of that which is new made or modelled. The merit of finding or inventing consists in newly applying or modifying the materials, which exist separately; the merit of discovering consists in removing the obstacles which prevent us from knowing the real nature of the thing: imagination and industry are requisite for finding or inventing; acuteness and penetration for discovering. Find is applicable to the operative arts; invent to the mechanical; discover to the speculative. We speak of finding modes for performing actions and effecting purposes; of inventing machines, instruments, and various matters of use or elegance; of discovering the operations and laws of nature. Many fruitless attempts have been made to find the longitude: men have not been so unsuccessful in finding out various arts, for communicating their thoughts, commemorating the exploits of their nations, and supplying themselves with luxuries. Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood: the geometrician finds by reasoning the solution of any problem; or by investigating, he finds put a clearer method of solving the same
problems; or he invents an instrument by which the proof can be deduced from oc. ular demonstration.
Long practice has a sure improvement found, With kindled flres to burn the barren ground.

Drfien.
Since the harmonic principles were discover. ed, mnsic has been a great independent science.

SEWARD
The aire of goda and men, with hard decreea, Forbids our plenty to be bought with ease : Himself invented first the shining share, And whetted human industry by care.

DEYDEM.

## TO FIND FAULT WITH, BLAME, OBJECT TO.

Alu these terms denote not simply feeling, but also expressing dissatisfaction with some person or thing. To FIND FAULT WITH signifies here to point out a fault, either in some person or thing; to BLAME is said only of the person; OBJECT is applied to the thing only: we find fault with a person for his behavior; we find fault with our seat, our conveyance, and the like; we blame a person for his temerity or his improvidence; we object to a measure that is proposed. We find fault with or blame that which has been done; we object to that which has been or is to be done. Finding fault is a familiar action applied to matters of personal convenience or taste; blame and object to, particularly the latter, are applied to serious objects. Finding fault is often the fruit of a discontented temper; there are some whom nothing will please, and who are ever ready to find fault with whatever comes in their way: blame is a matter of discretion; we blame frequently in order to correct: ob. jecting to is an affair either of caprice or diseretion ; some capriciously object to that which is proposed to them merely from a spirit of opposition; others object to a thing from substantial reasois.
Tragi-comedy you have youraelf found fauld with very justly.

Budgell.
It is a most certain rule in reason and moral philosophy, that where there is no choice there can be no blante.

South.
Men in all deliberations find ease to be of the negative side, to object and forctell difficulties.

Bacon.

## FINE, DELICATE, NICE.

IT is remarkable of the word FINE ( $v_{0}$ Beartiful) that it is equally applicable to
large and small objects : DELICATE, in Latin delicatus, from deliciee, delights, and delicio, to allure, is applied only to small objects. Fine, in the natural sense; denotes smalliness in general. Delicate denotes a degree of fineness that is agreeable to the taste. Thread is said to be fine, as opposed to the coarse and thick; gilk is said to he delicate, when to fineness uf texture it adds softaess. The texture of a spider's web is remarkahle for ita finueness; that of the ermine's fur is remarkable for its delicacy. In writing, all up-strokes must be fine; but ia superior writing they will be delicately fine. When applied to colors, the fine is coupled with the bold and strong; delicate with what is faint, soft, and fair: black and red may be fine colors; white and pink delicate colors. The tulip is reckoned one of the finest flowers; the white mose-rose is a delicate flower. A fine painter delineates with boldness; but the artist who has a delicate taste throws delicate toueles into the grandest delineations.

Everything that results from nature alone lies ont of the province of instrnction; and no rules that I know of will serve to give a fine form, a fine volce, or even those fine feelings, which are among the first properties of an actor.

Comaerland,
Under this head of elegance I reokon those delicate and regular works of art, as elegant buildings or pieces of furoiture.

Bulкe.
In their moral application these terms admit of the same distinction: the fine approaches either to the atrong or to the weak; the delicate is a high degree of the fine; as a fine thought, which may be lofty; or fine feeling, which is acute and tender; and delicate feeling, which exceeds the former in fineness. The French use their word $\operatorname{fin}$ only in the latter sense, of acuteness, and apply it merely to the thoughts and designs of men, answering either to our word subtle, as un homme fin, or neat, as wne satire fine.
Chief, lovely Spring! in thee and thy soft acenes The emiling God is seen: while water, earth, And air attest his bounty, which exalts
The brute creation to this finer thought.
Thomson.
And such, I exclaimed, is the pltiless part
Some act by the delicate mind,
Regardless of wringing and breaking a heart Already to sorrow resigned.

Cowper.
Delicate is said of that which is agreeable to the sense and the taste; NICE
to what ia agreeable to the appetite: the former is a term of refinement; the lat ter of epicurism and sensual indulgence. The delicate affords pleasure only to those whose thoughts and desires are purified from what is gross; the nice affords pleasure to the young, the ignorant, and the sensual: thus delicate food, delicate colers, delicate shapes and form, are always acceptable to the cultivated; a meal, a ahow, a color, and the like, which suite its appetite or meets its fancy, will be nice to a child.

It is the delicate myrtle, it is the orange, it is the almond, it is the jasmine, it is the vine, which we look on as vegetable beauties. Burke. Look! how nice he makes It !

Baadett.
When used in a moral application, nice, which is taken in a good seose, approaches nearer to the signification of delicate. A person may be said to have a delicate ear in music whose ear is offended with the smalleat discordance; he may be oaid to have a nice taste or judgment in music who scientifically discriminates the beauties and defects of different pieces. A person is delicate in his choice who is guided by taste and feeling; he is nice in his choice who adheres to a strict rule. A point in question may be either delicate or nice; it is delicate, as it is likely to touch the tender feelings of any party; it is nice, as it involyes contrary interests, and becomes difficult of determination. There are delicacies of behavior which are learned by good-breeding, but which minds of a refined cast are naturally alive to, without any particular learning; there are niceties in the law which none but men of superior intellect can properly enter into and discriminate.

The commerce in the conjugal atate is so deli* oate, that it is impossibla to prescribe rules for it. Steele.
The highest point of good-breeding, if any one can hit it, is to show a very nice regard to your own dignity, and, with that in your heart, to express yonr value for the man above you.

Steele.
FINE, MULCT, PENALTY, FORFEITURE.
FINE, from the Latin finis, the end or purpose, signifies, by an extended application, satisfaction by way of amenda fö an offence. MULCT, in Latin mulctaj
comes from mulgeo, to draw ar wipe, because an offence is wiped off by money. PENALTY, in Latin poenalitas, from prena, a pain, signifies what gives pain by way of punishment. FORFEITURE, from forfeit, in French forfait, from forfaire, signifies to do away or lose by doing wrong.
The fine and mulct are always pecunisry; a penalty may be pecuniary; a forfeiture consists of the deprivation of any right or property: the fine and mulct are imposed; the penalty is inflicted or incurred; the forfeiture is incurred. The violation of a rule or law is attended with a fine nr mulct, but the former is a term of general use; the latter is rather a technical term in law: a criminal offence incurs a penalty; negligence of duty occasions the forfeiture. A fine or mulct serves either as punishment to the offender or as an amends for the offence: a penalty always inflicts some kind of pain as a punishment on the nffender: a forfeiture is attended with loss as a punishment to the delinquent. Among the Chinese all offences are punished with fines or flogging: the Roman Catholics were formerly subject to penalties if detected in the performance of their religious worship: societies subject their members to forfeitures for the violation of their laws.
Too dear a fine, ah, much lamented maid ! For warring with the Trojans thon hast paid.

DRYDEN.
For to prohibit and dispense,
To find out or to make offence,
To set what characters they please,
And mulets on sin, or godliness,
Must prove a pretty thriving trade.
Buther.
It must be confessed that, as for the laws of men, gratitnde is not enjoined by the sanction of penaltics. Sobtt.
The Earl of Hereford, heing tried secundum leges Normannorum, conld only be pnnished by a forfeiture of his inheritance.

Tyrbwhity.
In the Roman law, if a lord manumits his slave, gross ingratitude in the person so made free forfeits his freedom.

South.

## FINICAL, SPRUCE, FOPPISH.

These epithets are applied to such as attempt at finery by improper means. The FINICAL is insignificantly fine; the SPRUCE is laboriously and artfully fine; the FOPPISH is fantastically and affectedly fine. The finical is said mostly of
manners and speech; the spruce is said of the dress; the foppish, of dress and manners.

A finical gentleman clips his word and screws his body into as small a com. pass as possible, to give himself the air of a delicate person : a spruce gentleman strives not to have a fold wrong in his frill or cravat, nor a hair of bis head to lie amiss: a foppish gentleman seeks by extravagance in the cut of his clnthes, and by the tawdriness in tbeir arnaments, to render himself distinguished for finery. A little mind, full of conceit of itself, will lead a man to be finical: a vacant mind that is anxious to be pleasing will not vbject to the employment of rendering the person spruce: a giddy, vain mind, eager after applause, impels a man to every kind of foppery.
At the top of the bnilding (Blenleeim House) are several cupolas and little turrets that have but an ill effect, and make the building look at once finical and heavy.

Pope.
Methinks I see thee spruce and fine, With coat embroider'd richly shine.

## Swift

The learned, full of inward pride, The fops of outward show deride.

Gay.

## FINITE, LIMITED.

FINITE, trom finis, an end, is the natural property of things ; and LIMITED, from limes, a boundary, is the artificial property: the former is opposite only to the infinite; but the latter, which lies within the finite, is opposed to the unlimited or the infinite. This world is finite, and space infinite; the power of a prince is limited. It is not in our power to extend the bounds of the finite, but the lim. ited is mostly under our control. We are finite beings, and our capacities are variously limited, either by nature or circumstances.
Methinks this single consideration of the progress of a finite spirit to perfection will be sufficient to extinguish all envy in inferior natures, and all contempt in superior. ADDison.
Those complaints which we are apt to make of our limited capacity and narrow view, are just as unreasonable as the childish complaints of our not being formed with a microscopic eye.

Blair.
FIRE, HEAT, WARMTH, GLOW,
In the proper sense these words are easily distinguished, but not so easily in
the improper sense; and as the latter depends principally upon the former, it is not altogether useless to enter into some explanation of their physical meaning.

FIRE is with regard to HEAT as the cause to the effect; it is itself an inherent property in some material bodies, and when in action communicates heat: fire is perceptible to us by the eye, as well as the touch; heat is perceptible only by the touch : we distinguish fire by means of the flame it sends forth, or by the changes which it produces upon other bodies; but we discover heat only by the sensations which it produces in ourselves.

Heat and WARMTH differ principally In degree, the latter being a gentle degree of the former. The term heat is, however, in its most extensive sense, applicable to that universal principle which pervades all nature, animate and inanimate, and seems to vivify the whole; it is this principle which appears either under the form of fire, or under the more commonly conceived form of heat, as it is generally understood, and as I have here considered it. Heat in this limited sense is less active than fire, and more active than warnuth: the former is produced in bodies, either by the violent action of fire, as in the boiling of water, the melting of lead, or the violent friction of two hard bodies; the latter is produced by the simple expulsion of cold, as in the case of feathers, wool, and other substances, which produce and retain warmth. GLOW is a partial heat or warmth which exists, or is known to exist, mostly in the human frame; it is commonly produced in the body when it is in its most vigorous state, and its nerves are firmly braced by the cold.

From the above analysis the figurative application of these terms, and the grounds upon which they are so employed, will be easily discerned. As fire is the strongest and most active principle in nature, which seizes everythiog within its reach with the greatest possible rapidity, genius is said to be possessed of fire, which flies with rapidity through all the regions of thought, and forms the most lively images and combinations; but when fire is applied to the eye or the looks, it borrows its meaning from the
external property of the flame, which is very aptly depicted in the eye or the looks of lively people. As heat is al. ways excessive and mostly violent, thoss commotions and fermentations of the mind which flow from the agitation of the passions, particularly of the angry passions, are termed heat. As warmth is a gentle and grateful property, it has with most propriety been ascribed to the affections. As glow is a partial but vivid feeling of the body, so is friendship a strong but particular affection of the mind: hence the propriety of ascribing a glow to friendship. Age damps the fire of the poet. Disputants in the heat of the contest are apt to forget all the forms of good-breediag. A man of tender moral feelings speaks with warmth of a noble action, or takes a warm interest in the concerns of the innocent and the distressed. A youth in the full glow of friendship feels himself prepared to make any sacrifices in supporting tha cause of his friend.
That modern love is no such thing, As what those ancient poets sing, A fire celestial, chaste, refin'd.

Swift.
The heat of Milton's mind might be said to sublimate his learning.

Johnson.
I fear I have pressed you further upon this occasion than was necessary: however, I know you will excuse my warmth in the cause of a friend.

Melmoth's Letters of Ciceho to Cassar.
The frost-concocted glebe
Draws in abundant vegetable soul,
And gathers vigor for the coming year:
A stronger glovo sits on the lively cheek
Of ruddy fire.
Thomson.
FIRM, FIXED, GOLID, STABLE.
FIRM, v. Constancy. FIXED denotes the state of being fixed. SOLID, in Latin solidus, comes from solum, the ground, which is the most solid thing existing. STABLE, v. Constancy.

That is firm which is not easily shak. en; that is fixed which is fastened to something else, and not easily torn; that is solid which is able to bear, and does not easily give way; that is stable which is able to make a stand against resistance, or the effects of time. A pillar which is firm on its base, fixed to a wall made of solid oak, is likely to be stable. A man stands firm in battle who does not flinch from the attack: he is fixed to a spot by the order of his commander.

In one firm orb the banda were rang'd around, A cloud of heroes blacken'd all the ground.

Pope.
Unmov'd and silent, the whole war they wait, Serenely dreadful, and as $f i x^{\prime} d$ as fate. Pope.

At thy firmest age,
Thou hadst within thy bole solid contents
That might have ribbed the aidea and plank'd the deck
of some flagged admiral.
Cowper.
Even the oak
Thrives hy the rude concussion of the storm, Frowning as if in hta uncotacious arm He held the thunder: but the monarch owes His firm stability to what he acorns. Cowper.

In the moral sense, firmness is used only for the purpose, or such actions as depend on the purpose; fixed is used either for the mind, or for outward circumstances; solid is applicable to things in general, in an absolute sense; stable is applicable to things in a relative sense. Decrees are more or less firm, according to the source from which they spring; none are firm, compared with those which arise from the will of the Almighty: laws are fixed in proportion as they are connected with a constitution in which it is difficult to innovate. That which is solid is so of its own nature, but does not admit of degrees: a solid reason has within itself an independent property, which cannot be increased or diminished. That which is stable is so by comparison with that which is of less duration : the characters of some men are more stable than those of others; youth will not have ao stable a character as manhood. A frieadship is firm when it does not depend upon the opinion of others; it is fixed when the choice is made and grounded in the mind; it is solid when it rests on the only solid basis of accordancy in virtue and religion; it is stable when it is not liable to decrease or die away with time.

The man that's resolnte and juat,
Firm to his prinelples and trust,
Nor hopes nor fears can blind.
One loves floed laws, and the other arbitrary
power.
The older an author is, commonly the more
solid he is and the greater teller of truth.
Howell.
The prosperity of no man on earth is stable and assured.

Blair.

## EIT, APT, MEET.

FIT ( $v$. Becoming) is either an acquired or a natural property; APT, in Latin ap-
tus, from the Greek $a \pi \tau \omega$, to connect, is a natural property; MEET, from to meto or measure, signifying measured, is a moral quality. A bouse is fit for the accommodation of the family according to the plan of the builder; the young mind is apt to receive either good or bad impressions. Meet is a term of rare use, except in spiritual matters or in poetry: it is meet to offer our prayers to the Supramo Disposer of all things.

Nor holy rapture wanted they to praise
Their Maker in fit strains pronounc'd or sung.
Milton.
If you hear a wise sentence or an apt phrase commit it to your memory. Sia Henay Sidney. My image, not imparted to the brute, Whose fellowship therefore not unmeet for thee, Good reason was thou freely shouldst dislike.

Milton.

## TO FIT, EQUIP, PREPARE, QUALIFY.

To FIT ( $v$. Fit, becoming) signifies to adopt means in order to make $f t$, and conveys the general sense of all the other terms; they differ priacipally in the means and circumstances of fitting: to EQUIP is to fit out by furnishing the necessary materials: to PREPARE, from the Latin praparo, compounded of pre and paro, to get beforehand, is to take steps for the purpose of fitting in future: to QUALIFY, from the Latin qualifico, or qualis and facio, to make a thing as it should be, is to fit or furnish with any requisites.

To fit is employed for ordinary cases: to equip is employed only for expeditions: a house is fitted up for the resideace of a family; in vessel is equipped with everything requisite for a voyage; to fit may be for an immediate or a remote purpose; to prepare is for a remote purpose ; to fit does not define the means: to prepare requires for the most part labor, time, and expense. A person fits himself for taking orders when he is at the university : he prepares for an examination by going over what be has already learned.
With long resounding cries they urge the train, To fit the ships and launch into the main. Pope
The religions man is equipped for the storm as well as the calm in this dubious navigation of life.

Blaig.
Antomedon and Aleinous prepare
Th' immortal coursers and the radiant car.
Popk

To $f t$ is said of everything, both in a natural sad a moral senec: to qualify is used only in a moral aense. Fit is employed mostly for acquirements which are gained by physical exertions; quali$f y$ for thoee which are gained by intellectual exertion : a youth fits himself for 2 mechanicsl busiaess by working at it ; a youth qualifies himself for a profegion by following a particular course of studies.

The next morning I perceived his sisters mighty busy in fitting out Moses for the fair.

Gor, ibmith.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "He that cannot live well to-day," says Mar- } \\
& \text { tial, "will be less qualified to live well to-mor- } \\
& \text { row." } \\
& \text { Johnson. } \\
& \text { TO FIT, SUIT, ADAPT, ACCOMMODATE, } \\
& \text { ADJUST. }
\end{aligned}
$$

FIT aignifies to make or be ft ( $v$. Becoming). SUIT aignifies to make or be suitable (v. To agree). ADAPT, from ap. tue, fit, aignifies to make ft for a specific purpose. ACCOMMODATE signifies to make commodious (v. Commodious). ADJUST algnifies to make a thing just as it Is desired to be.
To ft, in the transitive senae, ia to make of like proportiona, so that one thing may join with another as it ought: as to fit one board to another; to fit clothes to the body: to suit is to make things agreeable to each other, and is mostly spplied to moral objecta: as to suit one's actions or language to the occasion.
Then meditates the mark; and couching low, Futs the sharp arrow to the well-strung how.

Pope.
Suit the word to the action, and the action to the word, with thila special observance, that you overstep not the modesty of nature.

Shakspeare.
Fit may likewise be figuratively applied to meral objecta, in the sense of making one object fit for another: as to fit a person by his education for a particular walk of life; to fit the mind for the reception of truth.
The next dififculty was in fatting me with parts, as elmost every character was in keeping.

Goldsmita,
In the intranaitive sense, these words have precisely the same distinction: as the shae fits, or fits the foot, which is made to the same aize; things suit
which agree in esaential qualities, on produce an agreeable effect when placed together; as furniture is made to suit.

If finess of parts was what constitoted the iovcliness of form, the actual employment of them would undoultedly greatly augment it.

Butex.
Her parple habit sits with sach a grace On her smooth shoulder, and so suits her face.

Drydey.
In the moral sense, the fitness of thing is what we term just, right, or decent: that which suits falls in with our ideas and feelings.

Nor fits it to prolong the feast
Timeless, indecent, bot retire to rest. Pops, Ill sults it now the joys of love to know, Too deep my gnguigh, and toc wild my woe.

Pope.
To adapt is a apecies of fitting; to accommodate is a species of suiting; both applied to the moral actions of consclous being. Adaptation is an act of the judgment; accommodation is an act of the will: we adapt by an exercise of discretion; we accommodate by a management of the humors: an adaptation does not interfere with our intereats ; but an accammodation always supposes a sacrifloe: we adapt our language to the un. derstandings of our hearers; we accom. modate ourselve日 to the humors of others. The mind of an infinitely wise Creator is clesrly evinced in the world by the univeral adaptation of means to their ends: a spirit of accommodation is not merely a characteriatic of politeness: it is of autficient importance to be ranked among the Christian dutles.
It is in his power so to adapt one thing to another, as to fulfil hits promise of making all things work together for good to those who love him.

Blate.
It is an old observation which has been mada of politicians, whe would rather ingratiate themselves with their sovereign than promote his real service, that they accommodate their connsels to his inclinations.
A.tdison.

Accommodate and adjust are both ap. plied to the affairs of men whioh require to be kept, or put, in right order: but the former implies the keeping as woll as putting in order; the latier aimply the putting in order. Men accommodate each other, that id, make things commodious for each other; but they adjust things either for themselves or for oth

## FIX

ers. Thus they accommodate each other in pecuniary matters; or they adjust the ceremonial of a visit. Accommodate likewise always supposes a certain sacrifice or yielding on the part of the person accommodating for the convenience of the person accommodated. Oo this ground we may say that a difference is either accommodated or adjusted: for it is accommodated, inasmuch as the parties yield to each other so as to make it commodious to both; it is adjusted, inasmuch as that which was wrong is set right.
When things were thins far adjustad toward a peace, all other differences were soon accommodated.

Addison.

## TO FIX, FASTEN, STICK.

FIX ( $v$. To fix, settle) is a generic term; FASTEN, i.e., to make fast, and STICK, i. e., to make to stick, are but modes of fixing: we $f i x$ whatever we make to remain in a given situation; we fasten if we fix it firmly; we stick when we fix a thing by means of sticking. A post is fixed in the ground; it is fastened to a wall by a nail; it is stuck to another board by means of glue. Shelves are fixed: a horse is fastened to a gate: bills are stuck. What is fixed may be removed in various ways: what is fastened is removed by main force: what is stuck must be separated by contrivance.

On mules and dogs the infection first began,
And last the vengeful arrowa floc ${ }^{\circ} d$ io man.
Pope.
As the bold hound that gives the lion chase, With beating bosom, and with eager pace, Hangs on hia haunch, or fastens on his heels, Guards as he turns, and circlea as he wheels.

Pope.
Some lines more moving than the reat,
stuck to the point that pierc'd her breast.
SWIFT.
TO FIX, sETTLE, ESTABLISH,
FIX, in Latin fixi, perfect of figo, and in Greek $\pi \eta \gamma \omega$, signifies simply to make to keep its place. SETTLE, which is a frequentative of set, signifies to make to sit or be at rest. ESTABLISH, from the Latin stabilis, signifies to make stable or keep its ground.

Fix is the general and indefinite term: to settle and establish are to fix strongly. Fix and settle are applied either to material or spiritual objects, establish only to moral objects. A post may be fixed in
the ground in any manner, but it requires time for it to settle. A person may either fix himself, settle himself, or estab. lish himself: the first case refers simply to his taking up his abode, or choosing a certaio spot; the second refers to his permanency of stay; and the third to the business which he raises or renders permanent.

Hell heard the insufferable noise, hell saw Heav'n ruming from heav'n, and would have flea Affrighted; but that fate had fuc' $d$ too deep Her dark foundations. Mriror.
Warm'd in the brain the brazen weapon liea, And ahades eteroal aettle o'er hia eyee. Popn.

The same distinction exists between these words in their further application to the conduct of men. We may fix one or many points, important or unimpor-tant-it is a mere act of the will; we settle many points of importance; it is an act of deliberation; thus we $f i x$ the day and hour of doing a thing; we setthe the affairs of our family: so likewise to $f i x$ is properly the act of one; to settle may be the joint act of many; thus a parent fixes on a business for his child, or he settles the marriage contract with another parent.
While wavering conncils thas his mind eagage, Fluctuates in doubtful thought the Pyliao sage, To join the host or to tha gen'ral haste, Debating long, he fioces on tha last.

Pope.
Justice submitted to what Abra pleas'd ; Her will alone could aettlig or revoke, And law was ficed by what she latest apoke.

Prior
To fix and settle are personal acts, and the objects are mostly of a private nature: but establish is an indirect action, and the object mostly of a public nature: thus we fix our opinions; we settle our minds; or we are instrumental in establishing laws, institutions, and the like. It is much to be lamented that any one should remain unsettled in his faith; and still more so, that the best form of faith is not universally established.
A pamphlet that talks of slavery, France, and the Pretender; they desire no more; it will settla the wavering and confirm the doubtful.

Buries.
I would establish but one general rule to be observed in all conversation, which is this, that "men ahould not talk to please themselvea, but those that bear them."

Stifle.

TO FLX, DETEFMINE, SETTLE, LIMIT.
To FIX ( $v$. to fix, settle) is here the general term; to DETERMINE (v. To decide) ; to SETTLE (v. To $f(x)$; to LIMIT (v. To bound), are here modes of fixing. They all denote the acts of conscious agents, but differ in the object and circumstances of the action; we may $f i x$ any object by any means, and to any point, we may fix material objects or spiritual objects; we may fix either by means of our senses or our thoughts; but we can determine only by means of our thoughts. To fix, in distinction from the rest, is said in regard to a single point or a line; but to determine is always said of one or more points, or a whole: we $f i x$ where a thing shall begin; but we determine where it shall begin, and where it shall end, which way, and how far it shall go, and the like: thus, we may $f i x$ our eye upon a star, or we $f i x$ our minds upon a particular branch of astronomy; but we determine the distance of the heavenly bodies, or the specific gravity of bodies, and the like, upon philosophical principles.
In a rotund, whether it be a building or a plantation, you can nowhere jia a houndary.

Burke.
God, who did determine the time and place for the Jewish tabernacla and temple worship, hath not prescribad tha ama circumstances fur the Christian service.

Falk nea.
So in respect to other objects, to $f x$ is a positive and immediate act; as to $f i x$ the day, hour, or minute, etc. : to determine requires consideration; as to determine times and seasons, or modes of doing things, and the like.
Your first care must be to acquire the power of fiaing your thoughta.

Blatr.
More particularly to determize the proper season for grammar; I do not see how it can be made a atudy, but as an introduction to rhetoric. Locee.
Determine is to settle as a means to the end; we commonly determine all subordinate matters, in order to settle a matter finally: thus, the determination of a single cause will serve to settle all other differences. The determination repects the act of the individual who fixes certain points and brings them to a term; the settlement respects simply the conclusion of the affair, or the termination of all dispute and question.

One had better settle on a way of life that is not the very best we might have chosen, than grow old without determining our choice.

## ADDIaON.

Religiun settles the pretensions and otherwise interfering interests of mortal men. ADDison.

To determine and limit both signify to $f i x$ boundaries; but to determine or $f i x$ a term to a thing, respects such boundaries or terms as are formed by the nature of things: to limit is the act of a conscious agent ; a question is determinod by removing the doubt; the price is limited by law, or the command of the magistrate, or the agreement of the parties.
No sooner have they climbed that hill which thua determines their view at a distance, but a new prospect is opened.

Attenauny.
How can we bind or limit his decrea By what our ear has heard or eye may see?

Phior.
TO FLAG, DROOP, LANGUISH, PINE.
To FLAG is to bang down loose like a flag. DROOP, v. To fall. To LANGUISH is to become or continue languid (v. Faint). To PINE, from the German pein, pain, is to be or continue in pain.

In the proper application, nothing flags but that which can be distended and made to flutter by the wind, as the leaves of plants when they are in want of water or in a weakly condition; hence figuratively the spirits are said to flag: nothing is said to droop but that the head of which flags or drops; the snow-drop droops, and flowers will generally droop from excess of drought or heat: the spirits in the same manner are said to droop, which expresses more than to flag; the human body also droops when the strength fails: languish is a still stronger expression than droop, and is applicable principally to persons; some languish in sickness, some in prison, and some in a state of distress: to pine is to be in a state of wearing pain which is mostly of a mental nature; n child nay pine when absent from all its friends, and supposing itself deserted.

It is variety which keeps alive deaire, which would otherwise flag.

South. Shrunk with dry famine, and with toils declin'd, The $d$ rooping body will desert the mind. Pope.

How finely has the poet told us that the sick persons languished under lingering and incurable distempers.

AdDison.
From beds of raging fire to starve in ice Their aoft ethereal warmth, there to pino, Immovably infix'd.

Mleton.

## FLEXIBLE

FLAME, BLAZE, FLASH, FLARE, GLARE.
FLAME, In Latin flamina, from the Greek $\phi \lambda \varepsilon \gamma \omega$, to burn, signifies the luminous exhalation emitted from fire. BLAZE, from the German blasen, to blow, signifies a. flame blown up, that is, an extended flame: FLASH and FLARE, which are but variations of flame, denote different species of flame; the former a sudden flame, the second a dazzling, unsteady flame. Glare, which is a variation of glow, denotes a glowing, that is, a strong fame, that emits a strong light: a candle burns only by flame, paper commonly by a blaze, gunpowder by a flash, a torch by a flare, and a conflagration by a glare.
His lightning your rebellion shall confonnd, And hurl ye headlong flaming to the ground.

Pope.
Swift as a flood of fire whan storms arise Floats the wide fiald, and blazes to the skies. Pope.
Full fifty guards each flaming pile attend, Whose -arms, by fits, thick flashes send. Pope.
Have we not seen ronnd Britain's peopled shore, Her useful sons axchang'd for useless ore, Scen all her triumphs but destruction haste, Like flaring tapers brightening as they waste? ?

Goldsmith.
Ev'n in the height of noon oppress'd, the sun Sheds, waak and blunt, his wide-refracted ray, Whence glaring oft, with many a broaden'd orh Ha frights the nations.

THOMSON.

## FLAT, LEVEL.

FLAT, in German flach, is connected with platt, broad, and that with the Latin latus, and Greek $\pi \lambda a r v c$. LEVEL, in all probability from libella and libra, a balance, signifies the evenness of a balance. Flat is said of a thing with regard to itself; it is opposed to the round or protuberant; level as it respects another thing; it is opposed to the uneven: a country is flat which has no elevation; a country is level as contrasted with that which is mountainous, or a wall is level with the roof of a house when it rises to the height of the roof.

## A fiat call hardly look well on paper.

Countess of Hertford.
The face of Switzerland is in general so mountainous that even the parts of it accounted level abound with emincnces which in other countries would be called mountains.

Gothrie.
In the moral application they differ too widely to render comparison necessary. .

FLATTERER, SYCOPHANT, PARASITE,
FLATTERER, v. To adulate. SYCO. PHANT, in Greek $\sigma u \kappa о ф а \nu \tau \eta s$, signified originally an informer on the matter of figs, but has now acquired the meaning of an obsequious and servile person. PARASITE, in Greek mapafitas, from rapa and $\sigma t r o c$, corn or meat, originally referred to the priests who attended feasts, but it is now applied to a bangeron at the tables of the great.

The flatterer is one who flatters by words; the sycophant and parasite is therefore always a flatterer, and something more, for the sycophant adopts every mean artifice by which he can ingratiate bimself, and the parasite submits to every degradation and servile compliance by which he can obtain his base purpose. These terms differ more in the object than in the means: the former having general purposes of favor; and the latter particular and still lower purposes to answer. Courtiers may be sycophants in order to be well with their prince, and ohtain preferment; but they are seldom parasites, who are generally poor and in want of a meal.

Flatterers are the hosom enemies of princes.
South.
By a revolution in the state, the fawning sycophint of yesterday is converted into the anstere critic of the present hour.

Burke.
The first of pleasures
Wera to be rich myself; but naxt to this I hold it hest to be a parasits, And feed upon the rich.

Ccyaeniand.
FLEXIBLE, PLIABLE, PLIANT, SUPPLE.
FLEXIBLE, in Latin fexibilis, from flecto, to bend, signifies able to be bent. PLIABLE signifies able to be plied or folded: PLIANT signifies literally ply: ing, bending, or folding. SUPPLE, in French souple, from the intensive syllable sub and ply, signifies very pliable.

Flexible is used in a natural or moral sense; pliable in the familiar sense only; pliant in the higher and moral application only: what can be bent in any degree as a stick is flexible; what can be bent as wax, or folded like cloth, is pliable. Supple, whether in a proper or a figurative sense, is an excess of pliability; what can be bent backward and forward, like osier twig, is supple.

In the moral application, flexible is indefinite both in degree and application; it may be greater or less in point of degree; whereas pliant supposes a great degree of pliability; and suppleness a great degrec of pliancy or pliability; it applies likewise to the outward actions, to the temper, the resolution, or the priaciples; but pliancy is applied to the principles, or the conduct dependent apon those principles; suppleness to the outward actions and behavior only. A temper is flexible which yields to the entreaties of others; the person or character is pliant when it is formed or moulded easily at the will of another; a person is supple who makes his actions and his manners bend according to the varying humors of another: the first belongs to one in a superior station who yields to the wishes of the applicant; the latter two belong to equals or inferiors who yield to the influence of others. Flexibility is frequently s weakness, but never a vice; it always consults the taste of others, sometimes to its own inconvenience, and often in opposition to its judgment; pliancy is often both a weakness and a vice: it always yields for its own pleasure, though not always in opposition to its sense of right and wrong: suppleness is always a vice, but never a wealsoess; it seeks its gratification to the injury of another by flattering his passions. Flexibility is opposed to firminess; pliancy to steadiness; sup. pleness to rigidity.
Ferty-feur is an age at which the mind begins less easily to admit new confldence, and the will te grew less fleasible.

Jernsen.
As fer the bending and ferming the mind, we should deubtless do ear atmost to render it pli$a b l e$, and by ne means stitr and refractery.
bacen.
The future is pliant and ductile. Jernson.
He that was net gupple enengh for a ceurt, was far teo hanghty fer popularity. Lozd Onferd.
to flourish, thrive, Prosper.
FLOURISHI, in French fleurir, florissant, Latin floresso or floreo, from flos, a flower, is a figure of speech borrowed from the action of flowers which grow in full vigor and health. THRIVE signifies properly to drive on. PROSPER, in Latin prosper, prosperus, compounded of pro and spero, to hope', signifies to be agreeable to the hopes.

To flourish expresses the state of bo ing that which is desirable: to thrive thie process of becoming so. In the proper sense, flourish and thrive are applied to vegetation; the former to that which is full grown; the latter to that which is in the act of growing: the oldest trees are said to flourish, which put forth their leaves and fruits in full vigor; young trees thrive when they increase rapidly toward their full growth.
The spiry myrtle with unwithering leaf Shines there and flourishss

Cowper.
Seme clothe the seil that feeds them, far dife fused
And lewly creeping, modest and yet fair, Like virtue, thriving mest where little seen.

Cowpre.
Flourish aad thrive are taken likewise in the moral sense; prosper is employed only in this sense; flourish is said either of individuals or communities of men; thrive and prosper only of individuals. To flourish is to be in full possession' of powers, physical, intellectual, and incidental: an author flourishes at a certain period; an institution flourishes; literature or trade flourishes; a nation flowrishes. To thrive is to carry on one's concerns to the advantage of one's circumstances; it is a term of familiar use for those who gain by positive labor: the industrious tradesman thrives. To prosper is to be already in advantageous circumstances: men prosper who accumulate wealth agreeably to their wishes, and beyond their expectations.

## There have been times in which no power has been brought so low as France. Few have ever flourished in greater glory. Buree.

Every thriving grazier can think himself but ill dealt with, tf within his ewn cenntry he is not ceurted.

Seठtri:
Betimes inure yeurself to examine how your estate prospers.

Wentworth.
TO FLOW, STREAM, GUSH.
FLOW, in Latin fluo, and Greek $\beta \lambda \nu \omega$ or $\phi \lambda \nu \omega$, to be in a ferment, is in all probability connected with $\rho \xi \omega$, which signifies literally to flow. STREAM; in German strömen, from riemen, a thong, signifies to run in a line. GUSH, like the German giessen, etc., signifies to run out in great quantities; to pour out with force.

Flow is bere the generic term: the
other two are specific terms, expressing different modes: water may flow either in a large body or in a long but narrow course; the stream in a long, narrow course only: thus, waters flow in seas, rivers, rivulets, or in a small pond; they stream only out of spouts, or small channels: they fow gently or otherwise; they stream gently; but they gush with violence: thus, the blood flows from a wound which comes from it in any manner; it streams from a wound when it runs, as it were, in a channel; it gushes from a wound when it runs with impetuosity, and in as large quantities as the cavity admits.
Down his wan cheek a briny torrent flows.
Pope.
Fires stream in lightning from his sanguine eyes.

Pope.
Sunk in his sad companions' arms he lay,
And in short pantings sobb'd his soul away
(Like some vile worm extended on the ground),
While his life's torrent gush'd from ont the wonnd.

Pore.

## FLUCTUATE, WAVER.

FLOCTUATE, in Latin fuctuatus, participle of fluctuo, from fluctus, a wave, signifies to move backward and forward like a wave. To WAVER is a frequentative of to wavc, which is formed from the substantive wave, and signifies the same.

To fluctuate conveys the idea of strong agitation; to waver, that of constant motion backward and forward: when applied in the moral sense, to fluctuate designates the action of the spirits or the opinions; to waver is said only of the will or opinions: he who is alternately merry and sad in quick succession is said to be fuctuating; or be who bas many opinions in quick succession is said to fluctuate; but be who cannot form an opinion, or come to a resolution, is said to waver.

The tempter, but with show of zeal and love To man, and indignation at his wrong, New parts puts on, and as to passion mov'd Fluctuates disturbed.

Milton.
Let a man, withont trepidation or wavering, proceed in discharging his duty.

Blair.

## FLUID, LIQUID.

FLUID, from fluo, to flow, signifies that which from its nature flows; LIQ-

UID, from liquesco, to melt, signifies that which is melted. These words may bs employed as epithets to the same objects; but they have a distinct office which they derive from their original meaning: when we wish to represent a thing as capable of passing along in a stream or current, we should denominate it a fluid; when we wish to represent it as passing from a congealed to a dissolved state, we should name it a liquid: water and air are both represented as fuids from their general property of flowing through certain spaces; but ice when thawed becomes a liquid and melts; melted lead is also termed a liquid: the humors of the animal body, and the juices of trees, are fluids; what we drink is a liquid, as opposed to what we eat, which is solid.

As when the fig's press'd jnice, infus'd in cream, To curds coagulates the liquid stream, Sudden the fluids fix, the parts combine. Pors.
Then thrice the raven rends the liquid air, Its croaking notes proclaim the settled fair.

Dryden.
TO FOLLOW, SUCCEED, ENSUE.
FOLLOW, in Saxon folgean, Danish volgen, is probably connected with the German wandeln, to go, the English wan. der, and the Greek $\varepsilon \lambda \kappa \omega$, to draw. SUC. CEED is in Latin succedo, compounded of sub and cedo, to walk after. ENSUE, in Freach ensuivve, Latin insequor, signifies to follow close upon the back or at the heels.

Follow and succeed is said of persons and things; ensue of things only : follow, in respect of persons, denotes the going in order, in a trace or line; succeed denotes the going or being in the same place immediately after another: many persons may follow one another at the same time; but only one individual properly succeeds another. Follow is taken literally for the motion of the physical body in relation to another; succeed is taken in the moral sense for taking the place of another : people follow each other in a procession, or one follows another to the grave; a king succeeds to a throne, or a son succeeds to the inheritance of his father. To follow may also be to go in the same course, though not at the same time, as to follow a person to the grave
in the sense of dying after him: to necceed is always to go in the place of another, whether living or dead, as one minister of state succeeds another, or a son succeeds his father.

If a man of a good genins for fsble were to represent the nature of pleasure and pain in that wsy of writing, he would probsbly join them together after such a msnner that it would be impossible for the ons to come into any place without being followed by the other.

ADDISON.
One sorrow never comes, but brings an heir That may onccoed as sn inheritor. Shatspeare.
Persons may follow things, but things only succeed things: as to follow a rule, or follos a course of conduct.
"Now, now"," ssid he, "my son, no more delay;; I yield, I folloro where Heav'n shows the way."

DRYDEN,
To follow, in relation to things, is said either simply of the order in which they go, or of such as go by a connection between them; to succeed implies simply to take the place after another; to ensuse is to follow by a necessary convection: as in a natural tempest one wave of the sea follows another in rapid succession, so in the moral tempest of political revolutions one mad convulsion is quickly succeeded by another: nothing can ensue from popular commotions but bloodshed and misery. Follow is used in general propositions; ensue is used in specific cases: $\sin$ and misery follow each other as cause and effect; quarrels too often ensue from the conversations of violent men who differ either in religion or politics.
Be kind, and follow me no more,
For care by right should go befors.
Gay. Ulysses hastens with a trembling heart, Before him steps, and bending drsws the dsrt: Forth fiows the blood; an eager pang succoeds, Tydides mounts, and to the navy speeds. Pope.
Nor deem this dsy, this bsttle, all you lose; A day more black, a fate more vile ensues; Impetnous Hector thunders st the wall,
The hour, the spot, to conquer or to fall. Pope.

## TO FOLLOW, PURSUE.

The idea of going after any object in order to reach or obtain it is common to these terms, but under different circum. stances : to FOLLOW ( $v$. To follow) a person is mostly with a friendly intention; to PURSUE (v. To continue) with a hostile intention : a person follows his fellow-traveller whom be wishes to over-
take; the officers of justice pursue the criminal whom they wish to apprehend: so likewise the huntsmen and hunters follow the dogs in the chase; the dags pursue the hare.
Still close they follow, close the resr engage ; Eneas storms, and Hector fosms with rage.

Popr.
The same Rutilians, who with arms pursue
The Trojse race, are equsl foes to you. Dayden.
In application to things, follow is taken more in the passive, and pursue more in the active sense: a man follows the plan of another, and pursues his own plan; he follows his inclinations, and pursues an object.
The felicity ls when any one is so happy ss to find out and follow what is the proper bent of his genlus.

Steele.
Look round the habitable world, how few Know their own good, or, knowing it, puraice I

Dayden.

## to follow, imitate.

FOLLOW, v. To follow, succeed. TMITATE, in Latin imitatus, participle of imito, from the Greek $\mu \mu \mathrm{\varepsilon} \omega$, to mimic, and ouotos, alike, signifies to do or make alike.

Both these terms denote the regulating our actions by something that offers itself to us, or is set before us; but we follow that which is either internal or external ; we imitate that only which is external: we either follow the dictates of our own minds or the suggestions of others; but we imitate the conduct of others: in regard to external objects, we follow either a rule or an example; hut we imitate an example only: we follow the footsteps of our forefathers; we imitate their virtues and their perfections: it is advisable for young persons as closely as possible to follow the good example of those who are older and wiser than themselves; it is the bounden duty of every Christian to imitate the example of our blessed Saviour to the utmost of his power.
And I with the ssme greediness did seek, As water when 1 thirst, to swallow Greek; Which I did only learn thst I might know Those grest examples which I follow now.

## Denhak

The world's a school Of wrong, and what proficients swarm around Wa must, or imitate, or disapprove,
Must list as their accomplices or foes-
YODNa

To follow and imitate may both be applied to that which is good or bad: the former to any action, but the latter only to the behavior or the mode of doing anything: we may follow a person in bis career of virtue or vice; we imitate his gestures, tone of voice, and the like.
With Addison, the wits, his adherents and followers, were certain to concur.

JOENSOM.
The imitators of Milton seem to place all the excellency of that sort of writing in the use of uncouth or antique words.

Johnson.

## FOLLOWER, ADHERENT, PARTISAN.

A FOLLOWER is one who follows'a person generally; an ADHERENT is one who adheres to his cause ; a PARTISAN is the follower of a party: the follower follows either the person, the interests, or the principles of any one; thus the retinue of a nobleman, or the friends of a statesman, or the friends of any man's opinions, may be styled his followers; but the adherent is that kind of follower who espouses the interests of another, as the adherents of Charles I.: a follower follows near or at a distance; but the adherent is always near at hand; the partisan hangs on or keeps at a certain distance: the follower follows from various motives; the adherent adheres from a personal motive; the partisan, from a partial motive: Charles I. had as many adherents as he had followers; the rebels had as many partisans as they had adherents.

The mournful followers, with assistant care, The groaning liero to his chariot hear. Pope.
The religion in which Pope lived and died was that of the cburch of Rome, to which in his correspondence with Racine he professes himself a aincere adherent.

Johnson.
They (the Jacobins) then proceed in argument as if all those who disspprove of their now abuses must of course be partisans of the old. Boane.

## FOLLY, FOOLERY.

FOLLY is the abstract of foolish, and eharacterizes the thing; FOOLERY the abstract of fool, and characterizes the person: we may commit an act of folly without being chargeable with weakness or folly; but none are guilty of fooleries who are not themselves fools, either babitually or temporarily: young people are perpetually committing follies if not under proper control; fashionable people
lay aside one foolery only to take up an other.
This peculiar ill property has folly, that it enlarges men's desires while it lessens their capace ities.

Souts.
If you are so much transported with the sight of beautiful persons, to what ecstasy wonld it raise you to behold the original beauty, not filled up with flesh and blood, or varnished with a fading mixture of colors, and the rest of mortal trifles and fooleries.

Watse.

## FOOD, DIET, REGIMEN.

FOOD signifies the thing which one feeds upon, in Saxon fode, low German fóde or fôder, Greek $\beta$ orєıv. DIET, from dıautaw, to live medicinally, signifies any particular mode of living. REGIMEN, in Latin regimen, from rego, signifies a system or practice by rule.

All these terms refer to our living, or that by which we live: food is here the general term; the others are specific. Food specifies no circumstance; whatever is taken to maintain life is food: diet is properly prescribed or regular food: it is the hard lot of some among the poor to obtain with difficulty food and clothing for themselves and their families; an attention to the diet of children is an important branch of their early education. Food is an unqualified term, applicable to either man or beast; diet is applied to man only, not merely to individuals in the limited sense, but to the species in the sense of their daily and regular food.
Smith, in his History of Kerry, relates that a poor man in that country got a comfortable anbsistence for his family during a summer of famine out of an eagle's nest, by robhing the eaglets of their food.

GoLDsmith.
The diet of men in a state of nature must have been confined almost wholly to the vegetable kind.

Buade.
Food has also a figurative application which diet has not.
The poison of other states (that is bankruptey) is the food of the new republic.

Bdree.
Diet and regimen are both particular modes of living; but the former respects the quality of food; the latter the quantity as well as quality: diet is confined to modes of taking nourishment; regimen often respects the abstinience from food, bodily excrcise, and whatever mar conduce to health: diet is generally tho

## FORBID

consequence of an immediate prescription from a physician, and during the period of sickDess; regimien commonly forms a regular part of a man's system of living: diet is in certain cases of such importance for the restoration of a patient that a single deviation may defeat the hest medicine ; it is the misfortune of some people to be troubled with diseases, from which they cannot get any exemption but by observing a strict regimen.
Prolongation of life is rather to be expected from stated diets than from any common regiman.

Bacon.
I shall always be ahle to entertain a friend of a philosophical reginen.

Shenstone.

## FOOL, IDIOT, BUFFOON.

FOOL is doubtless connected with our word foul, in German faul, which is either nasty or lazy, and the Greek $\phi$ au入os, which signifies worthless or good for nothing. IDIOT comes from the Greek ،dowrys, signifying either a private persoo or one that is rude and unskilled in the ways of the world. BUFFOON, in French bouffon, is in all probability connected with our word beef, huffalo, and bull, signifying a senseless fellow.
The fool is either naturally or artificially a fool; the idiot is a natural fool; the buffoon is an artificial fool: whoever violates common-sense in his actions is a fool; wheever is unable to act according to common-sense is an idiot; whoever intentionally violates common-sense is a buffoon.
Thought'g the slave of life, and life's time's fool.
Shakgpeare.
Idiots are still in request in most of the courts of Germany, where there is not a prince of any great magnificence who has not two or three dressed, distinguished, undisputed fools in his retinue.

AdDison.
Homer has described a Valcan that is a buffoon among his gods, and a Thersites among his mortals.

Addison.

## FOOLHARDY, ADVENTUROUS, RASH.

FOOLHARDY signifies having the hardihood of a fool. ADVENTUROUS signifies ready to venture. RASH is in German rasch, which signifies swift, and is connected with the Arabic raaschen, to go swiftly.

Foolhardy expresses more than the
adventurous; and adventurous than rash. The foolhardy man ventures in defiance of consequences: the adventurous man ventures from a love of the arduous and the bold; the rash man ventures for waut of thought: courage and boldness become foolhardihood when they lead a person to run a fruitless risk; an adventurous spirit sometimes leads a man lnto unnecessary difficulties; but it is a necessary accompaniment of greatnass. There is not so much design, but there is more violence and impetuosity in rash. ness than io foolhardihood: the former is the consequence of an ardent temper which will admit of correctioa by the in, fluence of the judgment; but the latter comprehends the perversion of both the will and the judgment. An infidel is foolhardy, who risks his future salva. tion for the mere gratification of his pride; Alexander was an adventurous prince, who delighted in enterprises io proportion as they presented difficulties; he was likewise a rash prince, as was evinced by his jumping into the river Cydnus while he was hot, and by his leaping over the wall of Oxydrace, and exposing himself singly to the attack of the enemy.
If any yet be so foolhardy,
T, expose themselves to yain jeopardy, If they come wounded off and lame, No honor's got by snch a maim.
Twas an old way of recreating,
Which learned butchers called bear-haiting, A hold advent'rous exercise. Butlen. Why wilt thou, then, renew the vain pursult, And rashly catch at the forhidden fruit?

Prior

TO FORBID, PROHIBIT, interdict.
The for in FORBID, like the German ver, is pegative, signifying to bid not to do. The $p r o$ in PROHIBIT, and inter in INTERDICT, have both a similarly negative sense : the former verb, from habeo, to have, signifies to bave or hold that a thing shall not be done, to restrain from doing; the latter, from dico, to say, signifies to say that a thing shall not he done.

Forbid is the ordinary term ; prohibit is the judicial term ; interdict the moral term. To forbid is a direct and personal act ; to prohibit is an indirect action that operates by means of extended influence:
both imply the exercise of power or authority by any person; but the former is more applicable to the power of private persons, and the latter to the authority of government. A parent forbids his child marrying when he thinks proper: the government prohibits the use of spirituous liquors. Interdict is a species of forbidding applied to more serious concerns, as to interdict the use of any one strong drink. To forbid or interdict are opposed to command; to prohibit, to allow. As nothing is forbidden to Christians which is good and just in itself, so nothing is commanded that is hurtful and unjust. As no one is prohibited in our own country from writing that which can tead to the improvement of mankind; so on the other hand he is not allowed to indulge his private malignity by the publication of injurious personalities.

> The father of Constantia was so incensed at the father of Theodosius that he forbade the son bis Aouse. A think that all persons (that is, quacks) should be prohibited from curing their incurable patieats by act of parliament. Hawkeaworth. It is not to be desired that morality sbould be conaidered as intardicted to all future writera. Jonnaon.

Forbid and interdict, as personal acts, are properly applicable to persons only, but by an improper application are extended to things; prohibit, however, in the general sense of restraining, is applied with cqual propricty to things as to persons: shame forbids us doing a thing; law, authority, and the like, prohibit.

Life's span forbids us to extend our cares, And stretch our hopes beyond our years.

Creech.
Other ambitlon nature interdicts. Yoonc.
Fear prohibits endeavors by infusing despalr of success.

Johnson.

## FORCE, VIOLENCE.

Both these terms imply an exertion of strength; but the former in 8 much less degree than the latter. FORCE (v. To compel) is ordinarily employed to supply the waut of a proper will ; VIOLENCE, in Latin violentia, from vis, and the Greek $\beta_{l} \alpha_{1}$ strength, is used to counteract an opposing will. The arm of justice must exercise force in order to bring offenders to a proper account; one nation exercises
violence against another in the act of car rying on war. Force is mostly conform able to reason and equity; violence is al. ways resorted to for the attainment of that which is unattainable by law. All who are invested with authority have occasion to use force at certain times to subdue the unruly will of those who should subnit: violence and rapine are inseparable companions; a robber could not subsist by the latter without exercisiag the former.
Our host expell'd, what further forca can stay The victor troops from universal sway?

Dhyden.
He sees his diatress to be the immediate effect of humas violence or oppression ; and ia obliged at the same time to consider it as a divine judgmeat.

Blaia.
In an extended and figurative application to things, these terms convey the same general idea of exerting strength. That is said to have force that acts with force; and that to have violence that acts with violence. A word, an expression, or a remark, has force or is forcible; a disorder, a passion, a sentiment, has violence or is violent. Force is always something desirable; violence is always something hurtful. We ought to listen to arguments which have force in them; we endeavor to correct the violence of all aagry passions.
It is much easier to keep ourselves void of reaentment than to restrain it from excess when it has gained admission ; for if reason, while her strength is yet entire, is unable to preserve her dnminion, what can she do when ber enemy has in the least prevailed and weakened her force.

Holland.
The mind, if duly cantious, may stand firm on the rock of tranquillity, but if she rashly forsake the summit she can scarcely recover berself, but is hurried away downward by her own passioa with increasing violence.

Holland.

## FOREFATHERS, PROGENITORS, ANCEA-

 TORS.FOREFATHERS sigoifies our fathers before us, and includes our immediate parents. PROGENITORS, from pro and gigno, signifies those begotten before us, exclusive of our immediate parents. ANCESTORS, coutracted from antecessors, or those going before, is said of those from whom we are remotely descended. Forefathers is a partial and familiar term for the preceding branches of any family.

We passed slightly over three or four of oar immediate forefathers whom we knew by tradltion.

Addibon.
Progenitors is a higher term in the same sense, applied to families of distioction: we speak of the forefathers of a peasant, but the progenitors of a nobleman.
Each in his narrow cell forever laid,
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep. Gray.
Suppose a gentleman, full of his illustrioos family, should see the whole line of his progenitors pass in review befure him; with how many varying passions woald he behold shepherds, soldiers, princes, and beggars walk in the procession of five thousand years !

Addison.
Forefathers and progenitors, but particularly the latter, are said mostly of individuals, and respect the regular line of succession in a family; ancestors is employed collectively as well as individually, and regards simply the order of succession: we may speak of the ancestors of a nation as well as of any particular person.
It is highly landable to pay respect to men who are descended from worthy ancestors.

ADDIgON.
The term ancestor may also be applied figuratively.

O majestic night
Nature's great ancestor !
Youna.
Forerunner, precursor, messenGER, HARBINGER.
FORERUNNER and PRECURSOR signify literally the same thing, namely, one running before; but the term forerunner is properly applied only to one who runs before to any spot to communicate intelligence; and it is figuratively applied to things which in their nature, or from a natural connection, precede others; precursor is only employed in this figurative sense: thus imprudent speculations are said to be the forerunners of a man's ruin; the ferment which took place in men's minds was the precursor of the revolution.

Lous of sight is the misery of life, and usaally the forerunner of death.

South.
Gospeller was a name of contempt given by the papists to the Lollards, the Poritans of early times, and the precursors of Protestantism.

Johmson.
MESSENGER signifies literally one bearing messages: and HARBINGER,
from the Teutonic herbinger, signifies a provider of a herberge, or inn, for princes. Both terms are employed for persons: but the messenger states what has been or is; the harbinger announces what is to be. Our Saviour was the messenger of glad tidings to all mankind: the proph. ets were the harbingers of the Messiah A messenger may be employed on differ. ent offices; a harbinger is a messenger who acts in a specific office. The angels are represented as messengers on different occasions. John the Baptist was the harbinger of our Saviour, who prepared the way of the Lord. They are both applied figuratively to other objects.
His words are boads, his oaths are oracles, His tears pare messengers seot from his heart.

Shakbpeare.
Sin, and her shadow death; and misery,
Death's harbinger.
Milton.
FORESIGHT, FORETHOUGHT, FORE-

## CAST, PREMEDITATION.

FORESIGHT, from seeing before, and FORETHOUGHT, from thinking beforehand, denote the simple act of the mind in seeing a thing before it happens: FORECAST, from casting the thoughts onward, signifies coming at the knowledge of a thing beforehand by means of calculation: PREMEDITATION, from meditate, signifies obtaining the same knowledge by force of meditating or reflecting deeply. Foresight and forethought are genes al and indefinite terms; we employ them either on ordinary or extraordinary occasions; but forethought is of the two the most familiar term; fore cast and premeditation mostly in the latter case: all business requires foresight; state concerns require forecast; foresight and forecast respect what is to happen; they are the operations of the mind in calculating futurity: premeditation respects what is to be said or done; it is a preparation of the thoughts and designs for action: by foresight and forecast we guard against evils and provide for contingencies; by premeditation we guard against errors of conduct. A man betrays his want of foresight who does not provide against losses in trade; he shows his want of forecast who does not provide against old age; he shows his want of premeditation who acts or speaks on the
impulse of the moment: the man, therefore, who does a wicked act without premeditation lessens his guilt.
The wary crane foresees it first, and sails Above the storm, aud leaves the lowly vales.

Dryden.
Let him forecast his work with timely care, Which else is huddled, when the skies are fair.

Dayden.
The tongue may fail and falter in her sudden extemporal expressions, but the pen, having a greater advantage of premeditation, is not so subject to error.

Howell.

## FOREST, CHASE, PARK,

Are all habitations for animals of venery; but the forest is of the first magnitude and importance, it being a franchise and the property of the king; the CHASE and PARK may be either public or private property. The forest is so formed of wood, and covers such an extent of ground, that it may be the hannt of wild beasts; of this description are the forests in Germany: the chase is an indefinite aad open space that is allotted expressly for the chase of particular animals, such as deer; the park is an enclosed space that serves for the preservation of domestic animals.

## TO FORETELL, PREDICT, PROPHESY, PROGNOSTICATE.

To FORETELL, compounded of fore and tell; PREDICT, from proe and dico; PROPHESY, in French prophetiser, Latin prophetiso, Greek $\pi \rho \circ \phi \eta \tau \varepsilon v \omega$, all signify to tell, expound, or deolare what is to happen, and convey the idea of a verbal communication of futurity to others: PROGNOSTICATE, from the Greek $\pi \rho o y i v(\omega-$ $\sigma \kappa \omega$, to know heforehand, to bode or imagine to one's self beforehand, denotes the action of feeling or knowing, rather than speaking of things to come.

Foretell is the most general in its sense, and famlliar in its application; we may foretell common events, although we cannot predict or prophesy anything important: to foretell is an ordinary gift; one foretells by a simple calculation or guess: to predict and prophesy are extruordinary gitits; one predicts by a supernatural power, real or supposed; one prophesies by means of inspiration. Men of discernment and experience easily foretell the eveuts of undertakiogs which fall under
their notice. The pricsts among the hea thens, like the astrologers and conjurors of more modern times, pretended to predict events that affected nations and empires. The gift of prophecy was one among the number of the supernatural gifts communicated to the primitive Christians by the Holy Ghost.
Above the rest, the sun, who never lies, Foretells the change of weather in tha skies.

Dexden.
The consequences of snffering the French to establish themselves in Scotland are predicted. with great accuracy and discernment.

Robertyon.
An anclent augur prophesied from hence,
"Bahold on Latin shores a foreign prince 1 "
Dryinen.
Prediction, as a noun, is employed for both the verbs foretell and prediut; it is, therefore, a term of less value thaty prophecy. We speak of a prediction being verified, and a prophecy fulfilled: the predictions of almanac-makers respecting the weather are as seldom verified ns the prophecies of visionaries and enthusiasts are fulfilled respecting the dsath of princes or the affairs of governments.
The prediotions of cold and long winters, hot and dry summers, are good to be known.

Bacon,
He hearkens after prophecie日 and dreams.

## Shafgpiare.

To prognosticate is an act of the understanding; it is guided by outward symp. toms as a rule; it is only stimulated, and not guided by outward objects; a physician prognosticates the crisis of a disorder hy the symptoms discoverable in the patient.
Who that slould riew the small beginnings of some persons could imagine or prognosticate those vast increases of fortuve that lave after' ward followed them.

Socta,

## FORGETFULNESS, OBLIVION.

FORGETFULNESS characterizes the person, or that which is personal; OB. LIVION the state of the thing: the former refers to bim who forgets; the latter to that which is forgotten: we blame a person for his forgetfulness; but we sometimes bury things in oblivion.

I have read in ancient anthors invitations to lay aside care and anxiety, and give a lopse to that pleasing forgetfulness wherein men put off their characters of husiness.

STHELE

## FORM

O'er all the rest, an undistinguished crew, Her wing of deepest shade oblivion drew.

Faiconea.

## TO FORGIVE, PARDON, ABSOLVE, REMIT.

FGRGIVE, compounded of the privative for and give; and PARDON, in French pardonner, compounded likewise of the privative par or per and donner, to give, both signify not to give the punishment that is due, to relax from the rigor of justice in demending retribution. Forgive is the familiar term ; pardon is adapted to the serious style. Individuals forgive each other personal offences; they pardon offences against law and morals: the former is an act of Christian charity; the latter an act of clemency: the former is an act that is confined to no condition; the latter is peculiarly the act of a superior. He who has the right of being offended has an opportunity of forgiving the offender; he who has the authority of punishing the offence may pardon.

## No more Aclilles draws

His conqu'ring sword in any woman's causc. The goda command me to forgive the past, But let this first invasion be the last. Pope.

A being who has nothing to pardon in himself may reward cvery man according to his works; hut he whose very best actions must be seen with a grain of allowance, cannot be too mild, moderate, and forgiving. Andison.
Pardon, when compared with REMISSION, is the consequence of offence; it respects principally the person offending; it depends upon him who is offended; it produces reconciliation when it is sincerely granted and sincerely demanded. Remission is the consequence of the crime; it has more particular regard to the punishment; it is granted either by the prince or magistrates; it arrests the execution of justice. Remission, like pardon, is peculiarly applicable to the sinner with regard to his Maker. ABSOLUTION is taken in no other sense: it is the consequence of the fault or the sin, and properly concerns the state of the culprit; it properly loosens him from the tie with which he is bound; it is pronounced either by the civil judge or the ecclesiastical minister; and it re-establishes the accused or the penitent in the rights of innocence.
Round in his nrn the blended balls he rolls, Absolves the just, and dooms the guilty souls.

The sof Nappan race will soon repent Their anger, and remit the punishment.

Dryden
FORM, FIGURE, CONFORMAIION.
FORM, in French forme, Latin forma, most probably from фор $\mu \mu$ and форew, to bear, signifies properly the image horne or stamped. FIGURE (v. Figure) signifies the image feigned or conceived. CONFORMATION, in French conformation, in Latin conformatio, from conform, signifies the image disposed or put together.

Form is the generic term; figure and conformation are special terms. The form is the work either of nature or art; it results from the arrangement of the parts: the figure is the work of design: it includes the general contour or outline: the conformation includes such a disposition of the parts of the hody ss is adapted for performing certain functions. Form is the property of every substance; and the artiticial form approaches nearest to perfection as it is most natural; the figure is the fruit of the imagination; it is the representation of the actual form that belongs to things; it is more or less just as it approaches to the form of the thing itself : conformation is said only with regard to animal bodies; nature renders it more or less suitable according to the accidental concurrence of physical causes. The erect form of man is one of the distinguishing marks of his superiority over every other terrestrial being: the human figure when well painted is an object of admiration: the turn of the mind is doubtless influenced by the conformation of the organs. A person's form is said to be handsome or ugly, common or uncommon; his figure to be correct or incorrect; a conformation to be good or bad. Heathens have worshipped the Deity under various forrns: mathematical figures are the only true figures with which we are acquainted: the craniologist affects to judge of characters by the conformation of the skull.
Matter, as wise logiciana say,
Cannot without a form subsist ;
And form, say 1 as well as they,
Must fail if matter brings no grist. Swipt.
When Cæsar was one of the masters of the Roman mint, be placed the figure of an elephant upon the reverse of the pnblic money; the word Cesar signifying an elephant in the Punic language.

ADDIBOM.

As the conformation of their organs is nearly the same in all men, so the manner of perceiving external objects is in all men the same. Bober.

Form and figure are used in a moral application, although conformation is not. We speak of adopting a form of faith, a form of words, a form of godliness; cutting a showy, a dismal, or ridiculous figure.
$O$ ceremony l show me hut thy worth, Art thon anght else but place, degree, and form, Creating fear and awe in other men?

Shakspeare.
Those who make the greatest figure in most arts and sciences are universally allowed to be of the British nation.

Andison.
TO FORM, FASHION, MOULD, SHAPE.
To FORM is to put into a form, which is here as before ( $v$. Form) the generic term: to FASHION is to put into a particular or distinct form; to MOULD is to put into a set form; to SHAPE is to form simply as it respects the exterior. As everything respects a form when it receives existence, so to form conveys the idea of producing. When we wish to represent a thing as formed in any distinct or remarkable way, we may speak of it as fashioned. God formed man out of the dust of the ground; he fashioned him after his own image. When we wish to represent a thing as formed according to a precise rule, we should say it was moulded; thus the habits of a man are moulded at the will of a superior. When we wish to represeat a thing as receiving the accidental qualities which distinguish it from others, we talk of shaping it: the potter shapes the clay; the milliner shapes a bonnet; a man shapes his actions to the humors of another.

Horace was intimate with a prince of the greatest goodness and humanity imapinable; and his court was formed after his example. Steele.

By the best information that I could get of this matter, I am apt to think that this prodigions pile was faskioned into the shaps it now bears by several tools and instruments, of which they have a wooderful variety in this country.

ADDISON.
How dare you, mother, endless date demand,
For vesscls moulded hy a mortal hand?
Deyden.
Those which oature hath shapsd with a great head, narrow breast, and shoolders sticking out, seem, much incliced to a consumptiou. Harvex.

## TO FORM, COMPOSE, CONSTXTUTE.

FORM (v. Form) is a generic and indefinite term, signifying to give a form To COMPOSE (v. To compose) and CON. STITUTE (v. To constitute) are modes of forming. These words may be employed either to designate modes of action, or to characterize things. Things may be formed either by persons or things; they are composed and constituted only by con. scious agents: thus persons form things, or things form one another: thus we form a circle, or the reflection of the light after rain forms a rainhow. Persons compose and constitute: thus a musician composes a piece of music, or men constitute laws.

To form, in regard to persons, is simply to put into a form; to compose is to put together into a form; and to constitute is to make to stand together in a form; to form, therefore, does not qualify the action: one forms a thing without defining how, whether at once or by degrees, whether with one or several materials; to compose and constitute are both modes of forming by the help of several materials, with device and contrivance; compose is said of that which only requires to be put together; constitute of that to which a certain degree of stability must be given. God formed man, man forms a cup or a vessel; be composes a book; he constitutes offices, bodies politic, and the like.

The liquid ore he drain'd Into fit moulds prepar'd, from which he form'd First his own tools.

Mibron.
Words so pleasing to God as those which the Soo of God himself hath composed, were not possible for men to frame.

Hooker
This makes the constitution of a state, and the due distribution of its powers, a matter of the most delicate and complicated skill. Boress.

When employed to characterize things, form signifies simply to have a form, be it either simple or complex; compose and constitute are said only of those things which have complex forms; the former as respecting the material, the latter the essential parts of an object: thus we may say that an object forms a circle, or a semicircle, or the segment of a circle: a society is composed of individuals; but law and order constitute the essence of society : so letters and syllables compose
a word; but sense is essential to constitute a word.

All animala of the same kind whlch form a society are inore knowing than othera.

## Nor did Israel 'scape

Th' infectlon, when their borrow'd gold compos' $\boldsymbol{d}$ The calf in Orlel.

Milton.
To recelve and to communicate assiatance constitutes the happiness of human life. Jobngon.

## FORM, CEREMONY, RITE, OBSERVANCE.

FORM, v. Form, figure. CEREMONY, in Latin cerernonia, is supposed to signify the rites of Ceres. RITE, in Latin ritus, is probably changed from ratus, signifying a custom that is esteemed. OBSERVANCE signifies the thing observed.

All these terms are employed with regard to particular modes of action in civil society. Form is here, as in the preceding sections, the most general in its sense and application; ceremony, rite, and observance are particular kinds of form, suited to particular occasions. Form, in its distinct application, respects all determinate modes of acting and speaking, that are adopted by society at large, in every transaction of life; seremony respects those forms of outward behavior which are made the expressions of respect and deference; rite and $o b$ servance are applied to national ceremonies in matters of religion. A certain form is requisite for the sake of order, method, and decorum, in every social matter, whether in affairs of state, in a court of law, in a place of worship, or in the private intercourse of friends. So long as distinctions are admitted in society, and men are agreed to express their sentiments of regard and respect to each other, it will be necessary to preserve the ceremonies of politeness which have been established. Administering oaths by the magistratc is a necessary form in law ; kissing the king's hand is a ceremony practised at court.

[^58]As far as form, ceremonies, rites, and observances respect religion, the first is used in the most universal and unqualified sense in respect to religion generally or any particular form: the second may be said either of an individual or a community; the third only of a community; and the last, more properly, of an individual either in public or private. There can be no religion without some form, but there may be different forms which are equally good. Every country bas adopted certain rites founded upon its peculiar religious faith, and prescribed certain observances by which individuals can make a public profession of their faith : baptism is onc rite of initiation into the Christian church; kneeling at prayer is a ceremony, prayer itself is an observance.

You may discover tribes of men without policy, or laws, or cities, or any of the arts of life; but nowhere will yon find them without some form of religion.

Blaif.
He who afflmeth speeeh to be neeessary among all men throughont the world, doth not thereby import that the men muat necessarily speak one language; even ao the necessity of polity and regimen in all ehurehes, without holding any one certain form to be necesaary in them all.

Hookef.
Bring her up to the high altar, that she may The sacred coremonies partake.

Spenaeb.
Live thon to monrn thy love'a unhappy fate, To bear my mangled body from the foe,
Or buy it back, and fun'ral rites bestow.
Dhyden.
Incorporated minds will always feel some inclination toward exterior acts and ritual obaarvancea.

Johnaon.

## FORMAL, CEREMONIOUS, CEREMONIAL.

FORMAL and CEREMONIOUS, from form and ceremony (v. Form, ceremony), are either taken in an indifferent sense with respect to what contains form and ceremony, or in a bad sense, expressing the excess of form and ceremony. A person expects to have a formal dismissal before he considers himself as dismissed ; people of fashion pay each other ceremonious visits, by way of keeping up a distant intercourse.
I have not thought fit to return them any formal answer.

ADDISON.
Throw away reapect,
Tradition, form, and carenlonioua duty,
For you have but mistook me all this while.
ShaEbpeane

## FORMLDABLE

CEREMONLAL is employed in the sense of appertaining to prescribed ceremonies; and formal implies appertaining to prescribed forms in public matters, as formal communications from one government to another: it is the business of the church to regulate the cerenonial part of religion.

As there are formal and written leagues, respective to certain enemies, so there is a natnral and tacit confederation among all men against the common enemies of human society. Bacon.
Christ's Gospel is not a ceremonial law (as mnch of Moses's law was), but it is a religion to serve God, not in the bondage of the figure or shadow, but in tbe freedom of the Spirit, being content ouly with those which do serve to a decent order and godly discipline.

Preface to the Common Paater Book.
Ceremonious was formerly used in the same sense as ceremonial.

Under a different ceremony of religion God was more tender of the shell and ceremonious part of his worhsip. South.
Formal, in the bad sense, is opposed to easy: ceremonious to the cordial, A formal carriage prevents a person from indulging himself in the innocent familiarities of friendly intercourse; a ceremonious carriage puts a stop to all hospitality and kindness. Princes, in their formal intercourse with each other, know nothing of the pleasures of society; ceremonious visitants give and receive entertainments, without tasting any of the enjoyments which flow from the reciprocity of kind offices:

Formal in apparel,
In gait and countenance surely like a father.
Smakspeare.
From the moment one sets up for an author, one must be treated as ceremoniously, that is, as unfaithfully, "as a king's favorlte, or as a king."

Pope.
FORMERLY, IN TIMES PAST, OR OLD TLMES, DAYS OF YORE, ANCIENTLY, OR ANCIENT TIMES.
FORMERLY supposes a less remote period than IN TIMES PAST: and that less remote than IN DAYS OF YORE and ANCIENTLY. The first two may be said of what happens within the age of man ; the last two are extended to many generations and ages. Any individual may use the word formerly with regard to himself : thus, we enjoyed our
health better formerly than now. An old man may speak of times past, as when he says he does not enjoy himself as $\mathrm{h}_{0}$ did in times past. OLD TIMES, days of yore, and anciently are more applicable to nations than to individuals; and all these express different degrees of remote. ness. With respect to our present period, the age of Queen Elizabeth may bo called old times; the days of Alfred, and still later, the days of yore: the earliest period in which Britain is mentioned may be termed ANCIENT TIMES.

[^59] Thomson.

FORMIDABLE, DREADFUL, TERRIBLE, SHOCKING.
FORMIDABLE is applied to that which is apt to excite fear (v. Th apprehend); DREADFUL (v. To apprehend) to what is calculated to excite dread; TERRI: BLE ( $v$. Alarm) to that which excites terror; and SHOCKING (from shake) is ap. plied to that which violently shakes or agitates (v. To agitate). The formidable acts neither suddenly nor violently; the dreadful may act violently, but not suddenly: thus the appearance of an army may be formidable; but that of a field of battle is dreadful. The terrible and shocking act both suddenly and violently; but the former acts both on the senses and the imagination, the latter on the moral feelings: thus, the glare of a tiger's eye is terrible; the unexpected news of a friend's death is shocking.

France continued not only powerful, but formiduble, to the hour of the ruln of the monarchy.

Burke
Think, timely think, on the last dreadful dey.
Dryinen.
When men are arrived at thinking of their very dissolution with pleasure, how few things are there that can be tervible to them ! Stibele.

Nothing could be more shocking to a generous nobility than the intrusting to mercenary hands the defence of those territories which had been acquired or preserved by the blood of their ancestors.

Rosertiong

HORSAKEN, FORLORN, DESTITUTE.
To be FORSAKEN ( $v$. To abaindon) is to be deprived of the company and assistance of those wa have looked to; to be FORLORN, in the German verloren, lost, is to be forsaken in time of difficulty, to he without a guide in an unknown road; to be DESTITUTE, from the Latin destitulus, is to be deprived of the first necessaries of life. To be forsaken is a partial situation; to be forlorn and destitute is a permanent condition. We may be forsaken by a fellow-traveller on the road; we ara forlorn when we get into a deserted path with no one to direct us; we are destitute whan we have no means of subsistence, nor the prospect of ohtaining the means. It is particularly painful to be forsaken by the friend of our youth, and the sharer of our fortunes; the orphan who is left to travel the road of life without counsellor or friend is of all others in the most forlorn condition; if to this be added poverty, his misery is aggravated by his becoming destitute.

But fearful for themselves, iny countrymen
Left me forsaken in the Cyclops' den. Dexden.
Conscience made them (Joseph's brethren) recollect that they who had once been deaf to the supplications of a brother were now left friendless and forlorn.

Blair.
Friendless and destitute, Dr. Goldismith was exposed to all the miseries of indigence in a foreigu country.

JOHNSON.

## TO FORSWEAR, PERJURE, SUBORN.

FORSWEAR is Saxon; PERJURE is Latin; the prepositions for and per are both privative, and the words slgnify literally to swear contrary to the truth; this is, however, not their only distinction: to forswear is applied to all kinds of oaths; to perjure is employed only for such oaths as have been administered by the civil magistrate. A soldier forswears himself who breaks his oath of allegiance hy desertion; and a subject farswears hiraself who takes an oath of allegiance to his Majesty which he afterward violates; a man perjures himself in a court of law who swears to the truth of that which he knows to be false. Forswear is used only in the proper sense: perjure may be used figuratively with regard to lowers' vows; he who deserts his mis.
tress to whom he has pledged his affec tion is a perjured man.
False as thou art, and more than false, forsuorn !
Not sprung from noble hlood, nor goddess-born; Why should I own? what worse have I to fear?

Dryden.
Be gone ! forever leave this Lappy sphere !
For perjur' $d$ lovers have no mansions here.
LEE.
Forswear and perjure are the aots of individuals; SUBORN, from the Latln subornare, signifies to make to forswear: a perjured man has all the guilt upon himself; but be who is suborned shares his guilt with the suborner.

They were auborn'd;
Malcolm and Donalbain, the klng's two sons, Are etole away and fled.

Shatbpeart.

## FORTUNATE, LUCKY, FORTUTTOUS, PROSPEROUS, SUCCESSFUL.

FORTUNATE signifies haviag fortune (v. Chance, fortune). LUCKY signifies having lack, which is in German gluck, and in all probability comes from gelingen, to succeed. FORTUITOUS, from fors, chance, sigaifies according to chance. PROSPEROUS, v. To flourish. SUCCESSFUL signifies full of success, euabled to succeed.

The fortunate and lucky are both applied to that which happens without the control of man ; but the latter, which is a collateral term, describes the capricious goddess Fortune in her most freakish humors, while fortunate represents her in her more sober mood: in other words, the fortunate is more according to the ordinary course of things; the lucky is something sudden, unaccountable, and singular: a circumstance is said to be fortunate which turns up suitably to our purpose ; it is said to be lucky when it comes upon us unexpectedly, at the moment that it is wanted: hence we speak of a man as fortunate in his business and the ordinary concerns of life, but lucky in the lottery or in games of chance: a fortunate year will make up for the losses of the past year; a lucky hit may repair the ruined spendthrift's fortune only to tempt him to still greater extravagances.
Seversl of the Roman emperors, as fe still to be seen upon their medals, smong their other tithes, gave themselves that of Fellx, or fortunate.

Admeor

## FOUND

Thi lucky moment the sly traitor chose, Then starting from hia amhush up he rose.

Dayden.

Fortunate and lucky are applied to particular circumstances of good fortune and luck, but fortuitous is employed only in matters of chance generally and indifferently.

A wonder it must be that there shonld be any man found ao atupid as to persuade himself that this most beautifil world could be produced by the fortuitous concourse of atoms.

Ray.
Prosperous and successful seem to exclude the idea of what is fortuitous, although prosperity and suecess are both greatly aided by good forture. Fortunate and lucky are applied as much to the removal of evil as to the attainment of good ; prosperous and successful are concerned only in what is good, or esteemed as such: we may be fortunate in making our escape; we are prosperous in the acquirement of wealth. Fortunate is employed for single circumstances; prosperous only for a train of circumstances; a man may be fortunate in meeting with the approbation of a superior; he is prosperous in his business. Prosperity is extended to whatever is the object of our wishes in this world; success is that degree of prosperity which immediately attends our endeavors; wealth, honors, children, and all outward circumstances, constitute prosperity; the attainment of any object constitutes success: the fortunate and lucky man can lay no claim to merit, because they preclude the idea of exertion; the prosperous and successful man may claim a share of merit proportioned to the exertion.

Ofortunate old man, whose farm remains For you sufficient, and requites your pains !

DaYDEN.
Riches are oft hy guilt or haseness earn'd, Or dealt by chance to shield a lucky knave.

## Abmathono.

Prosperous people (for happy there are none) are hurried away with a fond sense of their present condition, and thoughtless of the mutability of fortune.

Steele.
The Connt d'olivares was disgraced at the court of Madrid, because it was alleged against him that he had never success in his undertakings.

Addiaon.
The epithet prosperous may be applied to those things which promote prosperity or ultima $\ddagger$ e success.

Ye goda, presiding over lands and seas, And you who raging winds and waves appease, Breathe on our swelling sails a proap'rous wind.

DBYDEN

## TO FOSTER, CHERISH, HARBOR, INDULGE.

To FOSTER is probably connected with father, in the natural sense, to bring up with a parent's care; to CHERISH, from the Latin carus, dear, is to feed with affection; to HARBOR, from a harbor or haven, is to provide with a shelter and protection; to INDULGE, from the Latin duleis, sweet, is to render sweet and agreeable. These terms are all employed here in the moral acceptation, to express the idea of giving nourishment to an object. To foster in the mind is to keep with care and positive endeavors; as when one fosters prejudices by encouraging everything which favors them: to cherish in the mind is to hold dear or set a value upon; as when one cherishes good sentiments, by dwelling upon them with inward satisfaction: to harbor is to allow room in the mind, and is generally taken in the worst sense, for giving admission to that which ought to be excluded; as when one harbors resentment by permitting it to have a resting-place in the heart: to indulge in the mind is to give the whale mind to it, to make it the chief source of pleasure; as when one indulges an affection, by making the will and the out. ward conduct bend to its gratifications.
The greater part of those who live hut to in fuse malignity, and multiply enemies, have no bopes to foater, no designs to promote, nor any expectations of attaining power hy insolence.

Johngon.
As social inclinationa are absolutely necessary to the well-being of the worla, it is the duty and interest of every individual to cherish and inprove them to the benefit of mankind.

Berkelet.
This is scorn,
Which the fair soul of gentle Athenais Would ne'er have harbor'd.

LEE.
She made use of his exalted situation to indulge her avarice.

Clarendon.

## TO FOUND, GROUND, REST, BUILD.

FOUND, in French fonder, Latin fundo, comes from fundus, the ground, and, like the verb GROUND, properly signifies to make firm in the ground, to maks the ground the support. To found im.
pliea the exercise of art and contrivance in making a support; to ground aignifies to lay a thing so deep that it may not totter; it is merely in the moral gense that they are here conaidered, as the verb to ground with this aignification ia never used otherwise. Found is applied to outward circumatances; ground to what passes inwardly: a man founds hia charge against another upon certain facts that are come to hia knowledge; he grounds his belief upon the most subatantial evidence: a man ahould be cautious not to make any accusations which are not well founded; nor to indulge any expectations which are not well grounded: monarchs commonly found their claima to a throne upon the right of primogeniture; Christians ground their hopea of immortality on the word of God.

[^60]To found and ground are aaid of things which demand the full exercise of the mental fowers; to REST is an action of less importance: whatever ia founded requires and has the utmost support; whatever is rested is more by the will of the individual: a man founds his reasoning upon some unequivocal fact; he rests his assertion upon mere hearsay. The words found, ground, and rest have always an immediate reference to the thing that supports; to BUILD has an especial reference to that which is sapported, to the auperstructure that is raieed: we should not aay that a person founds an hypothesis, without adding aomething, as observationa, experiments, and the like, upon whleh it was founded; but we may speak of hia simply building systema, aupposing them to be the mere fruit of his distempered imagination; or we may aay that a system of astronomy has been built upon the opinion of Copernicus reapecting the motion of the earth.
It cannot, I should suppose, after this be believed that the religion and the transaction on which it was founded were too ohscure to engage the attention of Josephus, or to ohtain a place in his history,

Palef.

We might, for its (honor's) further recommendation, allege the authority of the more cool and candid sort of philosophers, such as grounded their judgment of things npon notions agreeable to common-sense and experience.

Barnow.
Our distinction must rest upinn a steady adherence to rational religion, when the multitude are deviating into licentious and criminal conduct.

Blaib
They who, from a mistaken zeal for the bonor of Divine revelation, either deny the existence, or vilify the authority of natural religion, are not aware that, by disallowing the sense of ohligation, they undermine the foundation on which revelation builds its power of commanding the heart.

Blaif.
FOUNDATION, GROUND, BASIS.
FOUNDATION and GROUND derive their meaning and application from the preceding article: a report is aaid to be without any foundation, which has taken its rise in mere conjecture, or in aome arbitrary cause independent of all fact ; a man's auspicion is aaid to be without ground which is not supported by the ahadow of external evidence: unfounded clamors are frequently raised against the measures of government; groundless jealousies frequently arise between families, to disturb the harmony of their intercourse.
If the foundation of a high name be virtua and service, all that is offered against it is but rumor, which is too sliort-lived to stand up in competition with glory, which is everlasting.

Steele.
Every subject of the British government has good grounds for loving and respecting his country.

Blair.
Foundation and BASIS may be compared with each other, either in the proper or the improper rignification : both foundation and basis are the lowest parts of any structure; but the former liea under ground, the latter stands above: the foundation supporta some large and artificially erected pile ; the basis aupports a aimple pillar: hence we speak of the foundation of St. Paul's, and the base or basis of the Monument.

The stateliness of houses, the goodliness of trees, when we behold thera, delighteth the eye; but that foundation which beareth up the one, and that root which mioistereth to the other nourishment, is in the hosom of the earth concealed.

Ноокев.
In altar-wise a stately pile they rear,
The basis broad below, and top advanced in atr.
Detpen

This distinction is likewise preserved in the moral application of the 'terms: disputes have too often their foundation in frivolous circumstances; treaties have commonly their basis in some acknowledged general principle; with governments that are at war pacific negotiations may be commenced on the basis of the uti possidetis.

I can never prevail on myself to make complaints which have no cause, in order to raise hopes which have no foundation. Buree.
It is certain that the basis of all lasting reputation is laid in moral worth.

Blale.

## FRAGILE, FRAIL, BRITTLEE.

FRAGILE and FRAIL, in French frêle, both come from the Latin fragilis, signiifying breakable; hut the former is used in the proper sense only, and the latter more generally in the improper sense: man, corporeally considered, is a fragile creature, his frame is composed of fragilc materials; mentally considered, he is a frail creature, for he is liable to every sort of frailly.

An appearance of dellcacy, and even of fragility, is almost essential to beauty. Burke. What Joys, alas I could this frail being give, That I have been so covetous to live. Dryden.

BRITTLE comes from the Saxon brittan, to break, and by the termination le or lis, denotes likewise a capacity to break, that is, properly breakable; but It conveys a stronger idea of this quality than fragile: the latter applies to whatever will hrcak from the effects of time; brittle to that which will not bear a temporary violence: in this sense all the works of men are fragile, and, in fact, all sublunary things; but glass, stone, and ice are peculiarly denominated brittle.
Much ostentation, vain of fleshy arm And fragila arms, rough instrument of war, Long in proparing, soon to nothing brought, Bafore mine eyes thou hast sot. Muron.

The brittle chain of this world's friendshlps is as effectually hroken when one is "oblitus meorum," as when one is "obliviscendus et illis."

Caoft.

## FRAME, TEMPER, TEMPERAMENT, CONSTITUTION.

FRAME, in its natural sense, is that which forms the exterior edging of anything, and consequently determines its form; it is applied to man physically or
mentally, as denoting that constituent portion of him which seems to hold the rest together; which by an extension of the metaphor is likewise put for the whole contents, the whole body, or the whole mind. TEMPER and TEMPER: AMENT, in Latin temperamentum, from tempero, to govern or dispose, signify the particular modes of being disposed or organized. CONSTITUTION, from constitute or appoint, signifies the particular mode of being constituted or formed.

Frame, when applied to the body, is taken in its most universal sense: a when we speak of the frame being violently agitated, or the human frame being wonderfully constructed: when applied to the mind, it will admit either of a general or restricted signification: Teriper, which is applicable ooly to the mind, is taken in the general or particular state of the individual. The frame comprehends either the whole body' of mental powers, or the particular disposition of those powers in individuals; the temper comprehends the general or par, ticular state of feeling as well as thinking in the individual. The mental frame which receives any violent concussion is liable to derangement; it is necessary for those who govern to be well acquainted with the temper of those whom they govern. By reflection on the various attributes of the Divine Being, a man may easily bring his mind into a frame of devation: by the indulgence of a fretful, repiaing temper, a mãa destroys his own peace of mind, and offends his Maker.

The soul
Contemplates what she Is, and whence she came, And almost comprehends her own amaving
frama.
JENYNE:
'Tis he
Sets superstition high on virtue's throne, Then thinks his Maker's temper like his own.

JENYNS:
Temperament and constitution mark the general state of the individual; the former comprebends a mixture of the physical and mental; the latter has a purely physical application. A man with a warm temperament owes his warmth of character to the rapid impetus of the blood; a man with a delicate constitution is exposed to great fluctuations in his health; the whole frame of a new-born
infant is peculiarly tender. Men of fierce tempers are to be found in all nations; men of sanguine tempers are toore frequent in. warm climates; the constitutions of females ure more tender than these of the male, and their frames are altegether more susceptible.

There is a great tendeacy to cheerfulness in religion; and such a frame of mind is not only the most lovely, but the most commendable in a virtuous person.

Abdison.
The sole strength of the sound from the shoutlng of multitudes so amazes and confounds the imagitation, that the best established tempers can acarcely forbear being borne down. Buna
I bave alwaya moto need of a laugh than a ery, being some what disposed to melancholy by my temperument.

Cowper.
How little our constitution is able to bear a remove into parts of this air not much higher than that we commonly breathe in! Locke.

## FRANK, CANDID, INGENUOUS, FREE,

 OPEN, PLAIN.FRANK, in French franc, German, etc., frank, is connected with the word frech, beld, and frei, free. CANDID, v. Candid. INGENUOUS comes from the Latin ingenuus, which signifies literally freeborn, as distinguished from the liberti, whe were afterward made free: hence the term has been employed by a figure of speech to denote nobleness of birth or character. FREE is to be found in mest of the northern languages under different ferms; and is supposed by Adelung to be cenneeted with the prepesition from, which denotes a separation or enlargement. OPEN, v. Candid. PLAIN, v. Apparent, alse evident.

All these terms convey the idea of a readiness to communicate and be communicated with; they are all oppesed to concealment, but under different cireumstances. The frank man is under no constraint; his thoughts and feelings are both set at ease, and his lips are ever ready to give utterance to the dictates of his heart; he has no reserve: the candid man has nothing to ceuceal; he speaks witheut regard to self-interest or any partial motive; he speaks nothing but the truth: the ingenuous man throws off all disguise; he scorns all artifice, and brings everything to light; he speaks the whole truth. Frankness is aeceptable in the general transactions of soci-
ety; it inspires confidence, and invites communication: candor is of peculiar use in matters of dispute; it serves the purposes of equity, and invites to conciliation: ingenuousness is mest wanted where there is most to conceal ; it courts favor and kindness by an acknowledgment of that which is against itself.

Frankness is associated with unpolished manners, and frequently appears in men of ne rank or education; sailers have commonly a deal of frankness about them: candor is the companion of uprightness; it must he accompanied with some refinement, as it acts in cases wherg nice discriminations are made: ingenuousness is the companion of a noble and elevated spirit: it exists mest frequently in the unsophisticated period of youth. Frankness displays itself in the outward behavier; we speak of a frank air and frank manner: candor displays itself in the language which we adept, and the sentiments we express; we speak of a candid statement, a candid reply: ingenuousness shews itself in all the werds, loeks, or actions; we speak of an ingenvious countenance, an ingenuous acknewledgment, an ingenuous answer.

My own private opinion with regard to such recreations (as , poetry and music) I have given with all the frankness imaglnable. Steele.

If yout have made any better remarks of your own, communicate them with candor; if not, make use of those I present you with. Addron.

We see an ingenuous kInd of behavior not only make up for faults committed, but in a manner expiate them in the very commission.

Steele.
Free, open, and plain have net so high an effice as the first three: free and open may be taken either in a good, bad, or indifferent sense; but seldomer in the first than in the last twe senses.

The frank, free, and open man all speak without constraint; but the frank man is not impertinent like the free man, nor indiscreet like the open man. The frank man speaks only of what eeneerns himself; the free man speaks of what concerns ethers: a frank man may confess his own faults or inadvertencies; the free man corrects these which be sees in another: the frank man opens bis heart from the warmth of his nature; the free man opens his mind frem the conceit of
his temper; and the open man says all he knows and thinks, from the inconsiderate levity of his-temper.
We cheer the youth to make his own defence, And frealy tell us what he was, and whence.

Dryden.
If I have abused your goodness by too much froedom, I hope you will attribute it to the openness of my temper.

Pope.
Plainness, the last quality to be here noticed, is a virtue which, though of the humbler order, is not to be despised: it is sometimes employed, like freedom, in the task of giving counsel; but it does not convey the idea of anything unauthorized either in matter or manner. A free counsellor is more ready to display his own superiority than to direct the wanderer in his way; he rather aggravates faults than instructs bow to amend them; be seems more like a supercilious pnemy than a friendly monitor: the plain man is free from these faults: he speaks plainly but truly; he gives no false coloring to his speech; it is not calculated to offend, and it may serve for improvement: it is the part of a true friend to be plain with another whom he sees in imminent danger. A free speaker is in danger of being hated; a plain dealer must at least be respected.

Satire has always shone among the rest, And ia the boldest way, if not the best,
To tell men freely of their foulest faults. To langh at their vain deeds and vainer thoughts.

Dayden.
He had, in the plain way of speaking and delivery, without much ornament of elocution, a atrange power of making himself believed.

Clarendon.

## FREAK, WHIM.

FREAK most probably comes from the German frech, bold and petulant. WHIM, from the Teutonic wimmen, to whine or whimper: but they have at present somewhat deviated from their original meaning; for a freak bas more of childishness and humor than boldness in it, a whim more of eccentricity than of childishness. Fancy and fortune are both said to have their freaks, as they both deviate most widely in their movements from all rule; but whims are at most but singular deviations of the mind from its ordinary and even course. Females are most liable to be seized with freaks, which are in their nature sudden
and not to be calculated upon: men ara apt to indulge themselves in whims which are in their nature strange and often laughable. We should call it a freak for a female to put on the habit of a male, and so accoutred to sally forth into the streets: we term it a whim in a man who takes a resolution never to shave himself any more.
But the long pomp, the midnight masquerade, With all the freaka of wanton wealth array'd, In these, era trifles half their wiah obtain, The toiling pleasure aiekens into pain.

Goldamtri.
'Tis all bequeath'd to publie uses. To public uses! There's a whim ! What had the public done for him?

Smift.
FREE, LIBERAL.
In the former section ( $v$. Frank) FREE is considered only as it respects communication by words, in the present case it respects actions and sentiments. In all its acceptations, free is a term of dispraise, and LIBERAL that of commendation. To be free signifies to act or think at will; to be liberal is to act according to the dictates of an enlarged heart and an enlightened mind. A clown or a fool may be free with his money, and may squander it away to please his humor, or gratify his appetite; but the nobleman and the wise man will be liberal in rewarding merit, in encouraging industry, and in promoting whatever can contribute to the ornament, the prosperity, and improvement of his country.

Their pretensions to be freethinkera is no other than rakea have to be free-livers, and savages to be freamen.

ADDISON.
For me, for whose well-being
So amply, and with hands bo liberal, Thon liast provided all things.

Milton.
A man who is free in his sentiments thinks as he pleases; the man who is liberal thinks according to the extent of his knowledge. The freethinking man is wise in his own conceit, he despises the opinions of otbers; the liberal-minded thinks modestly on his own personal attainments, and builds upon the wisdom of others.
The freethinkers plead very hard to think freely; they have it: but what use do they make of it? Do their writings show a greater depth of design, or more just and correct reasoning, than those of other men?

Berkelef.
Tha deaire of knowledge discovers a liberal mind.

Brals.
to free, bet free, deliver, liberATE.
To FREE is properly to make free, in diatinction from SET FREE; the first is employed in what concerns ourselves, and the gecond in that which concerns another. A man frees himself from an engagement; he sets another free from his engagement: we free, or set ourselves free, from that which has been imposed upon ua by ourselves or by circumatances; we are DELIVERED or LIBERATED from that which others have imposed upen us; the former from evila in general, the latter from the evil of confinement. I free myself from a burden; I set my own slave free from his slavery; I deliver another man's slave from a state of bondage; I liberate a man from prison. A man frees an estate from rent, service, taxes, and all encumbrances; a king sets his subjects free from certain imposts or tributes, he delivers them from a foreign yoke, or he liberates those who have been taken in war.

## She then <br> Sent Iris down to free her from the strife Of laboring nature, and dissolve her life.

Dayden.
When heav'n would kindly bet us fries, And earth's enchantment end;
It takes the most effectual means, And robs us of a friend.

Youna.
However desirous Mary was of obtaining $d_{B}$ liveranee from Darnley's caprices, she had yood reasons for rejecting the method by which they proposed to accomplish it.

Robeatson.
The inquisitor rang a bell, and ordered Nicolas to be forthwith liberated.

Cumberland.

## FREE, FAMILIAR.

FREE has already been considered as it respects words, actions, and sentiments b. Free); in the present case it is coupled with FAMILIARITY, inasmuch as they respect the outward behavior or conduct in general of men one to another. To be free is to be disengaged from all the constraints which the ceremonies of aocial intercourse impose; to be familiar is to be upon the footing of a $f a$ miliar, of a relative, or one of the same family.
Upon equality depends the freedom of dis. course, and consequently the ease and goodhumor of every society.

Tynnwhity.

Familiar converse improved general aivili ties into an unfeigned passion on both sides.

STEME
Neither of theae terms can be admit. ted as unexceptionable; freedom is authorized only by partienlar circumstances and within certain limitations; familiz arity sometimes shelters itself under the sanction of long, close, and friendly intercourse. Free is a term of much more extensive import than familiar; a man may be free toward another in a thousand ways; but he is familiar toward him only in his manners and address. A man who is free makes free with everything as if it were his own; a familiar man only wants to share with another, and to stand upon an equal footing in his social intercours. No mau can be free withont being in danger of infringing upon what belongs to another, nor familiar without being in danger of obtruding himself to the annoyance of othera, or of degrading himself.

You were stark mad when you writ Catiline, and stark mad when you writ Sejanus; but when you writ your Epigrams, and the Bagnetic Lady, you were not so mad, insomuch that I perceive there be degrces of (poetic) madness in yon. Excuse me that I am so free with you.

Howell.
A careless, coarse, and over-fomiliar style of discourse, without sufficient regard to persons and occasions, and an almost total want of political decorum, were the errors by which he was most hurt in the public opinion.

Burie.

## FREE, EXEMPT.

FREE, $v$. Free, liberal. EXEMPT, in Latin exemptus, participle of eximo, signifies set out or disengaged from anything.

The condition and not the conduct of men is here considered. Freedom is either accidental or intentional ; the exemption is always intentional; we may be free from disorders, or free from troubles; we are exempt, that is exempted by government, from serving in the militia. Free is applied to everything from which any one may wish to be free; but exempt, on the contrary, to those burdens which we should share with others: we may be free from imperfections, free from inconveniences, free from the interruptions of others; but exempt from any office or tax. We may likewise be said
to be exempt from troubles when speaking of these as the dispensations of Providence to others.

0 happy, if he knew his happy state, The swain who free from hus'ness and debate, Receives his casy food from nature's hand.

Dhyden.
To be exempt from the passions with which others are tormented, is the only pleasing solitude.

Aldison.

## FREEDOM, LLBERTY.

FREEDOM, the abstract noun of free, is taken in all the senses of the primitive. LIBERTY, from the Latin liber, free, is only taken in the sense of free from external constraint, from the action of power.

Freedom is personal and private; liber$t y$ is public. The freedom of the city is the privilege granted by the city to individuals; the liberties of the city are the immunities enjoyed by the city. By the same rule of distinction we speak of the freedom of the will, the froedom of manners, the freedom of conversation, or the freedom of debate; but the liberty of conscience, the liberty of the press, the liberty of the subject.
The ends for which men unite in society, and submit to goverument, are to enjoy security to thetr property, and freedom to their persons, from all injustice or violence. Blair.

The liberty of the press is a blessing when we are inclined to write against others, and a calamIty when we find ourselyes overborne by the multitude of our assailants.

Johnson.
Freedom serves, moreover, to qualify the action; liberty is applied only to the agent: bence we say, to speak or think with freedom; but to have the liberty of speaking, thinking, or acting.

I wonld not venture into the world under the character of a man who pretends to talk like other people, until I had arrived at a full freedom of speech.

ADDISON.
Blush, when I tell you how a bird, A prison, with a friend, preferr'd

*     * To 7iberty withont.

Cowper.
Freedom and liberty are likewise employed for the private conduct of individuals toward each other; but the former is used io a qualified good sense, the latter often in an unqualified bad sense. A freedom may sometimes be licensed or allowed; a liberty, if it be taken, may be something not agreeable or allowed. A
freedom may be innocent and even pleas. ant; a liberty may do more or less violence to the decencies of life, or the feelings of individuals. There are little free doms which may pass between youth of different sexes, so as to heighten the pleasures of society; but a modest woman will be careful to guard against any freedoms which may admit of misinterpretation, and resent every liberty offered to her as an insult.
It would be uncourtly to speak in harshet terms to the fair, but to (with) men one may take a little more freedom.

Tather.
If I took the liberty to atroke him, he would grunt, strike with his forefoot, spring forward and bite.

Cowpea.
freight, cargo, lading, load, burDEN.
FREIGHT is in the Danish fragt, Swedish, etc., fracht, in the sense of a ship, but in the seose of a burden it seems to be most nearly allied to the Latin fero, to bring, and the Greek $\phi o \rho-$ roc, a burden. CARGO, in French cargaison, probably a variation from charge, is employed for all the contents of a vessel, with the exception of the persons that it carries. LADING and LOAD (in German laden, to load) come most probably from the word last, a burden, signifying the burden or weight imposed upon any carriage. BURDEN, from bear, conveys the idea of weight which is borne by the vessel.

A captain speaks of the freight of his ship as that which is the object of his voyage, by which all who are interested in it are to make their profit; he speaks of the lading as the thing which is to fill the ship; the quantity and weight of the lading are to be taken into the consideration: he speaks of the cargo as that which goes with the ship, and belongs as it were to the ship; the amount of the cargo is that which is first thought of: he speaks of the burden as that which his vessel will bear; it is the property of the ship which is to be estimated. The ship-broker regulates the freight: the captain and the crew dispose the lading: the agent sees to the procuring of the cargo: the ship-builder determines the burden: the carrier looks to the load which he has to carry.

## FULFIL

TO FREQUENT, RESORT TO, HAUNT.
FREQUENT comes from frequent, in Latin frequens, crowded, signifying to come in numbers, or come often to the same place. RESORT, in French ressortir, compounded of re and sortir, signifies to go backward and forward. HAUNT, from the French hanter, to frequent, is in all probability connected with hunt.

Frequent is more commonly used of an individual who goes often to a place; resort and haunt of a number of individuals. A man is said to frequent a public place; but several persons may resort to a private place: men who are not fond of home frequent taverns; in the first ages of Christianity, while persecution raged, its professors used to resort to private places for purposes of worship.

For my own part, I heve ever regarded our inns of court as nurserics of statesmen and lawgivers, which makes me often frequent that part of the town.

BUDGELL.

## Home is tbe resort

Of love, of Joy, of pesce, and plenty, where, Supporting and supported, pollsh'd friends And dear relations mingle into bliss. Thomson.

Frequent and resort are indifferent actions; but haunt is always used in a bad sense. A man may frequent a theatre, a olub, or any other social meeting, innocent or otherwlse; people from different quarters may resort to a fair, a church, or any other place where they wish to meet for a common purpose; but those who haunt any place go to it in privacy for some bad purpose.
But barden'd by affronts, and still the same, Lost to all sense of honor and of fame,
Thon yet canst love to haunt the great man's board,
And think no supper good but with a lord.
Lewis.

## TO FRIGHTEN, INTLMDATE.

Between FRIGHTEN and INTIMIDATE there is the same difference as between fright (v. Alarm) and fear (v. To apprehend): the danger that is near or before the eyes frightens; that which is seen at a distance intimidates: hence females are oftener frightened, and men are oftener intimidated: noises will frighten; threats may intimidate: we may run away when we are frightened; we waver in our resolution when we are intimidated; 'we fear immediate bodily harm when we are
frightened; we fear harm to our property as well as our persons when we are intimidated; frighten, therefore, is alwaye applied to animals, but intimidate never.'
And perch, oh horror 1 on his sacred crown, If that such profanation were permitted
of the by-standers, who with reverend care
Fright them awsy.
Cumbealann.
Cortes, unwilling to employ force, endeavored elternately to soothe and intimidate Montezumas Roamatson.

## FROLIC, GAMBOL, PRANK.

FROLIC, in German, etc., fröhlich, cheerful, comes from froh, merry, and freude, joy. GAMBOL signifies literally leaping into the air, from gamb, in French $j a m b$, the leg. PRANK is changed from prance, which literally signifies to throw up the hind feet after the manner of a horse, and is most probably connected. with the German prangen, to make a parade or fuss, and the Hebrew parang, to set free, because the freedom indicated by the word prank is more or less disa coverable in the sense of all these terms. The frolic is a merry, joyous entertain. ment; the gambol is a dancing, light entertainment; the prank is a freakish, wild entertainment. Laughing, singing, noise, and feasting constitute the frolic of the careless mind; it belongs to a company; conceit, levity, and trick, in movement, gesture, and contrivance, constitute the gambol; it belongs to the individual: adventure, eccentricity, and humor constitute the prank; it belongs to one or many. One has a frolic; one plays a gambol or a prank.
I have heard of some very merry fellows, among whom tbe frolic was stsrted snd passed by a great majority, tbat every man should immediately draw' a tooth.

Steele.
What sre those crested locks Thet make such wanton gambols with the wind? Shakspearf.
Some time afterward (1756) some young men of the college, whose chambers were near bis (Gray's), diverted themselves by frequent and troublesome noises, and, es is said, by pranke yet more offensive and contemptuous.

Johnson.
TO FULFIL, ACCOMPLISH, REALIZE.
To FULFIL is literally to fill quite full, that is, to bring about full to the wishes of a person; ACCOMPLISH ( $v$. To accom. plish) is to bring to perfection, but without reference to the wishes of any one;
to REALIZE is to make real, namely, whatever has been aimed at. The application of these terms is evident from their explanations: the wishes, the expectations, the intentions, and promises of an individual are appropriately said to be fulfilled; national projects, or undertakings, prophecies, and whatever is of general interest, are said to be accomplished: the fortune, or the prospects of an individual, or whatever results successfully from specific efforts, is said to be realized: the fulfilment of our wishes may be as much the effect of good fortune as of design; the accomplishment of projects mostly results from extraordinary exertion, as the accomplishment of prophecies results from a miraculous exertion of power; the realization of hopes results more commonly from the slow process of moderate wellcombined efforts than from anything extraordinary.

The palsied dotard looks around him, percelves himself to be alone; he has survived his friends, and he wishes to follow them; his wish is fulfilled; he drops torpid and insensihle into that gulf which is deeper than the grave.

Haweesworth.
God hless you, sweet boy 1 and accomplish the sweet hope I conceived of you.

Sir Philip Sipney.
After my fancy had heen husied in attempting to realize the scenes that Shakspeare drew, I regretted that the lahor was ineffectual.

HA FEESTORTH.

## FULNESS, PLENITUDE.

Althodgh PLENITUDE is no more ,han a derivative from the Latin for FULNESS, yet the latter is used either iu the proper sense to express the state of objects that are full, or in the improper sense to express great quantity, which is the accompaniment of fulness; the former only in the higher style and in the improper sense: hence we say in the fud. ness of one's heart, in the fulness of one's joy, or the fulness of the Godhead bodily; but the plenitude of glory, the plenitude of power.

All mankind
Must have heen lost, adjudg'd to death and hell, By doom severe, had not the Son of God, In whom the fulness dwells of love divine, His dearest mediation thus renew'd. Militon.
The most heneficent Being is he who hath an sbsolnte fulness of perfection in himself, who gave existence to the universe, and so cannot he supposed to want that which he communicated
without diminishing from the plenitude of hes own power and happiness.

Grove

## FUNERAL, OBSEQUIES.

FUNERAL, in Latin funus, is derive. from funis, a cord, because lighted cords or torches were carried before bodies which were interred by night; the term funeral, therefore, denotes the ordinary solemnity which attends the consignment of a body to the grave. OBSEQUIES, in Latin exequice, are both derived from eo quar, which, in its compound sense, signifies to perform or execute; they com. prehend, therefore, funerals attended with more than ordinary solemnity.

We speak of the funeral as the last sad office which we perform for a friend; it is accompanied by nothing but by mourning and sorrow: we speak of obsequies as the greatest tribute of respect which can be paid to the person of one who was high in station or public esteem: the funeral by its frequency, becomes so familiar an object that it passes by unheeded; obsa quies which are performed over the remains of the great attract our notice from the pomp and grandeur with which they are conducted.

That pluck’d my nerves, those tender strings of life,
Which, pluck'd a little more, will toll the bell That calls my few friends to my funeral.

Youna
Some in the flow'r-strewn grave the corpse have laid,
And annual obsequies around it paid. Jentna.

## G.

## GAIN, PROFIT, EMOLOMENT, LUCRE.

GAIN signifies in general what is gain. ed (v. To acquire). PROFIT, v. Advantage. EMOLUMENT, from emolior, signifies to work out or get by working. LUCRE is in Latin lucrum, gain, which probably comes from luo, to pay, signifying that which comes to a man's purse.

Gain is here a general term, the other terms are specific: the gain is that which comes to a man; it is the fruit of his ex. ertions, or agreeable to his wish: the prof. it is that which accrues from the thing

Thus, when applied to riches, that which increases a man's estate are his gains; that which flows eut ef his trade er eceupation are his profits; that is, they are his gains upon dealing. Emolument is a species of gain from laber, or a cellateral gain; of this descriptien are a man's emoluments from an office: a man estimates his gains by what he receives in the year ; he estimates his profits by what he receives on every article; he estimates his emoluments according to the nature of the service which be has to perform: the merchant talks of his gains; the retail dealer of his profits; the placeman of his emoluments.
The gains of ordinary trades and vocations are honest, and furthered by two things, chiefly by diligence and by a good name.

Bacon.
The profts of my living, which amounted to about thirty-five pounds a year, I made over to the orphans and widows of the clergy of our diocese.

Goldsmith.
Except the salary of the Laureate, to which King James added the offlce of historiographer, perhaps with some additional emoluments, Dryden's whole revenue scems to have been casyal. Johnson.
Gain and profit are also taken in an abstract sense; lucre is never used cth. erwise; but the latter always cenveys a bad meaning; it is, strictly speaking, unhallowed gain: an immoderate thirst fer gain is the vice of men whe are always calculating $p$ rofit and less; a thirst fer lucre deadens every genercus feeling of the mind.
No son of Mars descend for servile gains
To touch the booty, while the foc remains.
Pope.
Why may not a whole estate, thrown into a kind of garden, turn as much to the profit as the pleasure of the owner?

ADDison.

## 0 sacred bunger of pernicious gold!

What bands of faith can impious lucre hold?
Dryden.
Gain and proft may be extended te other objects, and semetimes oppesed to each other; for as that which we gain is what we wish enly, it is often the reverse of profitable.
A few forsake the throng; with lifted eyes
Ask wealth of heaven, and gain a real prize,
Trath, wisdom, prace, and peace like that above,
Sealed with his signet, whom they serve and love. Cowper.
I think the proft and pleasure of that study are both so very obvious that a quick rsader will
be beforehand with me, and imagine faster than I write.

DEYDEM.

## Gallant, beau, spark.

These words convey nothing respect ful of the persen to whem they are applied; but the first, as is evident from its derivation, has semething in it to recommend it to attention above the other: as true valer is ever asseciated with a regard for the fair sex, a GALLANT man will always be a gallant when he can render a female any service; sometimes, however, his gallantries may be such as te de them harm rather than gcod: insignificance and effeminacy characterize the BEAD or fine gentleman; he is the weman's man-the humble servant te supply the place of a lackey: the SPARK has but a spark of that fire which shews itself in impertinent pueril. ities; it is applicable to yonth who are just breke leese frem schoel or college, and eager te display their manhood.
The god of wit, and light, ano arts, With all acquird and natursl parts, Was an unfortunate gallant.

Swift.
His pride began to interpose,
Preferr'd before a crowd of beaux.
Swift.
Oft it has been my lot to mark
A proud, conceited, talking spark. Merrick.

## TO GAPE, STARE, GAZE.

To GAPE, in German gaffen, Saxon geopnian, to make open or wide, is to leck with an open or wide month. STARE, from the German starr, fixed, signifies to leek with a fixed eye. GAZE comes very probably from the Greek $a \gamma a \zeta \rho \mu \alpha$, to admire, because it signifies to look steadily from a sentiment of admiration.

Gape and stare are taken in a bad sense; the fermer indicating the astonishment of gress ignorance; the larter net only ignorance but impertinence: gaze is taken always in a goed sense, as indicating a laudable feeling of astonishment, pleasure, or curiosity: a clown gapes at the pictures of wild beasts which be sees at a fair; an impertinent fellow stares at every weman he lcoks at, and stares a medest woman out of countenance: a lover of the fine arts will gaze with admiration and delight at the productions of Raphael or Titian; when a persen is stupefied by affright, he gives 9
vacant stare: those who are filled with transport gaze on the object of their ecstasy.
It was now a missrabis spectacle to see us nod. ding and gaping at one unother, every man talking and no man heard. Sia John Manneville.
Astonish'd Annus just arrives by chance To see his fall, nor farther dares advancs; But fixing on the maid his horrid eye, He stares and shakes, and finds it vain to fly.

Dryden.
For, while expscting thers the qusen, he rals'd His wond'ring eyes, and round the tomple gaz'd, Admir'd the fortune of the rising town, The striving artists, and their art's renown.

Driden. TO QATHER, COLLECT.
To GATHER, in Saxon gaderian, low Germau gadden, from gade, a sort, that is to bring things of a sort together. To COLLECT ( v. To assemble, collect) annexes also the idea of binding or forming into a whole; we gather that which is scattered in different parts: thus stones are gathered into a heap; vessels are collected so as to form a fleet. Gathering is a mere act of necessity or convenience; collecting is an act of design or choice: we gather apples from a tree, or a ser. vant gathers books from off a table; the antiquarian collects coins, and the bibliomaniac collects rare books.

## As the small ant (for she iustructs the man, And preaches labor) gathers all she can.

Creefer
The royal bss, queen of the rosy bower, Collects har precious sweets from every flowsr.
C. Johnson.

## GENDER, SEX.

GENDER, in Latin genus, signifies properly a genus, or kind. SEX, in French sexe, Latin sexus, comes from the Greek $\approx \xi$ cg, signifying the babit or nature. The gender is that distinction in words which marks the distinction of sex in things; there are, therefore, three genders, but only two sexes. By the inflections of words is denoted whether things are of this or that sex or of no sex. The genders, therefore, are divided in grammar into masculine, feminine, and nenter; and animals are divided into male and female sex.

## GENERAL, UNIVERSAL.

The GENERAL is to the UNIVERSAL what the part is to the whole. What is general includes the greater part or num-
ber; what is universal includes every in. dividual or part. The general rule ad. mits of many exceptions; the universal rule admits of none. Human govern. ment has the general good for its object: the government of Providence is directed to universal good. General is opposed to particular, and universal to individual. A scientific. writer will not content himself with general remarks, when he bas it in his poper to enter into particulars; the universal complaint which we hear against men for their pride shows that in every individual it exists to a greater or less degree. It is a general opinion that women are not qualified for scientific pursuits, but many females have proved themselves bonorable exceptions to this rule: it is a universal principle that children ought to bonor their parents; the intention of the Creator in this respect is manifested in such a variety of forms as to admit of no question.

## GENERATION, AGE.

GENERATION is said of the persons who live during any particular period; and AGE is said of the period itself.

Those who are born at the same time constitute the generation; that period of time which comprehends the age of man is the age: there may, therefore, be many generations spring up in the course of an age; a fresh generation is springing up every day, which in the course of an age pass away and are succeeded by fresh generations. We consider man in his generation as to the part which he has to perform. We consider the age in which we live as to the manners of man and the events of nations.
I often lamented that I was not one of that happy generation who demolished the convents. Јонквон,
Thronghout every age, God hath pointed his peculiar displeasure against the conidence of presumption, and ths arrogance of prosperity.

Blatis.

## GENTEEL, POLITE.

GENTEEL, in French gentil, Latin gen. tilis, signifies literally one belonging to the same family, or the next akin to whom the estate would fall, if there were no children; bence by an extended application it denoted to be of a good family. POLITE, v. Civil.

## GENTILE

Gentility respects rank in life; politeness the refinement of the mind and outward behavior. A genteel education is suited to the station of a gentleman; a polite education fits for polished society and conversation, and raises the indipidual smong his equals. There may be gentility without politeness; snd vice versa. A person may have gentel manners, a genteel carriage, a genteel mode of living as far as respects his general relation with 'society; but a polite behavior and a polite address, which may qualify him for every relation in sooiety, and ensble him to shine in connection with all orders of men, is independent of either birth or wealth; it is in part a gift of nature, although it is to be scquired by art. His equipsge, servants, house, and furniture may be such as to entitle a man to the nime of genteel, although he is wariting in all the forms of resl goodbreeding; while fortune msy sometimes frown upon the polished gentleman, whose politeness is a recommendation to him wherever he goes.
A lady of genius will give a genteel air to her whole dress by a well-fancied suit of knots, as a Judicious writer gives a spirit to a whole senttence hy a single expression.

Gay.
In this isle remote,
Our painted ancestors were slow to learn, To arms devote, in the politer arts, Nor skilled, nor studious.

Somerville.

## Gentile, heathen, pagan.

The Jews comprehended all strangers under the name of Goim, nations or GEN. TILES: among the Greeks and Romans they were designated by the name of barbarians. By the name Gentile was understood especislly those who were not of the Jewish religion, including, in the end, even the Christians. Some learned men pretend that the Qentiles were so named from their having only a natural law, and such as they imposed on themselves, in opposition to the Jews and Christians, who have a positive revealed law to which they are obliged to submit. Frisch and others derive the word HEATHEN from the Greek $\varepsilon \theta \nu \eta$, $\varepsilon \theta \nu$ ikog, which is corroborated by the translation in the Anglo-Saxon law of the word haethne by the Greek $\varepsilon \theta \nu \eta$. Adelung, however, thinks it to be more prohsbly derived from the word heide, = field, for
the asme reason as PAGAN is derived from pagus, a village, because when Constantine banished idolaters from ths towns they repaired to the villages, and secretly adhered to their religious worship, whence they were termed by the Christians of the fourth century Pagani, which, as he supposes, was translated litcrally into the Germen heidener, a villa. ger or worshipper in the field. Be this as it may, it is evident that the word heathen is in our language more spplicabld than pagan to the Greeks, the Romans, and the cultivsted nations who prsctised idolatry; snd, on the other hand, pagan is more properly employed for rude and un. civilized people who worship false gods.

The Gentile does not expressly believe in a Divine Revelation; but he either ad. mits of the truth in part, or is ready to receive it: the heathen adopts a positively false system that is opposed to the true faith: the pagan is a species of heathen, who obstinately persists in a worship which is merely the fruit of his own imaginstion. The heathens or pagans sre Gentiles; but the Gentiles are not all either heathens or pagans. Confucius and Socrates, who rejected the plurslity of gods, and the followers of Mohammed, who adore the true God, are, properly spesking, Gentiles. The worshippers of Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, and all the deities of the ancients, are termed heathens. The worshippers of Fo, Brshma, Xaca, and all the deities of savage nations, ars termed pagans.

The Gentiles were called to the true faith, and obeyed the call: many of the illustrious heathens would have doubt. less done the same, had tbey enjoyed the same privilege: there are to this day many pagans who reject this advantsge, to pursue their own blind imaginations.

[^61]Yopwo

## GENTLE, TAME.

GENTLENESS lies rather in the natural disposition; TAMENESS is the effect either of art or circumstances. Any unbroken horse may be gentle, but not tame: a horse that is broken in will be tame, but not always gentle. Gentle, as before observed ( $v$. Genteel), signifies literally well-born, and is opposed either to the nierce or the rude: tame, in German zahm, from zaum, a bridle, signifies literally curbed or kept under, and is opposed either to the wild or the spirited. Animals are in general said to be gentle who ahow a disposition to associate with man, and conform to his will; they are said to be tame if, either by compulsion or habit, they are brought to mix with human society. Of the first description there are individuals in almost every species which are more or less entitled to the name of gentle; of the latter description are many species, as the dog, the sheep, the hen, and the like.

This said, the hoary king no longer staid, But on his car the slaughter'd victims laid; Then seiz'd the reins, his gentle steeds to guide, And drove to Troy, Antenor at his side. Pope.
For Orpheus' lute could soften steel and stone, Make tigers tame, and huge leviathans.

Shakspeare.
In the moral application, gentle is always employed in the good, and tame in the bad, sense: a gentle apirit needs no control, it amalgamates freely with the will of another: a tame spirit is without any will of its own; it is alive to nothing but submission: it is perfectly consistent with our natural liberty to have gentleness, but tameness is the accompaniment of slavery. The same distinction marks the use of these words when applied to the outward conduct or the language: gentle bespeaks something positively good; tame bespeaks the want of an essential good: the former is allied to the kind, the latter to the abject and mean qualities which naturally flow from the compression or destruction of energy and will in the agent. A gentle expression is devoid of all acrimony, and serves to turn away wrath: a tame expression is devoid of all force or energy, and illcalculated to inspire the mind with any feeling whatever. In giving counsel to an irritable and conceited temper, it is
necessary to be gentle: tame expresslons are nowhere such striking deformities as in a poem or an oration.

Gentleness stands opposed, not to the most determined regard to virtue and truth, but to harshness and severity, to pride and arrogance.

Blarr.
Though all wanton provocations and contemptuous insolence are to be diligently avoided, there is no less danger in timid compliance and tame resignation.

Johnson.
to get, gain, obtain, procure.
To GET signifies simply to cause to have or possess; it is generic, and the rest specific: to GAIN (v. To acquire) is to get the thing one wishes, or that is for one's advantage: to OBTAIN is to get the thing aimed at or striven after: to PROCURE, from pro and curo, to care for, is to get the thing wanted or sought for.

Get is not only the most general in its sense, but its application; it may be sub. stituted in almost every case for the oth. er terms, for we may say to get or gain a prize, to get or obtain a reward, to get or procure a book; and it is also employed in numberless familiar cases, where ths other terms would be less suitable, for what this world gains in familiarity it loses in dignity: hence we may with pro. priety talk of a servant's getting some water, or a person getting a book off a shelf, or getting meat from the butcher, with numberless similar cases in which the other terms could not be employed with. out losing their dignity. Moreover, get is promiscuously used for whatever comes to the hand, whether good or bad, desira. able or not desirable, sought for or not; but gain, obtain, and proeure always include either the wishes or the instru mentality of the agent, or both together. Thus a person is said to get a cold, or a fever, a good or an ill name, without specifying any of the circumstances of the action; but he is said to gain that approbation which is gratifying to his feelings; to obtain a recompense which is the object of his exertions; to procure a situation which is the end of his endeavors.

The word gain is peculiarly applicable to whatever comes to us fortuitously; what we gain constitutes our good fort. une; we gain a victory, or we gain a cause; the result in both cases may be
independent of our exertions. To obtain and procure exclude the idca of chance, and suppose exertions directed to a specific end: but the former may include the exertions of others; the latter is particularly employed for one's own persongl exertions. A person obtains a situation throngh the recommendation of a friend: he procures a situation by applying for it. Obtain is likewise employed only in that which requires particular efforts, that which is not immediately within our reach; procure is applicable to that which is to he got with ease, by she simple exertion of a walk, or of asking for.

The miser is more industrlous than the saint: the pains of getting, the fears of loaing, and the luability of enjoying his wealth, have been the mark of satire in all ages.

Spectator.
Neither Virgil nor Horace would have gained $s 0$ great reputation in the world had they not been the friends and admirers of each other.

Addison.
All things are blended, crangeable, and vain! No hope, no wish, we perfectly cotain. Jenyna.
Ambition pushea the soul to such actione as are apt to procure honor and reputation to the actor.

Addibon.
GIFT, PRESENT, DONATION.
GIFT is derived from to give, in the sense of what is communicated to another gratuitously of one's property. PRESENT is derived from to present, signifying the thing presented to another. DONATION, in French donation, from the Latin dono, to present or give, is a species of $g i f t$.

The gift is an act of generosity or condescension; it contributes to the benefit of the receiver : the present is an act of kindness, courtesy, or respect; it contributes to the pleasure of the receiver. The gift passes from the rich to the poor, from the high to the low, and creates an obligation; the present passes either between equals, or from the inferior to the superior. Whatever we receive from God, through the bounty of his providence, we entitle a gift; whatever we receive from our friends, or whatever princes receive from their subjects, are entitled presents. We are told by all travellers that it is a custom in the East never to approach a great man without a present; the value of a gift is often
heightened by being given opportunely. The value of a present often depends upon the value we have for the giver; the smallest present from an esteemed friend is of more worth in our eyes than the costliest presents that monarchs receive.

The gifts of Heav'n my following song pursaes, Aërial honey and ambroaial dews. Danyen,
Have what you ask, your presento I receive;
Land, where and when you please, with ample leave.

Defides.
The gift is private, and benefits tho individual: the donation is public, and serves some general purpose: what is given to relieve the necessities of any poor person is a gift; what is given to support an institution is a donation. The clergy are indebted to their patrons for the livings which are in their gift: it has been the custom of the pious and charitable in all ages to make donations for the support of almshouses, hospitals, infirmaries, and such institutions as serve to diminish the sum of human misery.

And she ahall have them, If again she guea, Since you the giver and the gift refuse.

Dryden.
Estates held by feudal tenare, being annually gratuitous donations, were at that time denominated beneficia.

Blackstone.

## GIFT, ENDOWMEN', TALENT.

GIFT, v. Gift. ENDOWMENT signifies the thing with which one is endowed. TALENT, v. Ability.

Gift and endowment both refer to the act of giving and endowing, and of course include the idea of something given, and something received: the word talent conveys no such collateral idea. When we speak of a $g i f t$, we refer in our minds to a giver; when we speak of an ondowment, we refer in our minds to the receiver; when we speak of a talent, we only think of its intrinsic quality. A gift is either supernatural or natural; an endovoment is only natural. The primitive Christians received various gifts through the inspiration of the Holy Spirit, as the gift of tongues, the gift of healing, etc. There are some men who have a peculiar gift of utterance; beauty of person, and corporeal agility, are endowments with which some are peculiarly invested.

## But Heav'n Its gifts not all at once bestows,

 These years with wisdom crowns, with action those.Pope.
A brate arrives at a point of perfection that he can never pass; in a few ycars he has all the endowments he is capable of.

Addison.
The word gift excludes the idea of anything acquired by exertion; it is that which ia communicated to us altogether independently of ourselves, and enables us to arrive at that perfection in any art which could wot be attained any othor way. Speech is denominated a general $g i f t$, inaamuch as it is given to the whole human race, in distiaction from the brutes; but the gift of eloquence is a peculiar gift granted to a few individuals, in distinction from others, and one which may be exerted for the benefit of mankind. Endowments, though iohereat in us, are oot independeat of our exertions; they are qualities which admit of improvement by being used; they are, in fact, the gifts of nature, which aerve to adorn and elevate the posseasor, when employed for a good purpose. Talents are either natural or acquired, or in some meaaure of a mixed nature; they denote powera without specifying the source from which they proceed; a man may have a talent for music, for drawing, for mimicry, and the like; but this talent may be the fruit of practice and experience, as much as of nature. It is clear from the above that an endowment is a $g i f t$, but a gift is not always an endowment; and that a talent may also be either a gift or an endowment, but that it is frequently distinct from both. The terms gift and talent are applicable to corporeal as well as apiritual actions; endooment to corporeal or meatal qualities. To write a auperior hand is a gift, inaamuch as it is supposed to be unattainable by any force of application and instruction; it is a talent, ioasmuch as it is a power or property worth our posses. sion, hut it is never an endowment. On the other hand, courage, discernment, a atroog imagination, aud the like, are both gifts and endowments; and when the intellectual endowment displays itaelf in any creative form, as in the case of poetry, music, or any art, ao as to produce that which is valued and eateemed, it becomes a talent to the possessor.

Although he had the gift of seelng through \& qnestion at y glance, yet he never suffered his discernment to anticipate another's explanation.

Cumberland.
He was of a noble nature and generous dispo sition, and of such other endonoments as made him very capable of being a great favorite to a great king.

Clarendon.
Mr. Locke has an admirable reffection mpon the difference of wit and judgment, whereby he endeavors to show the reason why they are not always the talents of the same person.

ADDIBOM.

## TO GIVE, GRANT, BESTOW.

GIVE, in Saxou gifan, German geben, etc., is derived by Adelung from the old word gaff, the hollow of the hand. GRANT and BESTOW, v. To alloro.

The idea of communicating to another what is our own, or in our power, is common to these terms; this is the whole aigaification of give; but grant and bestow include accesaory ideas in their meaning. To grant is to give at one's pleasure; to bestow is to give from a certain degree of necessity. Giving is confined to no object; whatever property we transfer into the hands of another, that we give; we give money, clothes, food, or whatever is transferable: granting is confined to auch objecta as afford pleasure or convenience; they may consist of transferable property or not: bestowing is applied to such objects only aa are neceasary to supply wants, which al. ways consist of that which is traasferable. We give what is liked or not liked, aaked for or unasked for: we grant that only which is wiahed for and requested. One may give poison or medicine; one may give to a beggar, or to a friend; oue grants a sum of money by way of loan: we give what is wasted or not wanted; we bestow that only which is expressly wanted: we give with an idea of a return or otherwise: we grant voluntarily, without any prospect of a return: we give for a permanency or otherwise; we be stow ouly in particular cases which require immediate notice.

[^62]But there is yet a liberty, unseen
By poets, and by senators nopraised,
Which monarchs cannot grant, nor all the powere Of earth and hell confederate take away.

Cowpek

## GIVE

Charity, decent, modest, easy, kind,
Softens the high and rears the abject mind, Each other gift which God on man beetooos, Its proper honnds and due restrictions knows.

Prior.
To give has no respect to the circumstsnces of the action or the agent; it is applicsble to persons of all conditions: to grant bespeaks not only the will, but the power'and indluence of the grantor: to bestow bespeaks the necessitous condition of the receiver. Children may give to their parents and psrents to their children, kings to their subjects or subjects to their kings; but monarchs only grant to their subjects, or parents to their children; and superiors in general bestow upon their dependents that which they osnnet provide for themselves.
Such notes as, warhled to the string, Drew fron tears down Plato's cheek, And made hell grant what love did seek.

Militon,
In an extended appllestion of the terms to moral objecta or circumstsnces, thay strictly adhere to the same line of distinction. We give our consent; we give our promise; we give our word; we give eredit; we give in all cssee that which may be eimply trangferred from one to another. Liberties, rights, privileges, favors, Indulgences, permissions, and all things sre granted, which are in the hands only of a few, but are scceptable to msny. Blessings, csre, concern, and the like, are bestowed upon these who are dependent upon others for whatever they hsve.
Happy when both to the same centre move,' When kings give liherty, and subjects love.

Denham,
The gods will grant
What their unerring wisdom sees they want.
Dryden.
Oive and bestow are likewise said of things as well as of persons; grant is asid only of persons. Give is here equally general and indefinite; bestow convers the ides of giving under circumstances of necessity and urgency. One gives a preference to a psrticular situation; one gives a thought to a subject that is proposed; one gives time and labor to sny matter that engsges one's attention : but one bestows psins on that which demands psrticular attention; one bestows a moment's theught on one particular subject, cut of the number which engage attention.

He frankly offered to join them in his Majess ty's service, and so gave some countenance to the reproach that was first most injuriously cast upon him.

Clarendon.
After having thus treated at large of Paradiss Lost, I could not thiols it sufficient to have celebrated this poem, in the whole, withont descend. ing to particnlars: I have therefore bestowed paper on each book.

Adilson.

## TO GIVE, AFFORD.

GIVE ( $v$. To give, grant) and AFFORD (v. To afford) are allied to esch other in the sense of sending forth: but the former denotes sn unquslified and unconditionsl action, as in the preceding article; the latter bears a relstion to the circum. stances of the sgent. A person is asid to give money without any regard to the state of his finsnces: he is ssid to aford what he gives, when one wishes to defing his pecuniary condition. The same idea runs through the application of these terms to all other cases, in which inanimate things sre made the agents. When we say a thing gives estisfaction, we aimply designate the action; when we say it affords pleasure, we refer to the nsture and properties of the thing thus epecified. -thst is to say, its capscity to give sstisfsction; the former is employed only to declare the fsct, the latter to characterize the object. Hence, in certsin csses, we should say, this or that posture of the body gives esse to as sick person; but, as s moral sentiment, we should ssy, nothing affords such ease to the mind ss a clear conscience. Upon the ssme grounds the use of these terms is justified in the fol, lowing csses: to give rise; to give birth; or give occasion; to afford an opportunity; to afford a ples or a pretext; to af. ford ground, and the like.

Are these our great parsuits? Is this to live? These all the hopes this much-lov'd world can giva?

Jenyms.
Our paper mannfacture takes into use $\quad$ everal mean materials, which could be put to no other use, and afforde work for several hands in the collection of them, which are incapable of any other employment.

Addison.

## TO GIVE, PRESENT, OFFER, EXHIBIT.

These terms have a common significar tion, inasmuch as they designate the msnual act of transferring something from one's self to another. The first is here as elsewhere ( $v$. To give, grant) the most

Indefinite and extensive in its meaning; it denotes the complete act: the tro latter refer rather to the preliminaries of GIVING than to the act itself. What is given is actually transferred: what is PRESENTED, that is, made a present to any one ; or OFFERED, that is, brought in his way, is put in the way of being transferred: we present in giving, and offer in order to give; but we may give without presenting or offering; and, on the other hand, we may present or offer without giving, if the thing presented or offered be not received.

To give is the familiar term wbich designates the ordinary transfer of property: to present is a term of respect; it includes in it the formality and ceremony of setting before another that which we wish to give: to offer is an act of humility or solemnity; it bespeaks the movement of the heart, which impels to the making a transfer or gift. We give to our domestics; we present to princes; we offer to God: we give to a person what we wish to be received; we present to a person what we think agreeable; we offer what we think acceptable: what is given is supposed to be ours; what we offer is supposed to be at our command; what we present need not be either our own or at our command: we give a person not only our external property, but our esteem, our confidence, our company, and the like: an ambassador presents his credentials at court; a subject offers his services to his king.
Of seveu smooth Joints a mellow pipe I have, Which with his dying hreath Damxtas gave.

Dryien.
It fell ont at the same time that a very fine colt, which promised great strength and speed, was presentod to Octavins: Virgil assured them that he would prove a jade: npou trial, it was found as he had said.

Walse.
Alexis will thy homely gifts disdain;
Nor, should'st thou offer all thy little store, Will rich lolas yield, but offer more. Dryden.

They bear the same relation to each other when applied to words or actions, instead of property: we speak of giving a person an assurance, or a contradiction; of presenting an address, and offering an apology : of giving a reception, presenting a figure, or offering an insult. They may likewise be extended in their application, not only to personal and individual ac-
tions, but also to such as respect the pub lic at large: we give a description in writ, ing, as well as by word of mouth; ons presents the public with the fruit of one's labors; we offer remarks on auch things as attract notice, and call for animadversion.
Sacred interpreter of human thought, How few respect or use thee as they ought; But all shall give account of every wrong Who dare dishonor or defile the torigue.

Cowpea.
He carefully retained the secret, and did not commanicate to any person living that he received any letter from the king, till the very minnte he presented it to the House of Commons.

> Clarendon.

Socrates deterred Alcibiades from the prayers and sacrifices which he was going to offer.

ADDIson.
These terms may also be employed to designate the actions of unconscious agents, by which they are characterized: in this sense they come very near to the word EXHIBIT, which, from exhibeo, sig. nifies to hold or put forth. Here the word give is equally indefinite and general, denoting simply to send from one'a self, and appliee mostly to what proceeda from another, by a natural cause: thus, a thing is said to give pain, or to give pleasure. Tbings are said to present or offer: thus, a town is said to present a fine view, or an idea presents itself to the mind; an opportunity offers, that is, offers itself to our notice. To exhibit is properly applied in this sense of setting forth to view; but expresses, likewise, the idea of attracting notice also: that which is exhibited is more atriking than what is presented or offered, thus a poem is said to exhibit marks of genius.

The apprehension of the good
Gives but the greater feeling to the worse.
Shakspeare.
Its pearl the rock presents, its gold the mine.
JENYM.
True gennine dulness mov'd his pity, Unless it offer'd to be witty.

Swift,
The recollection of the past becomes dreadful to a guilty man. It eoshibits to him a life throws away on vanities and follies. Blalr.

## TO GIVE UP, DELIVER, SURRENDER, YIELD, CEDE, CONCEDE.

We GIVE UP (v. To give, grant) that which we wish to retain ; we DELIVER that which we wish not to retain. Deliver does not include the idea of a transfer
but give up implies both the giving from, and the giving to: we give up our house to the accommodation of our friends; we deliver property into the hands of the owner. To give $u p$ is a colloquial substitute for either SURRENDER or YIELD, as it designates no circumstance of the action; it may be employed in familiar discourse, in almost every case, for the other terms: where the action is compulsory, we may either say an officer gives up or surrenders his sword; when the action is discretionary, we may either say he gives up or yields a point of discussion: give up has, however, an extensiveness of application, which gives it an office distinct from either surrender or yield. When we speak of familiar and personal subjects, give $u p$ is more suitable than surrender, which is confined to matters of public interest or great moment: a man gives up his place, his right, his claim, and the like; he surrenders a fortress, a vessel, or his property to his creditors. When give $u p$ is compared with yield, they both respect personal matters; but the former expresses a much stronger action than the latter: a man gives up his whole judgmeut to another; he yields to the opinion of another in particular cases: he gives himself $u p$ to sensual indulgences; he yields to the force of temptaticn.

CEDE, from the Latio eedo, to give, is properly to surrender by virtue of a treaty: we may surrender a town as an act of necessity; but the cession of a country is purely a political transaction : thus, generals frequently surrender sucb towns as they are not able to defend; and governments cede such countries as they find it not convenient to retain. To CONCEDE, which is but a variation of cede, is a mode of yielding which may be either an act of discretion or courtesy; as when a government concedes to the demands of the people certain privileges, or when an individual concedes any point in dispute for the sake of peace.

[^63]convictions, and consent to live as they see oth crs around them living.

BLAIS
As to the magic power which the devil imparts for these concessions of his votaries, theo logians have different opinions. Cumberlana

## TO GIVE UP, $\triangle B A N D O N$, REBIGN, FOREGO.

These terms differ from the preceding ( $v$. To give up), inasmuch as they desig. nate actions entirely free from foreign influence. A man GIVES UP, ABAN. DONS (v. To abandon), and RESIGNS ( $v$. To abandon), from the dictates of his own mind, independently of all control from others. To give $u p$ and abandon both denote a positive decision of tho mind; but the former may be the act of the understanding or the will, the latter is more commonly the act of the will and the passions: to give $u p$ is applied to familiar cases; abandon to matters of importance : one gives up an idea, an intention, a plan, and the like; one abandons a project, a scheme, a measure of government.
Upon his friend telling him he wondered he gave vo the question, when he had visibly the better of the dispute; I am ncver ashained, says he, to be confuted by one who is master of fifty legions.

ADDISDN.
They have totally abandoned the ehattered and old-fashioned fortress of prerogative.

Burex.
To give up and resign are applied either to outward actions, or merely to inward movements; but the former is active, and determinately fixes the conduct; the latter seems to be rather passive, it is the leaning of the mind to the circumstances: a man gives $u p$ his situation by a positive act of his choice; he resigns his office when he feels it inconvenient to hold it: so, likewise, we give up expectations, and resign bopes. In this sense, FOREGO, which signifies to let go, is comparable with resign, inasmuch as it expresses a passive action ; but we resign that which we have, and we forego that which we might bave: thus, we re sign the claims which we have already made; we forego the claims which wh might make : the former may be a mat. ter of prudence; the latter is always an act of virtue and forbearance.

He declares himself to be now satisfled to the contrary, in which he has givon up the canse.

DAIDEN

The praise of artful numbers I resign, And hang my pipe upon the sacred pine.

Then, pilgrim, turo, thy cares forego;
All earth-bora cares are wrong. Gondsmith.
When applied to the state of a person's mind, or the actions flowing from that state, to give $u p$ is used either in a good, bad, or indifferent sense; abandon always in a bad sense ; resign always in a good sense: a man may give himself up either to studious pursuits, to idle vagaries, or vicious indulgences; he abandons himself to gross vices; he resigns himself to the will of Providence, or to the circumstances of his condition: a man is said to be given up to his lusts who is without any principle to control him in their gratification; he is said to be abandoned when his outrageous conduct bespeaks an entire insensibility to every honest principle; he is said to be resigned when he discovers composure and tranquillity in the hour of affliction; so one is said to resign a thing to another when one is contented with what one has.

The mind, I say, might give itself up to that happiness which is at hand, considering that it is so very near, and that it would last so very long. Bot what words are sufficient to express that folly and want of coosideration which in such a case makes a wrong choice. Addison.
Her pinions ruffie, and low drooping scarce Can bear the monrner to the poplar shade, Wherc, all abandoned to despair, she sings Her sorrows thro' the night.

Tномвон.
High from the summit of a craggy cliff Hung o'er the deep, such as amazing frowns On utmost Kilda's shore, whose looely race Resign the setting suo to Indian worlds.

Thomson.
GLAD, PLEASED, JOYFUL, CHEERFUL.
GLAD is obviously a variation of glee and glono (v. Fire). PLEASED, from to please, marks the state of being pleased. JOYFUL bespeaks its own meaning either as full of joy or productive of great joy. CHEERFUL, v. Cheerful.

Glad denotes either a partial state, or a permanent and hahitual sentiment: in the former sense it is most nearly allied to pleased; in the latter sense to joyful and merry. Glad and pleased are both applied to the ordinary occurrences of the day; but the former denotes rather a lively and momentary sentiment, the latter a gentle but rather more lasting feeling: we are glad to see a friend who
has been long absent; we are glad to have good intelligence from our friends and relatives; we are glad to get rid of a troublesome companion; we are pleased to have the approbation of those we esteem: we are pleased to hear our friends well spoken of; we are pleased with the company of an intelligent and communicative person.

## 0 sole, in whom my thonghts find all repose, My glory, my perfection ! glad I seo

Thy face, and morn return'd. Mmron.
The soul has many different faculties, or, in other words, many different ways of actiag, and can be intensely pleased or made happy by all these different faculties or ways of acting.

AdDigon.
Glad, joyful, and cheerful, all express more or less lively sentiments; but glad is less vivid than joyful, and more so than cheerful. Gladness seems to arise as much from physical as mental causes; wine is said to make the heart glad: joy has its source in the mind, as it is in. fluenced by external circumscances; in. stances of good fortune, either for ourselves, our friends, or our country, excite joy: cheerfulness is an even tenor of the mind, which it may preserve of itself independently of all external circumstances; religious contemplation produces habitual cheerfulness. Glad is seldom employed as an epithet to qualify things, except in the scriptural or solemn style, as glad tidings of great joy: joy. ful is seldomer used to qualify persons than things; heace we speak of joyful news, a joyful occurrence, joyful faces, joyful sounds, and the like: cheerful is employed either to designate the state of the mind or the property of the thing; we either speak of a cheerful disposition, a cheerful person, a cheerful society, or a cheerful face, a cheerful sound, a cheerful aspect, and the like.

## Maa superior walks <br> Amid the glad creatioo, musing praise.

## Thomson.

Thus joyful Troy maintain'd the watch of night, While fear, pale comrade of inglorions flight, And heaven-hred horror, on the Grecian part, Sat on each facc, and sadden'd every beart.

Popg
No sun e'er gilds the gloomy horrors there, No che日rful gales refresh the lazy air. Pops

When used to qualify one's actions, they all bespeak the temper of the mind:
gladly denotes a high degree of willingness as opposed to aversion: one who is suffering under excruciating pains gladly submits to anything which promises relief: joyfully denotes unqualified pleasure, unmixed with any alloy or restrictive consideration; a convert to Ohristianity joyfully goes through all the initiatory ceremonies which entitle him to all its privileges, spiritual and temporal: cheerfully denotes the absence of unwillingness, it is opposed to reluctantly; the zealous Christian cheerfully submits to every hardship to which be is exposed in the course of his religious profession.

## For his particular I'll receive him gladly, But not one follower. <br> Shakspeare.

Never did men more joyfully obey,
Or sooner underatand the sign to fiy. Dmpden.
Doctrine is that which must prepare men for discipline, and men never go so cheerfully as when they see where they go.

Sodth.

## TO GLANCE AT, ALLUDE TO.

GLANCE, probably from the German glänzen, to shine, signifies to make appear to the eye. ALLUDE, v. To allude.

These terms are nearly allied in the sense of indirectly referring to any object, either in written or verbal discourse: but glance expresses a cursory and latent action; allude, simply an indirect but undisguised action: ill-natured satirists are perpetually glancing at the follies and infirmities of individuals; the Scriptures are full of allusions to the manners and customs of the Easterns: he who attempts to write an epitome of universal history must take but a hasty glance at the most important events.

Entering opon his discourse, Socrates says he does not belteve any the most comic genins caa censure him for talking upon such a subject (the immortaity of the soul) at such a time (that of death). This passage, I think, evidently plances npon Aristophanes. Who writ a comedy on parpose to ridicule the discourses of thiat divine philosopher.

ADDIBON.
The euthor in the whole course of his poem, has infinite allusions to places of Scriptare.

Andison.

## GLARING, BAREFACED.

GLARING is here used in the figurative sense, drawn from its natural signification of broad light, which strikes powerfully upon the senses. BAREFACED signifies literally hering a bare
or uncovered face, which denotes the absence of all disguise or all shame.

Glaring designates the thing; bare faced characterizes the person: a glaring falsehood is that which strikes the ob. server in an instant to be falsehood; a barefaced lie or falsehood betrays the effrontery of him who utters it. A glar. ing absurdity will be seen instantly without the aid of reflection; a barefaced piece of impudence characterizes the agent as more than ordinarily lost to all sense of decorum.
The glaring side is that of enmity. Bosxr.
The animosities increased, and the parties appeared barefaced against each other.

Clarendon.

## GLEAM, GLIMMER, RAY, BEAM.

GLEAM is in Saxon gleomen, German glimmen, etc. GLIMMER is a variation of the same. RAY is concected with the word row. BEAM comes from the German baum, a tree.

Certain portions of light are designated by all these terms, but gleam and glimmer are indefinite; ray and beam are definite. A gleam is properly the commencement of light, or that portion of opening light which interrupts the darkness: a glimmer is an unsteady gleam: ray and beam are portions of light which emanate from some luminous body; the former from all luminous bodies in general, the latter more particularly from the sun: the former is, as its derivation denotes, a row of light issuing in a greater or less degree from any body; the latter is a great row of light, like a pole issuing from a body. There may be a gleam of light visible on the wall of a dark room, or a glimmer if it be movable; there may be rays of light visible at night on the back of a glow-worm, or rays of light may break through the shutters of a closed room; the sun in the height of its splendor sends forth its beams.
A dreadful gleam from his bright armor came, And from his eyehalls flash'd the living flame.

Pope.
The glimmering light which shot into the chaos from the utmost verge of the crestion, is wonderfally beantiful and poetic. ADDison.
A sudden ray shot beaming o'er the plain,
Aud show'd the ahores, the navy, and the main.
Pops

## GLOOMY

The stars shine smarter ; and the moon adorns, As with unborrow'd beams, her horns. Defnen.

## GLIMPSE, GLANCE.

A GLIMPSE is the action of the object appearing to the eye; a GLANCE is the action of the eye seeking the object: one catches a glimpse of an object; one casts a glance at an object: the latter therefore is properly the means for obtaining the former, which is the end: we get a glimpse by means of a glance. The glimpse is the hasty, imperfect, and sudden view which we get of an objeot; the glance is the hasty and imperfect view which we take of an object: the former may depend upon a varicty of circumstances; the latter depends upon the will of the agent. We can seldom do more than get a glimpse of objects in a carriage that is going with rapidity: when we do not wish to be observed to look, we take but a glance of an object.

Of the state with which practice has not acquainted us, we snatch a glimpse, we discern a point, and regulate the rest by passion and by fancy.

Jonnson.

## Here passion first I felt,

Commation strange ! in all enjoyments else Superior, unmoved; here only weak
Against the charm of heauty's pow'rful glance.
Milton.

## GLOBE, BALI.

GLOBE, in Latin globus, comes probably from the Greek $\gamma \eta \lambda 0 \phi 0 s$, a hillock of earth. BALL, in Teutonic ball, is doubtless connected with the words bowl, bow, bend, and the like, signifying that which is turned or rounded.

Globe is to ball as the species to the genus; a globe is a ball, but every ball is not a globe. The globe does not in its strict sense require to be of an equal rotundity in all its parts; it is properly an irregularly round body: a ball, on the other hand, is generally any round body, but particularly one that is entirely, regularly round ; the earth itself is therefore properly denominated a globe from its unequal rotundity: and for the same reason the mechanical body, which is made to represent the earth, is also denominated a globe : but in the higher style of writing the earth is frequently denominated a ball, and in familiar discourse every solid body which assumes a cipculer form is entitled a ball.

It ls said by modern philosophers, that net only the great globes of matter are thinly scattered through the universe, but the hardest bodies are so porous, that if all matter were compressed to perfect solidity, it might be contained in a cube of a few feet.

JoHnson.
What though in solemn silence all
Move ronnd the dark terrestrial ball, In reason's ear they all rejoice, And ntter forth a glorious voice.

ADDIson.

## GLOOM, HEAVINESS.

GLOOM has its source internally, and is often independent of outward circum. stances ; HEAVINESS is a weight upon the spirits, produced by a foreign cause: the former belongs to the constitution; the latter is oceasional. People of a melancholy habit have a particular gloom hang over their minds which pervades all their thoughts; those who suffer under severe disappointments for the present, and have gloomy prospects for the future, may be expected to be heavy at heart; we may sometimes dispel the gloom of the mind by the force of reflection, particularly by the force of religious contemplation : heaviness of spirits is itself a temporary thing, and may be succeeded by vivacity or lightness of mind when the pressure of the moment has subsided.
If we consider the frequent reliefs we receive from langhter, and how often it breaks the gloom which is apt to depress the mind, one wonld take care not to grow too wise for so great a pleasure of life.

Addison.
Worldly prosperity flattens as life descends. He who lately overflowed with cheerful spirits and high hopes, begins to look back with heaviness on the days of former years.

Blair.

## GLOOMY, SULLEN, MOROSE, SPLENETIC.

All these terms denote a temper of mind the reverse of easy or happy: GLOOMY lies either in the general constitution or the particular frame of the mind; SULLEN lies in the temper: a man of a gloomy disposition is an involuntary agent ; it is his misfortune, and renders him in some measure pitiable: the sullen man yields to his evil humors; sullenness is his fault, and renders him offensive. The gloomy man distresses himself most; his pains are all his own: the sullen man has a great share of discontent in his composition; he charges his sufferings upon others, and makes them suffer in common with himself. A
man may be rendered gloomy for a time by the influence of particular circumstances; but sullenness creates pains for itself when all external circumstances of a painful nature are wanting.
Th' unwilling heralds act their lord's commands, Penaive they walk along the barren sands: Arriv'd, the hero in his tent they find
With gloomy aspect, on hia arm redin'd. Pope. At this they ceased; the atera debate expir'd; The chiefs in sullen majesty retir'd. Pope.
Sullenness and MOROSENESS are both the inherent properties of the temper; but the former discovers itself in those who have to submit, and the latter in those who have to command: sullenness therefore betrays itself mostly in early life; moroseness is the peculiar characteristic of age. The sullen person bas many fancied hardships to endure from the control of others; the morase person causes others to endure many real hardships, by keeping them under too severe a control. Sullenness shows itself mostly by an unseemly reserve; moroseness shows itself by the hardness of the speech, and the rougbness of the voice. Sullenness is altogether a sluggish principle, that leads more or less to inaction ; moroseness is a barsh feeling, that is not contented with exacting obedience unless it inflicts pain.

The morose philosopher is so mnch affected by these and some other authorities that he becomes a convert to his friend, and desires be wonld take him with him when he went to his next ball.

Budgell.
Moroseness is a defect of the temper; but SPLEEN, from the Latin splen, is a defect in the heart: the one betrays itself in bebavior, the other more in conduct. A morose man is an unpleasant companion; a splenetic man is a bad member of society; the former is illnatured to those ahout him, the latter is ill-humored with all the world. Moroseness vents itself in temporary expressions, spleen indulges itself in perpetual bitterness of expression.
While in that splenetic mood we amused ourselves in a sour critical speculation of which we oorselvea were the objects, a few mooths effected a total change in onr variable minds. Burke.

## GLORY, HONOR.

GLORY is something dazzling and widely diffused. The Latin word gloria,
anciently written glosia, is in all prob. ahility connected with our words gloss, glaze, glitter, glow, and the Northern word gleissen, glotzen, glänzen, glühen, all which come from the Hebrew gehel, a live coal. That the moral idea of glory is best represented by light is evident from the glo$r y$ which is painted round the head of our Saviour. HONOR is something less splendid, but more solid, and probably comes from the Hebrew hon, wealth or substance.

Glory impels to extraordinary efforts and to great undertakings. Honor induces to a discharge of one's duty. Excellence in the attainment, and success in the exploit, bring glory; a faithful exercise of one's talents reflects honor. Glo$r y$ is connected with everything which has a peculiar public interest; honor is more properly ohtained within a private circle. Glory is not confined to the nation or life of the individual by whom it is sought; it spreads over all the earth, and descends to the latest posterity : hon$o r$ is limited to those who are connected with the subject of it, and eye-witnesses to his actions. Glory is attainable but by few, and may be an object of indifference to any one; honor is more or less within the reach of all, and must be disregarded by no one. A general at the bead of an army goes in pursuit of glo$r y$; the humble citizen who acts his part in society so as to obtain the approbation of his fellow-citizens is in the road for honor. A nation acquires glory by the splendor of its victories, and its superiority in arts as well as arms; it obtains honor by its strict adberence to equity and good faith in all its dealings with other nations.

Hence ia our love of fame; a love so strong, We think no dangers great nor labors long, By which we hope our beings to extend, And to remotest times in glory to descend.

Jenyms.
As virtue is the most reasonable and genvine source of honor, we generally find in titles an iutimation of some particnlar merit which should recommend men to the high stations which they possess.

AdDison.
Glory is a sentiment selfish in its nature, but salutary or pernicious in its effect, according as it is directed; honor is a principle disinterested in its nature, and beneficial in its operations. A thirst
for glory is seldom indulged but at the expense of others, as it is not attainable in the plain path of duty; there are but few opportunities of acquiring it by elevated acts of goodness, and still fewer who have the virtue to embrace the opportunities that offer: a love of honor can never be indulged but to the advantage of others; it is restricted by fixed laws; it requires a sacrifice of every selfish consideration, and a due regard to the rights of others; it is associated with nothing but virtue.
If glory cannot move a mind ao mean, Nor future praise from fading pleasurea wean, Yet why should he defraud his son of fame, And gradge the Romana their immortal name?

DAYDEN.
The sense of honor is of so fine and delicate a nature that it is only to be met with in minds which are naturally noble, or in auch as have been cultivated by great examples or refiaed education.

Guardian.

## to Glory, boast, vaunt.

To GLORY is to hold as one's glory (v.Glory). To BOAST is to set forth to one's advantage. To VAUNT, from the French avant, before, is to set one's self up before others. The first two terms denote the value which the individual sets upon that which belongs to himself, the last term may be employed in respect to others.

To glory is more particularly the act of the mind, the indulgence of the internal sentiment: to boast denotes rather the expression of the sentiment. To glory is applied only to matters of moment; boast is rather suitahle to trifling points: the former is seldom used in a bad sense, the latter still seldomer in a good one. A Christian martyr glories in the cross of Christ; a soldier boasts of his courage, and his feats in battle. To vaunt is properly to proclaim praises aloud, and is taken either in an indifferent or bad sense.

All the laymen who have exerted a more than ordinary genins in their writings, and were the glory of their times, were med whose hopes were filled with immortality.

ADDISON.
If a man looks upon himself in an abstracted light, he has not much to boaat of; but if he considers himself with regard to others, he may find occasion of glorying, if not in his own virtues, at least in the absence of another'a imperfections.

ADpison.

Not that great champion
Whom famous poets' verse so much doth oaunt And hath for twelve huge labors high extoll'd, So many furies and sharp hits did hannt.

Spenser,

## to gloss, Varnish, palliate.

GLOSS and VARNISH are figurative terms, which borrow their signification from the act of rendering the outer surface of any physical object shining. To gloss, which is connected with to glaze, is to give a gloss or brightness to anything by means of friction, as in the case of japan or mahogany: to varnish is to give an artificial gloss, by means of applying a foreigu substance. Hence, in the fig. urative use of the terms, to gloss is to put the best face upon anything by various artifices; but to varnish is to do the same thing by means of direct falsehood; to PaLLIATE, which likewise signifies to give the best possible outside to a thing ( $v$. To extenuate), requires still less artifice than either. One glosses over that which is bad, by giving it a soft name; as when a man's vices are glossed over with the name of indiscretion, or a man's mistress is termed his friend: one varnishes a bad character by ascribing good motives to his bad actions, by withholding many facts that are to his discredit, and fabricating other circumstances in his favor; an unvarnished tale contains nothing but the simple truth; the var. nished tale, on the other hand, contains a great mixture of falsehood: to palliate is to diminish the magnitude of an offence, by making an excuse in favor of the offender; as when an act of theft is palliated by considering the starving condition of the thief.
If a jealons man once finds a false glose put upon any single action, he quickly auspects all the rest. ADDison. The waiting tears stood ready for command, And now they fiow to varnish the false tale.

## Rowe.

A man's bodily defects should give him occssion to exert a oohle spirit, and to palliate those imperfections which are not in his power, by those perfections which are.

Admiaon.

## GODLIKE, DIVINE, HEAVENLY.

GODLIKE bespeaks its own meaning, as like God, or after the manner of God. DIVINE, in Latin divinus, from divus or Deus, signifies appertaining to God

HEAVENLY, or HEAVEN-LIKE, gignifiea like or appertaining to heaven.

Godlike is a more expressive, but lesa common term than divine: the former is used only as an epithet of peculiar praiae for an individual ; divine is generally employed for that which appertains to a superior being, in diatinction from that which is human. Benevolence ia a godlike property: the Divine image is atamped on the features of man, whence the face ia called by Milton "the human face divine." As divine is opposed to human, no ia heavenly to earthly; the term Divine Being diatinguishes the Creator from all other beings; but a heavenly being denotes the angela or inhabitants of heaven, in diatinction from earthly beinga, or the inhabitanta of earth. A divine influence is to be sought for only by prayer to the Giver of all good thinga; but a heavenly temper may be acquired by a steady contemplation of heavenly things, and an abatraction from those which are carthly: the Divine will is the foundation of all moral law and obligation; heavenly joys are the fruit of all our labors in this eartbly course. These terms are applied to other objects with aimilar distinction.

Sure he that made us with such large discourse, Looking before and after, gave us not
That capability and godlike reason,
To rust la us unns'd.
Shaisteare.
Of all that see or read thy comedies,
Whoever in those glasses looks may find
The spots return'd, or graces of his mind;
had by the help of so divine an art,
At leisure view and dress his nohler part.
Wallea.
Reason, alas! It does not know itself;
But man, vain man! would with his short-lin'd plummet
Fathom the vast abyss of heavenly justice.
DRIDEN.

## GODLY, RIGHTEOUS.

GODLY is a contraction of godlike ( $v$. Godlike). RIGHTEOUS signifies conformable to right or truth.

These epithets are hoth uaed in a apiritual rense, and cannot, without an indecorous affectation of religion, be introduced into any other discourse than that which is properly spiritual. Godliness, in the strict senae, is that outward deportment which characterizes a heavenly temper; prayer, reading of the Scriptures, public worship, and every religioua uct, enters into the signification of godli-
ness, which at the same time aupposes a temper of mind, not only to delight in, but to profit by such exercisea: right eousness, on the other hand, comprehends Chriatian morality ; in distinction from that of the heathen or unheliever; a righteous man does right, not only because it is right, but because it is agreeable to the will of his Maker, and the example of his Redeemer; righteousness is therefore to godliness aa the effect to the cause. The godly mau goes to the sanctuary, and by converae with his Maker assimilates all his affections to the character of that Being whom he worghips; when he leavea the sanctuary he proves the efficacy of his godliness by his righteons converse with his fellow-creatures. It is easy, however, for men to mistake the meana for the end, and to rest content with godliness without righteousness, as too many are apt to do who seem to make their whole duty to consiat in an atteation to religious observances, and in the indulgence of extravagant feelings.
It hath been the great design of the devil and his instruments in all ages to undermine religion, by making an unbappy separation and divorce between godliness and morality. But let us not deceive ourselves; this was always religion, and tbe condition of our acceptance with God, to endeavor to be like God in purity and holiness, in justice and righteousnesa.

Tillotgon.
GOLD, GOLDEN.
These terme are both employcd as epitheta, but GOLD is the qubatantive used in compoaition, and GOLDEN the adjective, in ordinary use. The former is strictly applied to the metal of which the thing is made, as a gold cup, or a gold coin; hut the latter to whatever appertaina to gold, whether properly or fig. uratively: as the golden lion, the golden crown, the golden age, or a golden harveat

## GOOD, GOODNESS.

GOOD, which under different forms runs through all the Northern languages, and has a great affinity to the Greek a catos, is aupposed by Adelung to be derived from the Latio gaudeo, Greek $\gamma \eta \theta_{\varepsilon i v}$, and Hebrew chada, to rejoice.

Good and GOODNESS are abstract terms, drawn from the same word; the former to denote the thing that is good, the latter the inherent good property of
persons or things. All good comes from God, whose goodness toward his creatures is unbounded. The good we do is determined by the tendency of the action ; but our goodness in doing it is determined by the motive of our actions. Good is of a twofold nature, physical and moral, and is opposed to evil; goodness is applicable either to the disposition of moral agents or the qualities of inanimate objects; it is opposed to badness. By the order of Providence the most horrible convulsions are made to bring about good; the goodness or badness of any fruit depends upon its fitness to be enjoyed.
Each form'd for all, promotes through private care
The pablie good, and justly takes its alare.
Jenyna.
The reigning error of his life was, that Savage mistook the love for the practice of virtue, and was indeed not so much a good man as the friend of goodness.

Johnaon.

## GOOD, BENEFIT, ADVANTAGE.

GOOD ( $v$. Good) is an abstract universal term, which in its unlimited sense comprehends everything that can be conceived of, as suited in all its parts to the end proposed. In this sense BENEFIT and ADVANTAGE (v. Benefit and Advan. tage) are modifications of good; but the term good has likewise a limited application, which brings it to a just point of comparison with the other terms bere chosen: the common idea which allies these words to each other is that of good as it respects a particular object. Good is here employed indefinitely; benefit and advantage are specified by some collateral eircumstances. Good is done without regara to the person who does it, or him to whom it is done; but benefit has always respect to the relative condition of the giver and receiver, who must be both speciified. Hence we say of a charitable man that he does much good, or that he bestows benefits upon this or that individual. In like manner, when speaking of particular communities or society at large, we may say that it is for the good of society or for the good of mankind that every onc submits to the sacrifice of some portion of his natural liberty; but it is for the benefit of the poorer orders that the charitably disposed employ their money in oharity.

Good is limited to no mode or manner, no condition of the person or the thing; it is applied indiscriminately : benefit is more particularly applicable to the external circumstances of a person, as to his bealth, his improvement, his pecuniary condition, and the like; it is also confined in its application to persons oniy: we may counsel another for his good, although we do not counsel him for his benefit; but we labor for the benefit of another when we set apart for him the fruits of our labor: exercise is always attended with some good to all persons; it is of particular benefit to those who are of a lethargic habit: an indiscreet zeal does more harm than good to the cause of religion; a patient cannot expect to derive benefit from a medicine when he counteracts its ef. fects.
Our present good the easy task is made,
To earn superior bliss when this shall fade. Jentis.
Unless men were endowed by nature with aome sense of duty or moral obligation, they could reap no beneft from revelation.

Blait.
A benefit is a positive and direct good, an advantage is an adventitious and indirect good: the benefit serves to supply some want, to remove some evil, and afford some sort of relief: an advantage serves to promote some ulterior object. An advantage, therefore, will not be a benefit unless it be turned to a good use. Education may be a benefit to a person, if it enable him to procure a competence; a polite education is of advantage to one who associates with the great.
It was late before this country found out tho benefits of inland navigation.

History of Inland Navigation.
The true art of memory is the art of attention. No man will read with much advantage who is not able at pleasure to evacuate his mind.

Joinson.
GOOD-NATURE, GOOD-HUMOR.
GOOD-NATURE and GOOD-HOMOR both imply the disposition to please and be pleased; but the former is habitual and permanent, the latter is temporary and partial: the former lies in the nature and frame of the mind, the latter in the state of the humors or spirits. A good-natured man recommends himself at all times for his good-nature; a good-hu. mored man recommends himself partiou.
larly as a compauion: good-nature displays ttself by a readiness in doing kind offices; good-humor is confined mostly to the ease and cheerfulness of one's outward deportmont in social converse: good-nature is apt to be guilty of weak compliances; good-humor is apt to be succeeded by fits of peevishness and depression. Goodnature is applicable only to the character of the individnal; good-hunor may be said of a whole company: it is a mark of good-nature in a man not to disturb the good-humor of the company he is in, by resenting the affront that is offered him by another.
I concladed, however unaccountable the assertion migbt appear st first sight, that good-nature was an essential quality in a satirist.

ADDison.
When Virgil said " He that did not bate Bavius might love Mxvlus," he was in perfect good-humor.

ADDISON.

## goods, FURNITURE, Chattels, movables, EFFECTS.

All these terms are applied to such things as belong to an individual: the first term is the most general, both in sense and application; all the rest are species.

FURNITURF comprehends all household goods; wherefore in regard to an individual, supposing the house to contain all he bas, the general is put for the specific term, as when one speaks of a person's moving his GOODS for his furniture: but in the strict sense goods comprehends more than furniture, including not only that which is adapted for the domestic purposes of a family, but also everything which is of value to a person: the chairs and tables are a part of furniture; papers, books, and money are included among his goods: it is obvions, therefore, that goods, even in its most limited sense, is of wider import than furniture.
Now I give up my shop and dispose of all my peotical goods at once; I must therefore desire that the public would please to take them in the gross, and that everybody would turn over what he does not like.

Prior.
Considering that your honses, your place and furniture, are not suitable to your quality, I concelve that your expense ought to be reduced to two-thirds of your estate.

Wentworth.
CHATTELS, which is probably changed from cattle, is a technical term in law, and
therefore not so frequent in ordinary use, but still sufficientiy employed to deserve notice. It comprehends that species of goods which is in a special manner separated from one's person and house; a man's catile, his implements of husbandry, the partial rights which he has in land or buildings, are all comprehended under chattels: hence the propriety of the expression to seize a man's goods and chattels, as denoting the disposable property which be has about his person or at a distance. MOVABLES comprehends all the other terms in the limited application to property, as far as it admits of being removed from one place to the other; it is opposed either to fixtures, when speaking of furniture, or to land as contrasted with goods and chattels.

## Honor's a leasc for lives to come,

And cannot be exteaded from The legal tenant; 'tis a chattel Not to be forfeited in battle.

## Hudibana.

EFFECTS is a term of nearly as extensive a signification as goods, but not so extensive in its application: whatever a man has that is of any supposed value. or convertible into money, is entitled his goods; whatever a man has that can effect, produce, or bring forth money by sale, is entitled his effects; goods, there fore is applied only to that which a man has at his own disposal ; effects more prop. erly to that which is left at the disposal of others. A man makes a sale of his goods on his removal from any place; his creditors or executors take care of his effects either on his bankruptcy or decease: goods, in this case, is seldom employed but in the limited sense of what is removable; but effects includes everything real as well as personal.
There can be no doubt hut that movables of every kind become sooner appropriated than the permanent substantial soil.

Blackgtone.
The laws of bankruptcy compel the bankrupt to give up all his effects to the use of the creditors without any concealment. Blacestone.

## GOODS, POSSESSIONS, PROPERTY.

All these terms are applicable to such things as are the means of enjoyment; but the former term respects the direct quality of producing enjoyment, the two latter have regard to the subject of the enjoyment; we consider GOODS as they
are real-or imaginary, adapted or not adapted for the producing of real happiness; those who abound in the goods of this world are not always the happiest: POSSESSIONS must be regarded as they are lasting or temporary; he who is anxious for eartbly possessions forgets that they are but transitory, and dependent upon a thousand contingencies: PROPERTY is to be considered as it is legal or illegal, just or unjust; those who are anxious for great property are not always scrupulous about the means by which it is to be obtained. The purity of a man's Christian character is in danger from an overweening attachment to earthly goods; no wise man will boast the multitude of his possessions, when he reflects that if they do not leave him, the time is not far distant when ho must leave them; the validity of one's claim to property which comes by inheritance is better founded than any other.
Tha worldling attaones himsalf wholly to what he reckons the ooly solid goods, the poaaseton of riches and influence.

Blair.
Whila worldly men ealarge their posseasione, and extend their connectiona, they imagine they ara atrengthaning themselves.

Blait.
For numerons blessings yearly showar'd,
And proparty with plenty crown'd, Accapt our pious praisa.

Dryden.

## TO GOVERN, RULE, REGULATE.

GOVERN is in French gouverner, Latin guberno, Greek кvßepvaw. RULE and REGULATE signify to bring under a rule, or make by rule.

The exercise of authority enters more or less into the signification of these terms; but to govern implies the exercise likewise of judgment and knowledge. To rule implies rather the unqualified exercise of power, the making the will the rule; a king governs bis people by means of wise laws and an upright administration: a despot meles over a nation according to his arbitrary decision; if he have no principle, his mule becomes an oppressive tyranny. These terms are applied either to persons or things: persons govern or rule others; or they govern, rule, or regulate things.
In regard to persons, govern is always in a good sense, but rule is sonetimes taken in a had sense; it is frequently asnociated with an abuse of power: to gov-
ern is so perfectly discretionary, that we speak of governing ourselves; but we speak only of ruling others: nothing can be more lamentable than to be ruled by one who does not know how to govern himself: it is the business of a man to rule his house by keeping all its members in due subjection to his authority: it is the duty of a person to rule those who are under him in all matters wherein they are incompetent to govern them selves.
Slaves to our passiona we become, and than It becomes impossible to govern men. Waller
Marg'ret shall now be queed, and rule the king, But I will rule both her, the king, and reslm:

Shakbpeabe.
In application to things, govern and rule admit of a similar distinction : a minister governs the state, and a pilot governs the vessel: the movements of the maohine are in both cases directed by the exerase of the judgment; a person rules the times, seasons, fashions, and the like; it is an act of the individual will. Regulate is a species of governing simply by judgment; the word is applicable to things of minor moment, where the force of authority is not so requisits: one governs the affairs of a nation, or a large body where great interests are involved; we regulate the concerns of an individual, or we regulate in cases where good order or convenience only is consulted: so likewise in regard to ourselves, we govern our passions, but we regulat, our affections.
Whence can this very motion take its birth? Not sure from matter, from dull clods of earth? But from a living spirit lodg'd within,
Which governs all the bodily machine. Jentra.
When I behold a factions band agree
To call it freedom when themselves are free; Each wanton judge naw panal atatutes draw; Laws grind the poor, and rich men rule the law; I fly from petty tyrants to the throne.

Goldamita
Regulata the patient in his menner of living.
Wiseman.
These terms are all properly used to denote the acts of conscious agents, hut by a figure of personification they may be applied to inanimate or moral objects : the price of one market governs the price of another, or governs the seller in his demand; fashion and caprice ruld the majority, or particular fashions rulh
them: the time of one clock regulates that of many others.

> The gross of men are governed more by appanances than realities.
> tatler.
> Distracting thoughts by turns his bosom mul'd, Now tr'd by wrath, and now by reason cool'd.
> Pope.
> Though a sense of moral good and evil be deeply impressed on the heart of man, it is not ot sufflient power to regulate his life.' Blaini.

## GOVERNMENT, ADMINISTRATION.

Вотн these terms may be employed either to dosignate the act of GOVERNING and ADMINISTERING, or the persons governing and adininistering!' In both cases government has a more exten. sive meaning than administration: the former includes every exercise of authority; while administration implies only that exercise of authority which consists in putting the laws or will of another in force.

[^64]When we speak of the government, as it respects the persons, it implies the whole body of constituted authorities; and the administration, only that part which puts in execution the intentions of the whole: the government of a country, therefore, may remain unaltered, while the admin. istration undergoes many changes : it is the business of the government to make treaties of peace and war; and without a government it is impossible for any people to negotiate: it is the business of the administration to administer justice, to regulate the finances, and to direct all the complicated concerns of a nation; without an administration all public business would be at a stand.

What are we to do if the government and the〒hole commnnity is of the same description?

BUREE.

## government, CONstitution.

GOVERNMENT is here, as in the former article ( $v$. Government), the generic term; CONSTITUTION the specific. Government implies generally the act of governing, or exercising authority under
any form whatever; constitution impliea any constituted or fixed form of govern ment: we may have a government without a constitution; we cannot have a constitution without a government. In the first formation of society, government was placed in the hands of individuals who exercised authority according to discretion rather than any positive rule or law : bere then was government without a constitution: as time and experience proved the necessity of some established form, and the wisdom of enlightened men dis. covered the advantages and disadvantages of different forms, government in every country assumed a more definite shape, and became the constitution of the country; hence then the union of government and constitution. Governments are divided by political writers into three classes, monarchical, aristocratic, and republican; but these three general forms have been adopted with such variations and modifications as to impart to the constitution of every country something peculiar. The term constitution is now particularly applied to any popular form of government, or any government formed at the pleasure of the people, and in a still more restricted sense to the government of England.
Free governments have committed more flagrant acts of tyranny than the most perfect despotic governments which we have ever known. Burke.
The physician of the state who, not satisfied with the cure of distempers, andertakes to regenerate constitutions, ought to show uncommon powers.

Burke.
GRACE, FAVOR.
GRACE, in French grace, Latin gratia, comes from gratus, kind, because a grace results from pure kindness, independently of the merit of the recciver ; but FA. VOR is tbat which is granted voluntarily and without hope of recompense, independently of all obligation.

Grace is never used but in regard to those who have offended and made themselves liable to punishment; favor is employed for actual good. An act of grace, in the spiritual sense, is that merciful influence which God exerts over his most unworthy creatures from the infinite goodness of his Divine nature; it is to his special grace that we attribute every good

Seeling by which we are prevented from committing sin : the term favor is employed indiscriminately with regard to man or his Maker ; those who are in power have the greatest opportunity of conferring favors; but all we receive at the hands of our Maker must be acknowledged as a favor.
But say 1 could repent and could obtain,
By act of grace, my former state, how soon
Would height recall high thoughts! Mriton.
A bad man is wholly the creature of the world.
He hanga upon its favor.
Blaia.

## GRACE, CHATRM.

GRACE is altogether corporeal ; CHARM is either corporeal or mental : the grace qualifies the action of the body; the charm is an inherent quality in the body itself. A lady moves, dances, and walks with grace; the charms of her persou are equal to those of her mind.
Savage's method of life particularly qualified him for conversation, of which he knew how to practiae all the graces.

JoHnson.
Music has charms to soothe the aavage breast.
Cononeve.

## GRaCEFUL, COMELY, ELEGANT.

A GRACEFUL figure is rendered so hy the deportment of the body. A COMELY figure has that in itself which pleases the eye. Gracefulness results from nature improved by art ; comeliness is mostly the work of nature. It is possible to acquire gracefulness by the aid of the dancing-master, but for a comely form we are indebted to nature aided by circumstances. Grace is a quality pleasing to the eye; but ELEGANCE, from the Latin eligo, electus, select and choice, is a quality of a higher nature, that inspires admiration; elegant is applicable, like graceful, to the motion of the body, or like comely to the person, and is extended in its meaning also to language, and even to dress. A person's step is graceful; his air or his movements are elegant; the graoe of an action lies chiefly in its adaptation to the occasion.

The first who approached her was a youth of graceful presence and conrtly air, but dressed in a richer habit than had ever heen aeen in Arcadia.

Stele.
Isidas, the son of Phoebidas, was at thie time in the bloom of hia youth, and very remarkable for the comeliness of his person.

Adnison.
The natural progress of the works of men is
from rudencss to convenience, from convenience to elegance, and from slegance to nicety.

Johnson.

## GRACIOUS, MERCIFUL, KIND.

GRACIOUS, when compared with MERCIFUL, is used only in the spiritual sense; the latter is applicable to the conduct of man as well as of the Deity. Grace is exerted in doing good to an nbject that has merited the contrary; mer$c y$ is exerted in withholding the evil which has been merited. God is gracious to his creatures in affording them not only an opportunity to address him, hut every encouragement to lay open their wants to him; their unworthiness and sinfulness are not made impediments of access to him. God is merciful to the vilest of sinners, and lends an ear to the smallest breath of repentance; in the moment of executing vengeance, he stops his arm at the voice of supplication: he expects the same mercy to he extended by man toward his offending brother. An act of grace in the largest sense, as not only independent of, but opposite to, the merits of the person, is properly ascribable to God alone, but hy analogy it has also been considered as the prerogative of earthly princes: thus we speak of acts of grace, by which iosolvent dehtors are released: in like manner, the grace of the sovereign may be exerted in various ways.
So gracious hath God been to 0 B , that he hath made those things to be our duty which natural. ly tend to our felicity. Tmlotson. He that's merciful
Unto the bad is cruel to the good. Randolph,
Gracious, when compared with KIND, differs principally as to the station of the persons to whom it is applied. Gracious is altogether confined to superiors; kind is indiscriminately employed for superiors and equals: a king gives a gracious reception to the nobles who are presented to him; one friend gives a kind reception to another by whom he is visited. Gracious is a term in peculiar use at court, and among princes. Kindness is a domestic virtue; it is found mostly among those who have not so much ceremonial to dispense with.
He heard my vows, and graciously decreed My grounds to be restor'd, my former flocks ts feed.

Drydem.

Love that would all men just and tamp'rate make,
Kind to themselvea and others for his saka.
Waller.

## GRandeur, Magnificence.

GRANDEUR, from grand, in French grand, great, Latin grandis, low German grant, grand, which is the same as groot, great. MAGNIFICENCE, in Latin magnificentia, from magnus and facio, signifies making or acting on a large scale.

An extensive assemblage of striking qualities in the exterior constitntes the common signification of these terms, of which grandeur is the genus, and magnificence the species. Magrificence can. not exist without grandeur, but grandeur exists without magnificence: the former is distinguished from the latter both in degree and in application. When applied to the same objects, they differ in degree; magnificence being the highest degree of grandeur. As it respects the style of living, grandeur is within the reach of subjects ; magnificence is mostly confined to princes.

There is a kind of grandsur and respect, which the meanest and most insignificant part of mankind endeavor to procure in the little circle of their friends and acquaintance. Addison.

The wall of China is one of those Eastern pieces of magnificence which makes a figure even in the map of the world, although an account of it would haye been thought fabulous, were not the wall itself extant.

Addison.

## TO GRATIFY, INDULGE, HUMOR.

To GRATIFY, make grateful or pleasant ( $v$. Acceptable), is a positive act of the choice. To INDULGE, from the Latin indulyeo and dulcis, to sweeten or make palatable, is a negative act of the will, a yielding of the mind to circumstances. One gratifies his desires or appetites; and indulges his humors, or indulyes in pleasures: by the former, one seeks to get the pleasure which the desirc promises; by the latter, one yields to the infuence which the humor or passion exercises. Gratifying as a habit becomes a vice, and indulging as a habit is a weakness. In this sense of the words, gratification is mostly applied to mental objects, as to gratify one's curiosity ; indulgence to matters of sense or partial feeling, as to indulge one's palate. A person who is in search of pleasure
gratifies his desires as they rise; he lived for the gratification, and depends upon it for his happiness. He who has higher objects in view than the momentary gratification, will be careful not to indulge himself too much in such things as will wean him from his purpose.

It la certainly a very important lesson to learn how to enjoy ordinary thinga, and to be able to relish your being, withont the transport of some passion, or gratification of some appetite.

Sterle.
No man could have fewer avocations, whether natural or artificial, for he was alave to no passion or excess, and indulged no humor.

Comberland.
As occasional acts, gratify and indulge may be both innocent.
Titles, estates, and fantastical pleasnres are more ardently sought after by most men than the natural gratifications of a reasonable mind. Addison.
Still in short intervals of pleasing woe, Regardful of the friendly dnes I owe; I to the glorious dead forever dear. Indulge the tribute of a grateful tear. Pops.

We gratify and indulge others as well as onrselves, and mostly in the good sense: to gratify is for the most part in return for services; it is an act of generosity: to indulge is to pield to the wishes or be lenient to the infirmities of others; it is an act of kindness or goodnature.

Good-humor is a state between gayety and unconcern ; the act or emanation of a mind at leisure to regard the gratification of another.

Johnaon.
A little more indulgence for common nnderstandings, and somewhat less of austerity of temper, might have preaerved this illuatrions man to the conncils of his country.

Blabett.
To HUMOR is mostly taken in a bad sense.
A skilful manager of the rabble, with two or three popular empty words, such as "right of the subject and liberty of conscience," well tuned and humored, may whistle them backward and forward till he is weary.

Soote.

## gratuitous, voluntary.

GRATUITOUS is opposed to that which is obligatory. VOLUNTARY is opposed to that which is compulsory, cr involuntary. A gift is gratuitous when it flows entirely from the free will of the giver, independently of right: an offer is voluntary which flows from the free
will, independently of all external constraint. Gratuitous is therefore to vol. untary as a spccies to the genus. What is gratuitous is voluntary, although what is voluntary is not always gratuitous. The gratuitous is properly the voluntary in regard to the disposal of one's property ; and the voluntary is applicable to all other actions.
The heroic band of cashierers of monarchs were in haste to make a generous diffinsion of the knowledge which they had thus gratuitously received.

Burke.
Their privileges relative to contribution were voluntarily surrendered.

Buzar.

## GRATUITY, RECOMPENSE.

The distinction between these terms is very similar to the above ( $v$. Gratuitous). They both imply a gift, and a gift by way of return for some supposed service; but the gratuity is independent of all expectation as well as right: the recompense is founded upon some admissible claim. Those who wish to confer a favor in a delicate manner, will sometimes do it under the shape of a gratuity: those who overrate their services, will in all probability be disappointed in the recompense they receive.
If there he one or two scholars more, that will
oe no great addition to his trouble, considering
that, perhaps, their parents may recompense him
by their gratuities.
Whatrneux.
The could be less than to afford him praise,
Milton.

## GRAVE, SERIOUS, SOLEMN.

GRAVE, in Latin gravis, heavy, denotes the weight which keeps the mind or person down, and prevents buoyancy ; it is opposed to the light. SERIOUS, in Latin serus, late or slow, marks the quality of slowness or considerateness, either in the mind or that which occupies the mind : it is opposed to the jocose.

Grave expresses more than serious; it does not merely bespeak the absence of mirth, hut that heaviness of mind which is displayed in all the movements of the body; seriousness, on the other hand, bespeaks no depression, but simply steadiness of action, and a refrainment from all that is jocular. A man may be grave in his walk, in his tone, in his gesture, in his looks, and all his exterior; he is se-
rious only in his general air, his counter nance, and demeanor. Gravity is produced by some external circumstance; seriousness springs from the operation of the mind itself, or from circumstances. Misfortunes or age will produce gravity: seriousness is the fruit of reflection. Gravity is, in the proper sense, confined to the person, as a characteristic of his temper; serious, on the other hand, is a characteristic either of persons or things: hence we should speak of a grave assembly, not a serious assembly, of old men; grave senators, not serious senators; of a grave speaker, not a serious speaker: but a sovious, not a grave sermon; a serious, not a grave writer; but grave is sometimes extended to things in the sense of weighty, as when we speak of grave matters of deliberation, a grave objec tion, sentiment. Gravity is peculiarly ascribed to a judge, from the double cause that much depends upon his deportment, in which there ought to be gravity, and that the weighty concerns which press on his mind are most apt to produce gravity: on the other hand, both gravity and seriousness may be applied to the preacher; the former only as it respects the manner of delivery; the latter as it respects especially the matter of his discourse: the person may be grave or serious; the discourse only is serious.
If then some grave and pious man appear, They hush their noise, and lend a listening ear. Dayden.
In our retirements everything disposes us to be serious. Addison.
SOLEMN expresses more than either grave or serious, from the Latin solennis, yearly; as applied to the stated religious festivals of the Romans, it has acquired the collateral meaning of religious gravity: like serious, it is employed not so much to characterize either the person or the thing: a judge pronounces the solemn sentence of condemnation in a solemn manner; a preacher delivers many solemn warnings to his hearers. Gravi$t y$ may be the effect of corporeal habit, and seriousness of mental habit; but solemnity is something occasional and extraordinary. Some children discover a remarkable gravity as soon as they begin to observe; a regular attention to religious worshio will induce a habit ot so
riourncss; the admonitions of a parent on his death-bed will have peculiar solemnity.

> In most of our long words which ars derived from the Latin we contract the length of tha syllables, that gives them a orave and solemn air in their own language.
> ADorson.

## GRAVE, TOMB, SEPULCHRE.

All these terms denote the place where bodies are deposited. GRAVE, from the German graben, etc., has a reference to the hollow made in the earth. TOMB, from tumulus and tumeo, to swell, has a reference to the rising that is made above it. SEPULCHRE, from sepelia, to bury, has a reference to the use for which it is employed. From this explanation it is evident that these terms have a certain propriety of application: "to sink into the grave," is an expression that carries the thoughts where the body must rest in death, consequently to death itself : " to inscribe on the tomb, or to encircle the tomb with flowers," carries our thoughts to the external of that place in which the body is interred. To inter in a sepnulchre, or to visit or enter a sepulchre, reminds us of a place in which bodies are deposited; or, by a figure, where anything may be buried.
The path of glory leads but to the grave. Gray. Nor you, ye proud, impute to these the fault, If mem'ry $q$ 'er their tombs no trophies raise.

Gnay.
The Lay ltself is either lost or huried, perhaps foraver, in one of those sepulchres of MSS. which hy conrtesy are called libraries. Tyawhitr.

## GREAT, LARGE, BIG.

GREAT, in Saxon great, Dutch and low German groot, comes from grow, as the Latin crassus, thick, from cresco, to grow, is applied to all kinds of dimensions in which things can grow or increase. LARGE, in Latin largus, wide, is probably derived from the Greek $\lambda a$ and $\rho \varepsilon \varepsilon \iota \nu$, to flow plentifully; for largior signifies to give freely, and large has in English a similar sense: it is properly applied to space, extent, and quantity. BIG, from the German bauch, belly, and the English bulk, denotes great as to expansion or capacity. A house, a room, a heap, a pile, an army, etc., is great or large; an animal or a mountain is great
or big: a road, a city, a street, and the like, is termed rather great than large.
At one's first entrance into the Pantheon at Rome, how the imagination is filled with something great and amazing ! and at the same time low little in proportion one is affected with the inside of a Gothic cathedral, although it be five times larger than the other 1

ADDISON.
We are not a little pleased to find every grean leaf swarm with millions of animals, that at their largest growth are not visible to the naked eya. Anilison.
An animal no bigogr than a mite cannot appear perfect to the eye, becausa the sight takes it in at once.

ADDison.
Great is used generally in the improper sense; large and big are used only occasionally : a noise, a distance, a multitude, a number, a power, and the like, is termed great, but not large: we may, however, speak of a large portion, a large share, a large quantity; or of a mind big with conception, or of an event big with the fate of nations.

Among all the figares of architecture, there are none that have a proater air than tha concave and the convex. Addison.
Sure he that made us with such large discourse, Looking before and after, gave us not
That capability and godlike reason
To rust in us unus'd.
Shazspeare.
Amazing clouds on clouds continnal heap'd,
Or whirl'd tempestuous hy the gusty wind,
Or silent borne along heavy and slow,
With the big stores of streaming oceans charg'd.
Taomson

## GREAT, GRAND, SUBLIME.

These terms are synonymous only in their moral application. GREAT simply designates extent; GRAND includes likewise the idea of excellence and superiority. A great undertaking characterizes only the extent of the undertaking; a grand undertaking bespeaks its superior excellence: great objects are seen with facility; grand objects are viewed with admiration. It is a great point to make a person sensible of his faults; it should be the grand aim of all to aspire after moral and religious improvement.

Grand and SUBLIME are both superior to great; but the former marks the dimension of greatness; the latter, from the Latin sublimis, designates that of beight. A scene may be either grand or sublime: it is grand as it fills the imagination with its immensity; it is sublime as it elevates the imagination beyond the
surrounding and less important objects. There is something grand in the sight of a vast army moving forward, as it were, by one impulse; there is something peculiarly sublime in the sight of huge mountains and craggy cliffs of ice, shaped into varions fantastic forms. Grand may be said either of the works of art or nature; sublime is peculiarly applicable to the works of nature. The Egyptian pyramids and the ocean are both grand objects; a tempestuous ocean is a sublime object. Grand is sometimes applied to the mind; sublime is applied both to the thoughts and the expressions.
There is nothing in this whole art of architectore which pleases the imagination, but as it is great, uncommon, or beantiful.

Addison.
There is genarally ln nature something more grand and august than what we meet with in the curiosities of art.

Addison.
Homer fills his readers with sublime ideas.
Addison.

## GRIEVANCE, HARDSHIP.

GRIEVANOE, from the Latin gravis, heavy or burdensome, implies that which lies heavy at heart. HARDSHIP, from the adjective hard, denotes that which presses or bears violently on the person.

Grievance is in general taken for that which is done by another to grieve or distress: hardship is a particular kind of grievance that presses upon individuals. There are national grievances, though not national hardships. An infraction of one's rights, an act of violence or oppression, are grievances to those who are exposed to them, whether as individuals or bodies of men : an unequal distribution of labor, a partial indulgence of one to the detriment of another, constitute the hardship. A weight of taxes, levied in order to support an unjust war, will be esteemed a grievance: the partiality and caprice of the collector in making it fall with unequal weight upon particular persons will he regarded as a peculiar hardship. Men seek a redress of their grievances from some higher power than that by which they are inflicted: they endure their hardships until an opportunity offers of getting them removed.

[^65]on particular persons, in particular occasions which could not be foreseen when the law was made.

Spectator.
TO GRIEVE, MOURN, LAMENT.
To GRIEVE (v. Affliction) is the general term; MOURN, like moan and murmur, being an imitation of the sound produced by pain, is a particular term. To grieve, in its limited sense, is an in. ward act ; to mourn is an outward act: the grief lies altogether in the mind; the mourning displays itself by some outward mark. A man grieves for his sins; he mourns for the loss of his friends. One grieves for that which immediately concerns one's self, or that which concerns others; one mourns for that which concerns others; one grieves over the loss of property; one mowins the fate of a deceased relative.
Achates, the companion of his breast, Goes grieving by his side, with equal cares oppress'd.

Deynen.
My brother's friends and daughter left behind, False to them all, to Paris only kind;
For this I mourn, till grief or dire disease
Shall waste the form, whose crime it was to please.

Pope.
Gricve is the act of an individual; mourn may be the common act of many: a nation mourns, though it does not grieve, for a public calamity. To grieve is applicable to domestic troubles; mourn may refer to public or private ills. The distractions of a state will cause many to grieve for their own losses, and mourn the misfortunes of their country.
Who fails to grieve when just occasion calls, Or grieves too much, deserves not to be blessed. Youno.
Yc banks that oft my weary limbs have borne, Ye murmuring brooks that learn'd of me to mourn.
Ye birds that tune me with your plaintive lay,
Ye groves, where love once taught my steps to stray,
You, ever sweet, and ever fair, renew
Your strains melodions.
Sib W. Jones
Grieve and mourn are permanent sentiments; LAMENT (v. To bewail) is a transitory feeling: the former are produced by substantial causes, which come home to the feelings; the latter respects things of a more partial, oftentimes of a more remote and indifferent, nature. A real widow mourns all the remainder of her days for the loss of her husband; we lament a thing to-day which we may
forget to-morrow. Mourn and lament are both expressed by some outward sign; but the former is composed and free from all noise; the latter displays itself either in cries or simple words. In the moment of trouble, when the distress of the mind is at its height, it may break out into loud lamentation, but commonly grieving and mourning commence when lamentation ceases.
So close in poplar shades, her children gone, The mother nightingale laments alone.

Dryden.
As epithets, grievous, mournful, and lamentable have a similar distinction. What presses hard or unjustly on persons, their property, connections, and circumstances, is grievous; what touches the tender feelings, and tears asunder the ties of kindred and friendship, is mournful; whatever excites a painful sensation in our mind is lamentable. Famine is a grievous calamity for a nation; the violent separation of friends by death is a mournful event at all times, but particularly so for those who are in the prime of life and the fulness of expectation; the ignorance which some persons discover even in the present cultivated state of society is truly lamentable.

To a mother grievous, this Arievous to high-born Lains, this disgrace To be allied to strangers. Potter.
Ye friendless orphans, and ve dowerless maids, With eager haste your mournful mansions leave. Sir W. Jones.
What dost thou mean by shaking of thy head? Why dost thou look so sadly on my son? What means that head upon that breast of thine? Why holds thine eye that lamentable rheum, Like a proud river pearing o'er his bounds?

Shakspeare.

## TO GROAN, MOAN.

GROAN and MOAN are both onomatopoeias, from the sounds which they express. Groan is a deep sound produced hy hard breathing: moan is a plaintive, long-drawn sound produced by the organs of utterance. The groan proceeds involuntarily as an expression of severe pain, either of body or mind: the moan proceeds often from the desire of awakening attention or exciting compassion. Dying groans are uttered in the agonies of death : the moans of a wounded sufferer are sometimes the only resource he has left to make his destitute case known.

The plain ox, whose tol, Patient and ever ready, clothes the land With all the pomp of harvest, shall he bleed, And struggling oroan beneath the cruel hands E'en of the clown he feeds ?

THOMBOK
The falr Alexls lov'd, but lov'd in vain, And underneath the beechen shade, alone, Thus to the woods and mountains made hir moan.

DEIDEN,
GROSS, COARSE.
GROSS derives its meaning in this application from the Latin crassus, thick from fat, or that which is of common materials. COARSE, v. Coarse.
These terms are synonymous in the moral application. Grossness of habit is opposed to delicacy; coarseness to soft. ness and refinement. A person becomes gross by an unrestrained indulgence of his sensual appetites, particularly in eating and drinking; he is coarse from the want of polish either as to his mind or manners. A grose sensualist approximates very nearly to the brute; he sets aside all moral considerations; he indulges himself in the open face of day in defiance of all decency: a coarse person approaches nearest to the savage, whoss roughness of humor and inclination have not been refined down hy hahits of re. straining his own will, and complying with the will of another. A gross expression conveys the idea of that which should be kept from the view of the mind, which shocks the moral feeling; a coarse expression conveys the idea of an unseemly sentiment in the mind of the speaker. The representations of the Deity by any sensible inage is gross, hecause it gives us a low and grovelling idea of a superior being; the doing a kindness, and making the receiver at the same time sensible of your superiority and his dependence, indicates great coarseness in the character of the favorer.

A certain preparation is requisite for the enjoyn ment of devotion in its whole extent: not only must the life be reformed from gross enormities, but the heart most have undergone that changa which the Gospel demands.

Blair.
The refined pleasures of a pions mind are, in many respects, superior to the coarse gratifications of sense.

BLaik.
GROSS, TOTAL.
GROSS is connected with the word great: from the idea of size which enters into the original msaning of this
term is derived that of quantity: TO. TAL, from the Latin totus, signifies literally the whole: the gross implies that from which nothing has been taken: the total signifies that to which nothing need be added: the gross sum includes everything without regard to what it may be; the total includes everything which one wishes to include; we may, therefore, deduct from the gross that which does not immediately belong to it ; but the total is that which admits of no deduction. The gross weight in trade is appllcable to any article, the whole of which, good or bad, pure or dross, is included in opposition to the neat weight ; the total amount supposes all to be included which ought to form a part, in opposition to any small. er amount or subdivisions; when employed in the impraper sense, they preserve the same distinction: things are said to he taken or considered in the prose, that is, in the large and comprehensive way, one with another; things are said to undergo a total change.

I heve more than once found fault with those general reflections which etrike at kingdome or commonwealths in the groes. ADDison.
Neture is elther collected into one total, or diffused and distrihuted.

BADON.

## to guarantee, be gecurity, be re-

 gPONSIBLE, WARRANT.gUarantee and Warrant are both derived from the Teutonic währen, to defend or make safe and binding; SECURITY, from secure (v. Certain), has the same original meaning; RESPONSIBLE, v. Amenable.

To guarantee and be security have respect to what is done for others; to be responsible respects what is done by one's self or others; to warrant, what is done by one's self only. To guarantee is applied to matters of public or private interest; to be security, to private matters only. The larger governments frequently guarantee for the performance of stipulations entered into by minor powers; one man becomes security to another for the payment of a sum of money by a third person. Guarantee may be taken for the person or thing that guarantees.

[^66]One is security for another in pecuniary concerns, but he is responsible for hls own conduct or that of others; he ba comes a security by virtue of his contract, as one tradesman becomes security for another, he is responsible by virtue of his relative office or situation; masters are responsible. for the conduct of their servants; a jailer is responsible for the safe custody of the prisoner; every man is responsible for that which is placed under bis charge. To warrant is applied to commercial transactions: one warrants the goodness of any commodity that is sold.

What a dreadful thing is a standing army, for the conduct of the whole, or any part of which, no one is reeponsible.

Btukge.
Richard Cromwell desired only security for the debts he had contracted.

BURNET.
The warrant serves to indemnify against loss, or, in a moral sense, to protect against censure, to give a sanction to.
No man's mistake will be able to warrant an unjust eurmise, much less justify e false censare.

Sovin.
TO GUARD, DEFEND, WATCH.
GUARD is but a variation of ward, which is connected with the German wahren, to look to. DEFEND, v. Apolo. $g y$, and to defend. WATCH and WAKE are in the German, etc., wachen, to watch, Latin vigil, watchful, vigeo, to flourish, and Greek $a \gamma a \lambda \lambda \omega$, to exult or be in spirits.

To guard, in its largest sense, comprehends both watching and defending, that is, both the preventing the attack and the resisting it when it is made. In the restricted sense, to guard is properly to keep off an enemy; to defend is to drive him away when he makes the attack. The soldier guards the palace of the king in time of peace, and defends his country in time of war.

Fixed on defence, the Trojans are not slow
To grard their shore from an expected foe. Dryden.
Fortluwith on all sides to his aid was run,
By angels many and strong, who interpos'd
Defence.
Mistom.
Watch, like guard, consists in looking to the danger, but it does not necessarily imply the use of any means to prevent
the danger: he who watches may only give an alarm.
But in his duty prompt at every call
He watch'd and wept, he pray'd, and felt for all. Goldsmith.

In the improper application they have a similar sense: modesty guards female honor; clothing defends against the inclemency of the weather: a person who wants to escape watches his opportunity to slip out unobserved.

> One of the principal charges which Stanhepe had recelved from his friends in England, was to be on his guard against the intrignes of Sunderlacd.

> Coxe.
> And here th' access a gloomy grove defende, And here th' unnavigable lake extends.

Dryden.
But see the well-plum'd hearse comes nodding on,
Stately and slow, and properly attended
By the whole sable tribe, that painful roatch The sick man's door, and live upen the dead.

Blair.

## GUARD, SENTINEL.

These terms are employed to designate those who are employed for the protection of either persons or things. GUARD has been explained above ( $v$. To guard) ; SENTINEL, in French sentinelle, is properly a species of guard, namely, a military guard in the time of a campaign; any one may be set as guard over property, who is empowered to keep off every intruder by force; but the sentinel acts in the army as the watch (v. To guard) in the police, rather to observe the motions of the enemy than to repel any force.
Fust as he could, he sighing quits the walls, And thas descending, on the guards he calls.

Pope.
One of the sentinela who stood on the stage to prevent disorder burst into tears.

Steele.
They are figuratively applied to other objects; the guard in this case acts on ordinary occasions, the sentinel in the moments of danger.
Modesty is not only an ornament but a guard to virtue. ADDISEN.
Consclence is the sentinel of virtue. Jennson.

## gUard, gUARDIAN.

These words are derived from the verb guard (v. To guard); but they have acquired a distinct office. GUARD is used
either in the literal or figurative sense; GUARDIAN only in the improper sense. Guard is applied either to persons or things ; guardian only to persons. In appllcation to persons, the guard is tem. porary; the guardian is fixed and permanent: the guard only guards against exteroal evils; the guardian takes upon him the office of parent, counsellor, and director: when a bouse is in danger of being attacked, a person may sit up as a guard; when a parent is dead, a guardian supplies his place: we expect from a guard nothing but human assistance; but from our guardian angel we may expect supernatural assistance.
Him Hermes to Achilles shall convey,
Guard of his life, and partner of his way. Popz Ye guides and guardians of our Argive race! Come all ! let gen'rous rage your arms employ, And save Patroclus from the dogs of Troy. Pope.

TO GUARD AGAINST, TAKE HEED.
Both these terms imply express care on the part of the agent; but the former is used with regard to external or internal evils, the latter only with regard to interual or mental evils : in an enemy's country it is essential to be particularly on one's guard, for fear of a surprise; in difficult matters, where we are liable to err, it is of importance to TAKE HEED lest we run from one extreme to another: young men, on their entrance into life, cannot be too much on their GOARD AGAINST associating with those who would lead them into expensive pleasures; in slippery paths, whether physically or morally understood, it is necessary to take heed how we go.

One would take more than ordinary care to guard one's self against this particular imperfection (clangeableness), becanse it is that which our nature very strongly inclines us to.

AdDISON.
Take heed of that dreadful tribunal where it will not be enengb to say that I thought this or I heard that. Sevte.

TO GUESS, CONJECTURE, DIVINE.
GUESS, in Saxon and low German gissen, is connected with the word ghost, and the German geist, etc., spirit, signifying the action of a spirit. CONJECTURE, v. Conjecture. DIVINE, from the Latin divinus and deus, a god, signifies to think and know as a god.

We guess that a thing actually is; we conjecture that which may be: we guess that it is a certain hour; we conjecture as to the meaning of a person's actions. Guessing is opposed to the certain knowIedge of a thing; conjecturing is opposed to the full conviction of a thing: a child guesses at that portion of his lesson which he has not properly learned; a fanciful person employs conjecture where he cannot draw any positive conclusion.

And these discoveries make us all confess That sublunary science is but guess. Dentam. Now hear the Grecian fraud, and from this one Conjecture all the rest.

Denham.
To guess and to conjecture are natural acts of the mind: to divine, in its proper sense, is a supernatural act; in this sense the heathens affected to divine that which was known only to an Omniscient Being ; and impostors in our time presume to divine in matters that are set above the reach of human compreheosion. The term is, however, employed to denote a species of guessing in differeat matters, as to divine the meaning of a mystery.
Walking they talk'd, and fruitlessly divin'd What friend the priestess by those words design'd.

Dryden.

## GUEST, VISITOR, OR VISITANT.

GUEST, from the Northern languages, signifies one who is entertained; VISITOR or VISITANT is the one who pays the visit. The guest is to the visitor as the species to the genus: every guest is a visitor, but every visitor is not a guest; the visitor simply comes to see the person, and enjoy social intercourse ; but the guest also partakes of bospitality: we are visitors at the tea-table, at the card-table, and round the fire; we are guests at the festive board.

Some great behest from heav'n
To us perhaps he brings, and will vouchsafe This day to be our guest.

Milton.
No palace with a lofty gate he wants,
T' admit the tides of early visitants. Dryden.

## GUIDE, RULE.

GUIDE is to RULE as the genus to the species: every rule is a guide to a certaio extent; but the guide is often that which exceeds the rule. The guide, in the moral sense, as in the proper sense, goes with us, and points out the exact path; it does
not permit us to err either to the right or left: the rule marks out a line, beyond which we may not go; but it leaves us to trace the line, and consequently to fail either on the one side or other. The Bible is our best guide for moral practice; its doctrines, as interpreted in the articles of the Christian Church, are the best rule of faith.

You must first apply to religion as the guids of life, before you can have recourse to it as the refuge of sorrow.

Brair.
There is something so wild, and yet so solemn, in Shakspeare's speeches of his ghosts and fairies, and the like imaginary persons, that we cannot forbear thinking them natural, thongh we have no rule by which to jndge them. Adpison.

## GUILTLESS, INNOCENT, HARMLESS.

GUILTLESS, without guilt, is more than INNOCENT: innocence, from noceo, to burt, extends no farther than the qual. ity of not hurting by any direct act; guiltless comprehends the quality of not intending to hurt: it is possible, therefore, to be innocent without being guiltless, though not vice versa; be who wishes for the death of another is not guiltless, though he may be innocent of the crime of murder. Guilt. less seems to regard a man's general condition ; innocent his particular condition: no man is guiltless in the sight of God, for no man is exempt from the guilt of sin; but he may be innocent in the sight of men, or innocent of all such intentional offences as render him obnoxious to his fellow-creatures. Guiltlessness was that happy state of perfection which men lost at the fall; innocence is that relative or comparative state of perfection which is attainable here on earth: the highest state of innocence is an ignorance of evil.

Ah ! why should all mankiod For one man's fanlt thas guiltless be cosdemn'd, If guilttess : But from me what can proceed But all corrnpt?

Milton.
When Adam sees the several changes of nature about him, he appears in a disorder of mind suitable to one who had forfeited both his innocencs and his happiness.

ADDISON.
Guiltess is in the proper sense applicable only to the condition of man; and, when applied to things, it still bas a reference to the person: innocent is equally applicable to persons or things; a person is innocent who has not committed any injury, or has not any direct purpose to
commit any injury; or a conversation is innocent which is free from what is hurtful. Innocent and HARMLESS both recommend themselves as qualities negatively good; they designate a freedom either in the person or thing from injuring, and differ only in regard to the nature of the injury: imnocence respects moral injury, and harmless physical injury: a person is innocent who is free from moral impurity and wicked purposes; he is harmless if he have not the power or disposition to commit any violence; a diversion is innocent which has nothing in it likely to corrupt the morals; a game is harmless which is not likely to inflict any wound, or endanger the health.

## But from the mountain's grassy side

 A guiltless feast I bring;A scrip with fruits and liel os supplicd, And water from the spring. Goldsmitr.
A man should endeavor to make the sphere of his innocent pleasures as wide as possible, that he may retire into them with safety. AdDison. Full on his breast the Trojan arrow fell,
But harmless bounded from the plated steel. Addison.

## GUISE, HABIT.

GUISE and wise are both derived from the Northern languages, and denote the manner; but the former is employed for a particular or distinguished manner of dress. HABIT, from the Latin habitus, a habit, fashion, or form, is taken for a settled or permanent mode of dress.

The guise is that which is unusual, and often only occasional; the habit is that which is usual among particular classes: a person sometimes assumes the guise of a peasant, in order the better to conceal himself; he who devotes himself to the clerical profession puts on the habit of a clergyman.

Anubls, Sphinx,
Idols of antique guise, and horned Pan, Terrific monstrous shapes!

Drer. For 'tis the mind that makes the body rich, And as the sun breaks through the darkest cloud So honor appeareth in the meanest habit.

Shakspeare.
GULF, ABYSS.

GULF, in Greek кo入тos, from koldos, hollow, is applied literally in the sense of a deep concave receptacle for water, as the gulf of Venice. $\triangle B Y S S$, in Greek aßvoros, compounded of $a$, privative, and $\beta$ uaras, a bottom, signifies literally a bottomless pit.

One is overwhelmed in a gulf; it car. ries with it the idea of liquidity and profundity, into which one inevitably sinks never to rise: one is loat in an abyes; it carries with it the idea of immense profundity, into which he who is cast never reaches a bottom, nor is able to return to the top; an insatiable voracity is the characteristic idea in the signification of this term.

A gulf is a capacious bosom, which holds within itself and buries all objects that suffer themselves to sink into it, without allowing them the possibility of escape; bell is represented as a fiery gulf, into which evil spirits are plunged, and remain perpetually overwhelmed: a guilty mind may be said, figuratively, to be plunged into a gulf of woe or despair when filled with the horrid sense of its enormities. An abyss presents nothing hut an interminable space which has neither beginning nor end; he does wisely who does not venture in, or who retreats before he has plunged too deep to retrace his footsteps; as the ocean, in the natural sense, is a great abyss; so are metaphysics an immense abyss, into which the human mind precipitates itself only to be bewildered.

Sin and death amain
Following his track, such was the will of heav'n, Pav'd after him a broad and beaten way Over the dark abyss, whose boiling gulf Tamely endur'd a bridge of wond'rous length, From hell continu'd. Milow.
His broad-wing'd vessel drinks the whelming tide, Hid in the bosom of the black abyes. Teomson.

## H.

to happen, CHANCE.
To HAPPEN, that is, to fall out hy a hap, is to CHANCE (v. Chance, fortune) as the genus to the species; whatever chances happens, but not vice versa. Happen respects all events, without including any collateral idea; chance comprehends likewise the idea of the cause and order of events: whatever comes to pass happens, whether regularly in the course of things, or particularly and out of the order; whatever chances happens, altogether without concert, intention, and often with
out relation to any other thlng. Accidents happen laily whieh no human foresight could prevent; the newspapers contain an account of all that happens in the course of the day or week: listenerg and busybodies are ready to eatch every word that chances to fall in their hearing.

With equal mind what heppens let us hear, Nor joy, nor grieve too much for things beyond our care.

Dryden.
An idiot, chancing to live within the sound of - clock, alwaya amused himself with counting the hour of the day whenever the clock struck : but the clock being spoiled by accident, the idiot continued to count the hour without the help of it.

ADDIBON.
happiness, felicity, bliss, bless-

## LDNESS, BEATITUDE.

HAPPINESS signifies the state of being happy. FELICITY, in Latin felicitas, from felix, happy, most probably comes from the Greek $\eta \lambda \iota \xi$, routhful, youth being the age of purcst enjoyment. BLISS, BLESS. EDNESS, signify the state or property of heing blessed. BEATITUDE, from the Latin beatus, signifies the property of be. ing happy in a superior degree.

Hapminess comprehends that aggregate of pleasurable seneations which we derive from external objects. It is the ordinary term which is employed alike in the colloqnial or the philosophical style: felicity is a higher expression, comprehending inward enjoyment, or an aggregate of inward pleasure, without regard to the source whence they are derived: bliss is a still higher term, expressing more than either happiness or felicity, both as to the degree and nature of the enjoyment. Happiness is the thing adapted to our present condition, and to the nature of our being, as a compound of body and soul; it is impure in its nature, and variable in degree; it is sought for by various means and with great eagerness; but it often lies much more within our reach than we are apt to imagine: it is not to be fonnd In the possession of great wealth, of great power, of great dominions, of great aplendor, or the unbounded indulgence of any one appetite or desire; bnt in moderate possessions, with a heart tempered by religion and virtue for the enjoyment of that which God has hestowed upon us: it is, therefore, not so unequally distributed se some have been led to conclude.

## Ah I whither now are fled

 Tbose dreams of greatness? those unsoild hopen Of happiness:THombon.
No greater felicity can genius attain than that of having purified intellectual pleasure, separated mirth from indecency, and wit from licentious. ness.

JOHNBON.
The fond soul,
Wrapt in gay visions of unreal bliss, Still paints th' lllusive form.

Тномвои.
Happiness admits of degreea, since ev. ery individual is placed in different eircumstances, either of body or mind, which fit him to be more or less happy. Felicity is not regarded in the same light; it ia that which is positive and independent of all circumstances: domestic felicity and conjugal felicity are regarded as moral enjoyments, abstracted from everything which can serve as an alloy. Bliss is that which is purely spiritual; it has its source in the imagination, and riaes above the ordinary level of human enjoymenta: of earthly bliss little is known but in poetry; of heavenly bliss we form but an imper. fect conception from the utmost stretch of our powers. Blessedness is a term of spiritual import, which refers to the hap$p y$ condition of those who enjoy the Divine favor, and are permitted to have a foretaste of heavenly bliss by the exalta. tiou of their minds above earthly happiness. Beatitude denotes the quality of hap. piness only which is most exalted; nameII, heavenly happiness.

It the description of heaven and hell we ara surely interested, as we are all to reside hersafter either in the regions of horror or of bliss.

Johnaon.
So solid a comfort to men, under all the troubles and afflictions of this world, is that firm as. surance which the Christian religion gives us of a future happiness, as to bring even the greatest miserles which in this life we are liable to, in some sense, under tha notion of blessediness.

Tillotson.
As in the next world, so in this, the only solid blessings are owing to the goodness of the mind, not the extent of the capacity; friendship here is an emanation from the same source as beatituda there.

Pope.

## HAPPY, FORTUNATE.

HAPPY and FORTUNATE are both applied to the external circumstances of a man; but the former conveys the idea of that which is abstractedly good, the latter implies rather what is agreeable to one's wishes. A man is happy in his marriage, in his children, in his conneo
tons, and the like ; he is fortunate in his trading conoerns. Happy excludes the Idea of chance; fortunats excludes the idea of personal effort: a man is happy in the possession of what he gets; he is fortunate in getting it.

[^67]In the improper sense, they bear a imilar anaiogy. A happy thought, a happy expression, a happy turn a happy event, and the like, denote a degree of positive excellenoe; a fortunato idea, a fortunate oircumstance, a forturate event, are all relatively considered, with regard to the wishes and views of the individual.

## "Tla manifest that aome particular ages have been more happy than others in the production of great men. <br> Daxden. <br> Homer is less fortunate in his aublect than Virgl. <br> BLAIB.

## HARBOR, HAYEN, POBT.

The Idea of a resting-place for veseels is common to these terms, of which HARBOR Is general, and the two others specific in thelr signiflication. Harbor, from the Teptopic herbergen, to shelter, carries with it littie more than the common Idea of affordling a resting or anchoring place. HAVEN, from the Tentonic haben, to have or hold, conveys the idea of security. PORT, from the Latin portus and porta, a gate, conveys the idea of an enclosure. A haven is a natural harbor; a port is an artificial harbor. We characterize a harbor as commodious; a haven as snug and secure; a port as safe and easy of access, A commercial country profits by the excellence and number of Its harbors; It values itself on the security of Its havens, and lncreases the number of its ports accordingly. A vessel goes into a harbor only for a season; it remains in a haven for a perma. nency; It seeks a port as the deatination of its voyage. Merchantmen are perpetaally golng in and out of a harbor; a Histressed vessel, at a dlstance from home, seeks some haven in which it may minter; the weary mariner looks to the
port, not as the termination of his labor but as the commencement of all his en joyments.
But here she comes,
In the calm harbor 0 f whose gentle bresst My tempest-beaten squi mey safely rest, Day papm Sefe thro' the war her course the vessel ateern, The havan gain'd, the piloty drops his fears,

Shiatizy,
What though our passage through this world be never as atormy and tempeatuous, we shall errive at 2 safe part,

Тみम्थTEOM.
TO HARBOR, BHELTER, LODGE.
The idea of giving a resting-place is common to these terms: but HARBOR (v. To foster) is used mpstly in a bad eense, BHELTER ( $v$. Asylum) in an in definlte sense: LODGE, in Frenoh loga, is connected wlth the German liegen, to lie, in an indifferent sense. One harbory that whioh ought not to find room any. where; one 8helters that which oannot find security elsewhere; one lodges that which wants a resting-place. Thieves, traitors, consplratore, are harbored by those who have an interest in eecuring them from detection: either the wicked or the unfortunate may be sheltered from the evill with which they are threatened; travellers are lodged as ocoasion may require.
My lady blds me tell you that, though she harbors you as her unole, she's pothing allied to your disorders.

SEAESPEA日E
The hen shasters her fret brood of chickens with all the prudence that ehe ever atteins.

Joinaon.
My lord was lodged in the duke's castie.
Hоw
As the word harbor does not, in its original sense, mean anything more than affording a temporary entertainment, it may be taken in a good sease for an aot of hospitality.
We owe thle oid house the same kind of gretltude thet we do to an old friend who harbors ns in his declining condition, nay, even in his Jast extremity.

Pope.
Harbor and shelter are said of things in the sense of giving a barbor or shelter; lodge in the sense of being a restingplace: furniture harbors vermin, trees shelter from the rain, a ball lodyes in the breast; eo in the moral sense, a man harbors resentment, 111 -will, evil thoughta and the like; he shelters himself from
charge by retorting it upon his adversary; or a particular pasion may be lodged in the breast, or ideaa lodged in the mind.

Sbe harbors in her breast a furions hate (And thon shalt find the dire effects too late); Fix'd on revenge, and obstinate to die. Dnyden.
In vain I strove to check my growing flame, Or shelter passion under friendship's name: You saw my heart.

Pbiof.
They too are tempered high,
With hunger atung, and wild neceasity,
Nor lodges pity in their shaggy breast.
Thomson.
HARD, FIRM, SOLID.
TaE elose adherence of the component parta of a body constitutes HARDNESS. The close adberence of different bodies to each other constitutes FIRMNESS ( $v$. Fixed). That is hard which will not gield to a closer compression; that is firm which will not yield so as to produce a separation. Ice ia hard, as far aa it respects itself, when it resists every pressure; it is firm, with regard to the water which it covers, when it is so closely bound as to resist every weight without breaking.

I see you jaboring through all your inconvensences of the rongh roads, the hard saddle, the trotting horae, and what not.

Pope.

## The loosen'd ice

Rustles no more; but to the sedgy bank
Fast grows, or gathers round the pointed stone, A cryatal pavement, by the breath of beaven Cemented firm.

Thomson.
Hard and SOLID respect the internal conatitution of bodies, and the adherence of the component parts; but hard denotes a much closer degree of adherence than solid: the hard is opposed to the soft; the solid to the fluid; every hard body is by nature solid; although every solid body is not hard. Wood is alwaya a solid body, but it is sometimes hard, and rometimes soft; water, when congealed, is a solid body, and admits of different degrees of hardness.

It is said by modern philosophers, that the hardest bodies are so porons that if all matter were compressed to perfect soltdity it might be contained In a cube of a few feet.

JORNSON.
In the improper application, hardness ls allied to insenaibility; firmness to fixedness; solidity to subatantiality; a hard man is not to be acted upon by any tender motives; a firm man is not to he
turned from his purpoae; a solid man holds no purposes that are not well. founded. A man is hardened in that which is bad, by being made insensible to that which is good; a man is confirm. $e d$ in anything good or bad, hy being rendered lesa diaposed to lay it aside; his mind is consolidated by acquiring fresh motives for action.
Plenty and peace breed cowards; hardness ever Of hardiness is mother.

Shakgreara.
In your friendships and connections this rule is particnlarly useful; let your firmness and vigor preserve and invite attachments to you.

Chesterfielo.
This subject of mineral waters would afford an ocean of matter were one to compile a solid discourse of it.

Howell.
A copions manner of expression gives strength and weight to our ideas, which frequently makes impressions apon the mind, as iron does upon solid bodies, rather by repeated strokes than a single blow. Melmoti'a Letters op Pliny.

## Hard, Callous, Hardened, obduRate.

HARD is here, as in the former case (v. Hard), the general term, and the rest particular: hard, in its most extensive physical sense, denotes the property of resiating the action of external force, so as not to undergo any change in its form, or separation in its parts: CALLOUS is that apecies of the hard, in application to the skin, which arises from its dryneas, and the akzence of all nervous ausceptibility. Hard and callous are likewise applied in the moral sense: but hard denotes the absence of tender feeling, or the property of resisting any impression which tender objects are apt to produce; callous denotes the property of not yielding to the force of motives to action. A hard heart cannot be moved by the sight of misery, let it be presented in ever so affecting a form : a callous mind is not to be touched by any persua. sions, however powerful. Hard does not designate any circumstance of its exiatence or origin: we may be hard from a variety of causes; but callousness arises from the indulgence of vices, passions and the purauit of vicious practices. When we apeak of a person as hard, it simply determines what he is: if we speak of him as callous, it refers also to what he was, and from what he is be comeso.

## Such woes

Not e'en the Aardest of our foes could hear, Nor stern Ulysses tell without a tear. Drinen.
By degreea the sense growa callous, and loses that exquisite relish of trifleg, Beraeley.

Callous, HARDENED, and OBDURATE are all employed to designate a morally depraved character; but callousness belongs properly to the heart and conscience; hardened to both the beart and the understanding; obdurate more particularly to the will. Callousness is the first stage of hardness in moral depravity; it may exist in the infant mind, on its first tasting the poisonous pleasures of vice, without being acquainted with its remote consequences. A hardened state is the work of time; it arises from a continued course of vice, which becomes, as it were, habitual, and wholly unfits a person for admitting of any other impressions: obduracy is the last stage of moral hardness, which supposes the whole mind to be obstinately bent on vice. A child discovers himself to be callous when the entreaties, threats, or punishments of a parent cannot awaken in him a single sentiment of contrition; a youth discovers himself to be harden. $e d$ when he begins to take a pride and a pleasure in a vicious career; a man shows himself to be obdurate when he betrays a settled and confirmed purpose to pursue his abandoned course, without regard to consequences.

Licentiousness had so long passed for sharpness of wit and greatness of mind, that the conacience is grown catlous.

L'Es'ra ANGE.
ilis harden'd heart, nor prayers, nor threateuings move:
Fate and the guds had stopp'd his ears to love.
Dryden.
Round he throws his baleful eyes, That witness'd huge affliction and dismay, Mix'd with obdurate pride and steadfast hate.

Milton.
GARD, HARDY, INSENSIBLE, UNFEELING.
HARD (v. Hard) may either be applied to that which makes resistance to external impressions, or that which presses with a force upon other objects. HARDY, which is only a variation of hard, is applicable only in the first case: thus, a persan's skin may be hard which is not easily acted upon; but the person is said
to be hardy who can withstand the ele ments : on the other hand, hard, when employed as an active principle, is only applied to the moral character; hence the difference between a hardy man who endures everything, and a hard man who makes others endure.

To be inaccessible, contemptuons, and hard of heart, is to revolt against our own nature.

Ocnus was next, who led bis native train Of hardy warriors tbrough the watery plain. Dhyden.
INSENSIBLE and UNFEELING are but modes of the hard; that is, they designate the negative quality of hardness, or its incapacity to receive impression: hard, therefore, is always the strongest term of the three; and, of the two others, unfeeling is stronger than insensible. Hard and insensible are applied physically and morally; unfecling is employed only as a moral characteristic. A horse's mouth is hard when it is insensible to the action of the bit; a man's heart is hard which is insensible to the miseries of others; a man is unfeeling who does not regard the feelings of others. The heart may be hard by nature, or rendered so by the influence of some passion; but a person is commonly unfeeling from circumstances. Shylock is depicted by Shakspeare as hard, from his strong antipathy to the Christians: people who enjoy an uninterrupted state of good health are often unfeeling in cases of sickness. As that which is hard mostly hurts or pains when it comes in contact, with the soft, the term hard is peculiarly applicable to superiors, or such as have power to inflict pain : a creditor may be hard toward a debtor. As insensible signifies a want of sense, it may be sometimes necessary: a surgeon, when performing an operation, must be insensible to the present pain which he inflicts. As unfeeling signifies a want of feeling, it is always taken for a want of good feeling: where the removal of paio is required, the surgeon shows himself to be unfeel. ing who does not do everything in his power to lessen the pain of the sufferer.
Begone! the whip and bell in that hard hand
Are bateful ensigns of usurp'd command.
Cowper
It is both reproachful and criminal to have an insensible heart.

Blair

The father too, a sordid man, Who love nor pity knew, Was all unfeeling as the rock From whence his tiches grew.
with a candid confession that he was utterly in capable of doing justice to Homer.

## Cumberiand.

Whstever meiting metals can conipire,
Or bresthing bellows, or the forming flre, Is freely yours; your suxions fesis remove, And think no task is aiffleult to love. Dryden

HARD-HEARTED, CRUEL, UNMERCIFUL MERCILESS.
HARD-HEARTED signifies havlog a hard heart, or a heart not to bs moved by the palns of others (v. Hard). CRU. EL, In Latin crudelis, from crudus, raw flesh, and cruor, blood, that is, delighting lin blood like beasts of prey, slgnifies ready to inflict pain: as a tempet of mind, therefore, cruel expresses much more than harth-hearted; the latteir de. notes the want of that sensibility toward others which ought to be the property of every human heart; the former the positive inclination to inflict pain, and the pleastire from so doing. Hard-hearted is employed as an epithet of the person; cruel as an epithet to things as well as persons; as a cruel man, a cruel action. Hard-hearted respects solely the moral affections; cruelty, in its proper sense, respects the infliction of corporeal pains, but is extended in its application to whatever creates moral pains: a person may be cruel, too, in his treatment of children or brutes by beating or starving them; or he may be cruel toward those who look up to him for kindness.
Single men, though they be many times more charitable, on the other side, are more cruel snd hard-hearted, because thelr tenderiness is not so oft called npon.

Bacon.
Relentless love the cruel mother led The blood of her nnhappy babes to shed.

Drynen.
The UNMERCIFUL and MERCILESS are both modes of characteristics of the hard-hearted. An unmerciful man is hard-hearted, inasmuch as he is unwill. ing to extend bis compassion or mercy to one who is in his power; a merciless man, which is more than an unmertiful man, is hard-hearted, inasmuch as he is restrained by no cempunctious feelings from inflicting pain on those who are in his power. Avarice makes a man hard hearted even to those who are bound to him by the closest ties; it makes him unmerviful to those who are in his debt

There are many merciless tyranta in domeatie life, who show their disposition by their merciless treatmeat of their poor bentes.
I saw how ronmerveiful you were to your eyea In your last letter to me.

Tillotaon.
To crusk a mercilese and oruel victor.
Daynen.

## hardly, scarcely.

What ia HARD is not common, and in that respect SCARCE: hence the idea of unfrequency assimilates these terms both in signification and application. In many cases they may be used Indifferently; but, where the idea of practioability predominates, hardly seems most proper; and, where the idea of frequency predominates, scarcely seems preferable. One can hardly judge of a peraon'a features by a aingle and partial glance; we scarcely ever see men lay aside their vices from a thorough canviction of their enormity: but it may with equal propriety be said in general sentences, hardly one in a thousaod, or scarcely one in a thousand, would form such a conolusion.
I do not axpect, as long as 1 atay in India, to be frea from a bad digestion, the "morbus literatorum," for which there is hardly any romedy but abatinence from food, iterary and culinary

Sin W. Jones.
In this asaembly of princes and nobles (the Congress at the Hague), to which Europs has perhaps saurooly sean anything equal, was form. ed the grand alliance against Lewis. Johnaon.

## harsh, ROUGH, SEVERE, RIGOROUS.

HARSH ( $v$. Acrimony) and ROUGH (v. Abrupt) berrow their moral significa. tion from the physical properties of the bodies to which they belong. The harsh and the rough both act painfully upon the taste, but the former with muoh more violence than the latter. An excess of the sour mingled with other unpleasant properties constitutes harshness: an excess of astringency constitutes roughness. Cheese is said to be harsh when it is dry and bitiag; roughness is the peculiar quality of the damasoene. From this physical diatinction between these terma we diacover the ground of their moral application. Harshness in a person'a conduct acta upon the feelinge, and dees violence to the affectiona: roughness acta only externally on the senses: we may be rough in the tone of the voice, in the mode of address, or in the manner of
handling or touching an abject: but we are harah in the sentiment we convey, and according to the persons to whom it is conveyed: a stranger may be rough when he has it in hia power to be so: only a friend, or one in the tenderast relation, can be harsh.

No complaint is more feelingly made than that of the harsh and rugged manners of persons with whom we have an intercourae.

Blait.
Know, gentle youth, in Lihyan lands there are A people rude in peace, and rough in war.

## Dtypen.

SEVERE, v. Austere. RIGOROUS, from the Latin rigor and rigeo, to stiffen, designates unbending, inflexible. Theae terma mark different modes of treating those that are in one'a power, all of which are the reverse of the kind. Harsh and rough are epithets of that which is unamiable: they indicate the harshness and roughness of the bumor: severity and rigor are not always to be condemned; they spring from principle, and are often reaorted to by necessity. Harshness is al. ways mingled with anger and personal feeling: severity and rigor characterize things more than the temper of peraons. A harsh master renders every burden which he imposes doubly severe, by the grating manner in which he communl cates his will: a severe master aimply imposes the burden in a manner to enforce obedience. The one seems to indulge himself in inflicting pain: the other beems to act from a motive that is independent of the pain inflicted. A harsh man is therefore always severe, but with injustice: a severe man, however, is not always harsh. Rigor is a high degree of severity. One is severe in the punishment of offences: one is rigorous in exaoting compliance and abedienoe. Severity is always more or less necessary in the army, or in a school, for the preaervation of good order: rigor is essential in deal. ing with the stubborn will and unruly passions of men.

It is pride which fills the world with so much harahness and sevarity. We are rigoraus to offences, as if we bad never offended, Blain,
to hasten, accelerate, sperd, exPEDITE, DESPATCH,
HASTEN, in French hatir, and in the Northern languages hasten, etc., is most

## HASTEN

probably connected with the German heiss, hot, expressing what is vivid and active. ACCELERATE, from celer, quick, signifies literally to quicken for a specific purpose. SPEED, from the Greek $\sigma \pi o v o \dot{\eta}$, signifies to carry on diligently. EXPEDITE, $v$. Diligent. DESPATCH, in French dépêcher, frou pes, a foot, signifies putting off or clearing.
Quickness in movement and action is the common idea of all these terms, which vary in the nature of the movement and the action. To hasten expresses little more than the general idea of quickness in moving toward a point; thus, he hastens who runs to get to the end of his journey: accelerate expresses, moreover, the idea of bringing something to a point; thus, every mechanical business is accel. erated by the order and distribution of its several parts. It may be employed, like the word hasten, for corporeal and familiar actions: a tailor accelerates any particular work that he has in hand by putting on additional hands; or a compositor accelerates the printing of a work by doing his part with correctness. The word speed includes not only quick but forward movement. He who goes with speed goes effectually forward, and comes to his journey's end the soonest. This idea is excluded from the term haste, which may often be a planless, unsuitable quickness. Hence the proverb, "The more haste, the worse speed."
Where with like haste, though several ways they run,
Some to undo, and some to be undone. Denham.
Let the aged consider well, that by every intemperate indulgence they accolerats decay.

Bialn.
When matters are fully resolved upon, I believe then nothing is so advantageous as spebd. Howell.
Expedite and despatch are terms of higher import, in application to the most serious concerns in life; but to expedite expresses a process, a bringing forward toward an end: despatch implies a putting an end to, a making a clearance. We do everything in our power to expedite a business: we despatch a great deal of business within a given time. Expedition is requisite for one who executes; despatch is most important for one who determines and directs. An inferior officer must pro-
oc.ed with expedition to fulfil the orders or execute the purposes of his commander; a general or minister of state de. spatches the concerns of plauning, directing, and instructing. Hence it is we speak only of expediting a thing; but we may speak of despatching a person as well as a thing.
The coachman was ordered to drive, and they hurried with the utmost expedition to Hyde Park Corner.

Jounson.
And as, in races, it is not the large stride, or high lift, that makes the speed; so, in business, the keeping close to the matter, and not taking of it too much at once, procureth despatch.

Bacon.

## TO HASTEN, HURRY.

HASTEN, v. To hasten. HURRY, in French harier, probably comes from the Hebrew charrer or harrer, to be inflamed, or be in a hurry.
To hasten and hurry both imply to move forward with quickness in any matter; but the former may proceed with some design and good order, but the latter always supposes perturbation and irregularity. We hasten in the comnumication of good news, when we make efforts to convey it in the shortest time possible; we hurry to get to an end, when we impatiently and inconsiderately press forward without making choice of our means. To hasten is opposed to delay, or a dilatory mode of proceeding; it is frequently indispensable to hasten in the affairs of human life: to hurry is opposed to deliberate and cautions proceeding: it must always be prejudicial and unwise to hurry; men may hasten; children hurry.
Homer, to preserve the unity of action, hastens into the midst of things, as Horace has observed.

> Now 'tls naught

But restless hurry through the busy air, Beat by unnumber'd wings.

Thomson.
As epithets, hasty and hurried are hoth employed in the bad sense; but hasty im plies merely an overquickness of motion which ontstrips consideration; hurried implies a disorderly motion which springs from a distempered state of mind. Irritable people use hasty expressions; they speak before they think: deranged peo. ple walk with hurried steps; they fol low the blind impulse of undirected feel ing.

## HATRED

If you ind you have a hastiness of temper, which unguardedly breaks out into indiscreet sallies, watch it narrowly.

Cinesterfield.
The mind is hurried out of itself by a crowd of great and confused images.

Buake.

## TO HATE, DETEST.

The alliance between these terms in sigoification is sufficiently illustrated in the articles referred to. Their difference consists more in sense than application. To HATE ( $v$. Antipathy) is a personal feeling directed toward the object independently of its qualities; to DETEST (v. To abhor) is a feeling independent of the person, and altogether dependent upon the nature of the thing. What one hates, one hates commonly on one's own account; what one detests, one detests on account of the object: hence it is that one hates, but not detests, the person who has done an injury to one's self; and that one detests, rather than hates, the person who bas done injuries to others. Joseph's brethen hated him because he was more beloved than they; we detest a traitor to his country because of the enormity of bis offence.

Spleen to mankind his envious heart possess'd, And much he hated all, but most the best.

Pore.
Who dares think one thing, and another tell, My heart detests him as the gates of hell. Pore.

In this connection, to hate is always a bad passion: to detest always laudable; but, when both are applied to inanimate objects, to hate is bad or good according to circumstances; to detest always retains its good meaning. When men hate things because they interfere with their indulgences, as the wicked hate the light, it is a bad personal feeling, as in the former case ; but, when good men are said to hate that which is bad, it is a laudable feeling, justified by the nature of the object. As this feeling is, however, so closely allied to detest, it is necessary further to observe that hate, whether rightly or wrongly applied, seeks the injury or destruction of the object: but detest is confined simply to the shunning of the object, or thinking of it with very great pain. God hates sin, and on that account punishes sinners; congcientious men detest all fraud, and therefore cautiously avoid being concerned in it.

Vain pomp and glory of the world, I hate ye.
Shakspeare.
I must be pardoned for this short tribute to the memory of a man who, while living, would as much detest to receive anything that wore the appearance of flattery as I should be to offer it.

Golobmite.

## hateful, odious.

HATEFUL signifies literally full of that which is apt to excite hatred. ODI OUS, from the Latin odi, to hate, has the same sense originally.

These epithets are employed in regard to such objects as produce strong aversion in the mind; but when employed, as they commonly are, upon familiar subjects, they indicate an uobecoming vehemence in the speaker. Hateful is properly applied to whatever violates general principles of morality; lying and swearing are hateful vices: odious is more commonly applied to such things as affect the interests of others, and bring odium upon the individual; a tax that bears particularly hard and unequally is termed odious, or a measure of government that is oppressive is denominated odious.
Let me be deemed the hateful cause of all, And suffer, rather than my people fall. Pore. Oh 1 restless fate of pride,
That strives to learn what Heav'n resolved to hide:
Vain is the search, presumptnous and abhorr'd, Anxious to thee, and odious to thy lord. Pope.

HATRED, ENMITY, ILL-WILL, RANCOR.
These terms agree in this particular, that those who are under the influence of such feelings derive a pleasure from the misfortune of others; but HATRED (v. Aversion) expresses more than EN. MITY (v. Enemy), and this more than ILL_WILL, which signifies either an evil will or a willing of evil. Hatred is not contented with merely wishing ill to others, but derives its whole happiness from their misery or destruction; enmity, on the contrary, is limited in its operations to particular circumstances: hatred, on the otber hand, is frequently confined to the feeling of the individual; but enmity consists as much in the action as the feeling. He who is possessed with hatred is happy when the object of his passion is miserable, and is miserable when be is happy; but the hater is not always in.
strumental in causing his misery or destroying his happiness: he who is inflamed with enmity is more active in disturbing the peace of his enemy; but oftener displays his temper in trifling than in important matters. Ill-will, as the word denotes, lies only in the mind, and is so indefinite in its signification that it admits of every oonceivable degree. When the will is evilly directed toward another in ever so small a degree it constitutes ill-will. RANCOR is in Latin rancor, from ranceo, to grow stale, signifying staleness, a species of bitter, deeprooted enmity.

Phomiclan Dido rules the growing state, Who fled from Tyre to ahun her hrother's hate. Dryden.
That space the evil one abstracted stood From his own evil, and for the time remain'd Stupidly good, of enmity disarm'd. Miuton.
For your servasts, neither use them so familiarly as to lose your reverence at their hands, nor ao disdainfully as to purchase yourself their ill-will.

WENTWOATE.
Oh lasting rancor $!$ ob insatiate hate,
To Phrygia's monarch, and the Phryglan state.

## HAUGHTINESS, DISDALN, ARROGANCE.

HAUGHTINESS denotes the abstract quality of haughty, which, contracted from high-hearty, in Dutch and low German hoogharty, signifies literally highspirited. DISDAIN, v. To contemn. ARROGANCE, v. Arrogance.

Haughtiness is founded on the high opinion we entertain of ourselves; disdain, on the low opinion we have of others; arrogance is the result of both, but if anything, more of the former than the latter. Haughtiness and disdain are properly sentiments of the mind, and arropance a mode of acting resulting from a state of mind: there may therefore be haughtiness and disdain which have not betrayed themselves by any visible action; but arrogance is always accompanied with its corresponding action: the haughty man is known by the air of superiority which he assumes; the disdainfulman by the contempt which he shows to others; the arrogant maan by his lofty pretensions. Haughtiness and arrogance are both vicious; they are built upon a false idea of ourselves; but disdain may be justifiable when provoked by what is
infamous: a lady must treat with disdain the person who insults her honor.

The same haughtiness that prompts the act of injustice will more atrongly incite its justiflcation.

Jo H NaON.
Didst thon not think such vengeance must await The wretch that, with his crimes all fresb aboot him,
Rushes, irreverent, unprepar'd, uncall'd, Into his Maker's presence, throwing back With insolent disdain bis cboicest gift?

Portesu.
Turbulent, discontenled men of quality, in proportion as they are puffed np with persanal pride and arrogance, generally despise their own order. Burke.

## HAUGHTY, HIGH, HIGH-MINDED.

HAUGHTY (v. Haughtiness) and HIGH, derived from the same source as haugh$t y$, characterize both the external behavior and the internal sentiment; HIGHMINDED marks the sentiment only, or the state of the mind. With regard to the outward behavior, haughty is a stronger term than high; a haughty carriage bespeaks not only a high opinion of one's self, but a strong mixture of contempt for others: a high carriage denotes simply a high opinion of one's self : haughtiness is therefore always offensive, as it is burdensome to others; but height may sometimes be laudable, inasmuch as it is justice to one's self: one can never give a command in a haughty tone without making others feel their inferiority in a painful degree; we may sometimes assume a high tone in order to shelter ourselves from insult.
He deserved and earned dislike by his haughty deportment.

Bissestr.
Master Endymion Porter broaght lately my Lord of Bristol a despatch from England of a high nature, wherein this earl is commanded to represent unto this king how much his Majesty of Great Britain hath labored to merit well of the crown.

Howebl.
With regard to the sentiment of the mind, haughty, whether it shows itself in the outward behavior, or rests in the mind, is always bad; height as an habitual temper, and still more high-mindedness, which more strongly marks the personal quality, are expressly inconsistent with Christian humility; but a man may with reason be too high or too high-minded to condescend to a mean action.
Let gifts be to the mighty qneen design'd, And mollify with prayers her haughty mind.

Dryden

## HEALTHY

Who knows whethar indignation may not succeed to terror, and tho ravival of a $h i g h$ sentiment, apurning away the illusion of sqfety purchasad at tha expense of glory, may not driva us to a generous despair.

Bubie.
The wise will determina from the gravity of the case; the irritable, from sensibility to oppression ; the high-minded, from disdain and indignation ut abusiva power in unwortly hands. Buage.

## to have, posbess.

HAVE, in Danish haver, Swedish hafna, Saxon, etc., haebben, Latin habeo, oomes from the Hebrew caph, the hollow of the hand, $i, e$., being in the hand, which is literally having. POSSESS, in Latin possessus, participle of possideo, compounded of pos or potis and sedeo, signifies to have the power of resting upon or keeping.

Havs is the general, possess is the particular term: have designates no circumstance of the action; possess expresses a partioular species of having. To have is sometimes to have in one's hand or Within one's reach; but to possess is to have as one's own: a clerk has the money whioh he has fetohed for his employer; the latter possesses the money, whioh he has the power of turning to his use. To have ls sometimes to have the right to, to belong; to possess is to have by one and at one's command; a debtor has the property which he has surrendered to his creditor; but he cannot be sajd to possess it, because he has it not within his reach and at his disposal: we are not necessauily masters of that which we have; although we always are of that which we possess: to have is sometimes only temporary; to possess is mostly permanent: we have money which we are perpetually disposing of: we possess lands which we keep for a permanenoy: a porson has the good graces of those whom he pleases; he possesses the confidence of those who put everything in hls power.

## That I spent, that I hud; <br> That I gava, that I have; <br> That I left, that I lost.

Epitaph on a Chamitable Man.
The various objects that compose the world were by nature formed to delight our senses; and as it is this alone that makes them desirable to an uncorrupted taste, a man may be said naturally to possess them whan he possenseth those enjoyments which they arf fitted by natura to yield.
berciliet.

## TO HAZARD, RISK, VENTURR.

ALL these terms denote actions perform: ed under an uncertainty of the event: but HAZARD (v. Chance) bespeaks a want of design and choice on the part of the agent; to RISK (v. Danger) implies a choice of alternatives; to VENTURE, which is the same as adventure (v. Event), signifies a calculation and balance of prob. abilities : one hazards and risks under the fear of an evil; one ventures with the hope of a good. He who hazards an opinion on an assertion does lt from presumptuous feelings and upon slight grounds; chances are ratber against bim than for him that it may prove erroneous: he who riska a battle does it often from necessity; he chooses the least of two evils; although the event is dubious, yet he fears less from a failure than from inaction: he who ventures on a mercantlle speculation does it from a love of gain; he flatterg himself with a favorable event, and aoquires boldness from the prospect. There are but very few circumstanees to justify us $\ln$ hazarding; there may be sever. al occasions which render it necessary to risk, and very many cases ln which it may be advantageous to venture,
Thay list with woman ageh degen'rate name Who dares pot hasara life for future fame.

## Drynex,

If the adventurer risks bonor, be risks mora than the knight.

HAWEESWORTP.
Socrates, In hls diseourse befora his death, saya he dld not know whether his sonl wonld remaln after death, but ha theught so, and had such hopes of it that he was very willing to venture his lifs upon these hopes.

Тицотвол.

## HEALTHY, WHOLESOME, BALUBRIOUB, satutary,

HEALTHY signifies not only having health, but also causing health. WHOLE, SOME, like the German heikam, signifies making whole, keeping whole or sound. SALUBRIOUS and SALUTARY, from the Latin salus, safety or health, signify likewise contributive to health or good in general.

Thesc epithets are all applicable to such objects as have a kindly influence on the bodily constitution: healthy is the most general and indefinite; it is applied to ex. ercise, to air, situation, climate, and most other things but food, for whioh whole
some is commonly substituted : the life of a farmer is reckoned the most healthy; and the simplest diet is the most wholesome. Healthy and wholesome are rather negative in their sense; salubrious and salutary are positive: that is healthy and wholesome which does no injury to the health; that is salubrious which serves to improve the health; and that is aalutary which serves to remove a disorder: climates are healthy or unhealthy, according to the constitution of the person; water is a wholesome beverage for those who are not dropsical ; bread is a wholesome diet for man; the air and climate of southern France has been long famed for its salubrity, and has induced many invalids to repair thither for the benefit of their health; the effects have not been equally salutary in all cases.
You are relaxing yourself with the hoalthy and manly exercise of the tield. Sir W. Jones. Here laid his scrip with wholesome viands filld; There, listening every noise, his watchful dog.

Thombon.
If that fountain be once poisoned, you can never expect that salubrious streams will fow from it.

Blair.
Wholesome and salutary have likewise an extended and moral application; healthy and salubrious are employed only in the proper sense: wholesome in this case seems to convey the idea of making whole again what has been unsound; but salutary retains the idea of improving the condition of those who stand in need of improvement: correction is wholesome which serves the purpose of amendment without doing any injury to the body ; instruction or admonition is salutary when it serves the purpose of strengthening good principles, and awakening a sense of guilt or impropriety : laws and punishments are wholesome to the body politic, as diet is to the physical body; restrictions are salutary in checking irregularities.

False decorations, fucuses, and pigments, deserve the imperfections thai constantly attend them, being neither commodious in application, nor wholesome in their use.

A sense of the Divine presence exerts this salutary influence of promoting temperance and restraining the disorders incident to a prosperous state.

Blair.
TO HEAP, PILE, ACCUMULATE, AMASS.
To HEAP signifies to form into a heap. To PLLE is to form into a pile, which, be-
ing a variation of pole, signifies a high raised heap. To ACCUMULATE, from the Latin cumulus, a heap, signifies to put heap upon heap. To AMASS is literally to form into a mass.

To heap is an indefinite action; it may be performed with or without order: to pile is a definite action done with design and order; thus we heap stones, or pild wood: to heap may be to make into large or small heaps: to pile is always to make something considerable in height: children may heap sticks together; men pils loads of wood together.

Within the circles arms and tripods lie, Ingots of gold and silver heap'd on high.

Datden
This wonld I celebrate with annual games, Witb gifts on altars $p i l ' d$, and holy flames.

Dryden.
To pile is used always, to heap mostly in the physical, accumulate and amass in the physical or moral acceptation. To accumulate is properly to bring or add heap to heap, which is a gradual and unfinished act; to amass is to form into a mass, which is a single complete act: a man may ao cumulate guineas or anything else in small quantities, but he properly amasses wealth, and in a figurative sense he amasses knowledge. To accumulate and to amass are not always the acts of conscious agents: things may accumulate or amass; water or snow accumulates hy the continual accession of fresh quantities; ice amasses in rivers until they are frozen over: so in the moral acceptation, evils, abuses, and the like, accumulate: corruption amasses.
These odes are marked by glittering accumnulations of ungraceful ornaments. Joinsor.
Misers are generally characterized as men without honor or without humanity, who live only to accumulate. Goudsmith.
Sir Francis Bacon, by an extraordinary force of nature, compass of thought, and indefatigable study, has amassed to himself such stores of knowledge as we cannot look upon without amazement.

Hugres.

## to hear, hearken, overhear.

To HEAR is properly the act of the ear; it is sometimes totally abstracted from the mind, when we hear and do not understand: to HEARKEN is an act of the ear and the mind in conjunction; it implies an effort to hear, a tendency of the ear; to OVERHEAR is to hear clan.
destinely, or unknown to the person who is heard, whether designedly or not. We hear sounds: we hearken for the sense; we overhear the words: a quick ear hears the smallest sound; a willing mind hearkons to what is said; a prying curiosity leads to overhearing.
I look'd, I listen'd, dreadful sounds I hear, And the dire forms of hostile gods appear.'
But aged Nereus hearkens to his love.
Dayden.
If he fail of that,
Ha will have other means to cut you off ; 1 overheard him and his practices.

Shakspeare.

## hearty, warm, sincere, cordial.

HEARTY, $i$. e, having the heart in a thing, and WARM ( $v$. Fire) express a stronger feeling than SINCERE ( $v$. Candid); CORDIAL, from cor, the heart, i.e., according to the heart, is a mixture of the warm and sincere. There are cases in which it may be peculiarly proper to he hearty, as when we are supporting the cause of religion and virtue; there are other cases in which it is peculiarly proper to be warm, as when our affeetions ought to he roused in favor of our friends; in all cases we ought to be sincere, when we express either a sentiment or a feeling; it is peculiarly happy to be on terms of cordial regard with those who stand in any close relation to us. The man himself should be hearty; his heart should be warm; professions should be sincere; a reception cordial.

Yet should some neighbor feel a pain Just in the part where I complain, How many a message would he send!
What hearty prayers that I should mend!
Swift.
Youth is the season of warm and generous emotions.

Blair.
We meet at last in one sincere desire; His wish and mine both prompt me to retire.

Cowper.
With a gratitude the most cordial, a good man looks up to that Almighty Benefactor who aims at oo end but the happiness of those whom he blesses.

Blair.
TO HEAVE, SWELL.
HEAVE is used either transitively or intransitively, as a reflective or a neuter verb; SWELL is used only as a neuter verb. Heave implies raising, and swell implies distension: they differ therefore very widely in sense, but they sometimes
agree in application. The bosom is said both to heave and to swell; hecause it happens that the bosom swells by heaving; the waves are likewise said to heave themselves or to swell, in which there is a similar correspondence between the actions: otherwise most things which neave do not swell, and those which swell do not heave.
He heaves for breath, he staggers to and fro, And clouds of issuing smoke his nostrils loudly hlow.

Dryden.
Meantime the mountain billows, to the clouds
In dreadful tumult swoll'' surge above surge.
Thomson.

## HEAVY, DULL, DROWSY.

HEAVY is allied to both DULL and DROWSY, but the latter have no close conneetion with each otber.

Heavy and dull are employed as epithets both for persons and things; heavy characterizes the corporeal state of a person; duall qualifies the spirits or the understanding of the subject. A person has a heavy look whose temperament seems composed of gross and weighty materials which weigh him down and impede his movements; he has a dull countenance in whom the ordinary brightness and vivaeity of the mind is wanting.
Heavy with age, Entellus stands his ground, But with his warping body wards the wound.

## Dayden.

O thou dull god! Why liest thou with the vile In loathsome beds : and leav'st the kingly coueh A watch-case to a common larum bell?

Shamspeare.
Heavy and drowsy are both employed in the sense of sleepy; but the former is only a particular state, the latter particular or general; all persons may be occasionally heavy or drowsy; some are bahitually drowsy from disease: they likewise differ in degree, the latter heing much the greater of the two; and oceasionally they are applied to such things as produce sleepiness.
And drowsy tinklings lull the distant fold.
Grat.
HEAVY, BURDENSOME, WEIGHTY, PONDEROUS.
HEAVY, from heave, signifies the eausing to heave, or requirlng to he lifted up with force; BURDENSOME signifies having a burden; WEIGHTY, having a weight; and PONDEROUS, from the Lat-

## HEIGHTEN

In pondus, a weight, has the same originel meaning.
Heavy is the natural property of some bodies ; burdensome is incidental to some. In the vulgar sense, things are termed heavy which are found difficult to lift, in distinction from those which are light or easy to be lifted; but those things are burdensome which are too troublesome to be carried or borne: many things, therefore, are actually heavy that are never burdensome; and othere are occasionally burdensome that are never heavy: that which is heauy is so whether lifted or not; but that which is burdensome must be burdensome to some one carrying it: hard aubstances are mostly heavy; but to a weak person the softeat substance may sometimes be burdensome if be is obliged to bear it; things are heavy according to the difficulty with which they are lifted; but they are weighty according as they weeigh other things down. The heavy is therefore indefinite; but the weighty is definite, and romething poaitively great: what is heavy to one may be light to another; but that which ia weighty exceeds the ordinary weight of other things: ponderous expresees even more than weighty, for it includes also the idea of bulk; the ponderous, therefore, is that which is so weighty and large that it cannot easily be moved.

> Though philosophy teachas that no element is heavy in its own place, yet experience shows that out of its own place It proves exceeding burdensome. The soute troops along tha narrow tracks Scarce bas the weighty hurden on their backs. Dryden.
The diligence of an idler is rapid and impetaous, as ponderous bodies forced into velocity mova with violence proportionate to their weight.

Johnson.

## heed, CARE, ATTENTION.

HEED ( $v$. To attend) applies to matters of importance to one's moral conduct ; OARE ( $v$. Care, solicitude) to matters of minor import: a man is required to take heed; a child is required to take care: the former exercises bis understanding in taking heed; the latter exercises his thoughts and his senses in taking care: the former looks to the remote and probable consequences of his actions, and endeavors to prevent the evil that may hap.
pen; the latter aees principally to tho tbing tbat is immediately before him. When a young man enters the world, ho must take heed leat he be not ensnared by his companions into vicious practices; in a slippery path we muat take care that we do not fall.
Next you, my servants, heed my strict com mands ;
Withont the walls a ruin'd temple stands.
Drydm
I believe tha hiatus should be avoided with more cara in poetry than in oratory. Pops.

Heed has moreover the sense of think ing on what is proposed to our notice, in which it agreea with ATTENTION ( $v$. To attend); bence we speak of giving heed and paying attention: but the former is applied only to that which is con. veyed to us hy another, in the abape of a direction, a caution, or an instruction; but the latter is aaid of everything which we are said to perform. A good child gives heed to his parents when they caution him against any dangerous or falea step; he payi attention to the leason which is set him to learn. He who gives no heed to the counsels of others is made to repent his folly by bitter experience; he who fails in paying attention cannot learn.
It is a way of calling a man a fool, when no heed is given to what he says. L'Estranos.
He perceived nothing but -ilance, and signs of attention to what he would firther say. Bacon.

## to heighten, raise, agGravate.

To HEIGHTEN is to make higher ( v . Haughty). To RAISE is to cauae to rise (v. To arise). To AGGRAVATE (v. To aggravate) is to make heavy. Heighten refers more to the result of the action of making higher; raise to the mode: we heighten a house by raising the roof; where raising conveys the idea of setting up aloft, which is not included in the word heighten. On the same ground a head-dress may be said to be heightened which is made kigher than it was before; and a chair or a table is raised that is set upon something else: but in apeaking of a wall, we may say that it is either heightened or raised, because the operar tion and result must in both cases be the aame. In the improper sense of these terma they preserve a similar diatinction:

## HELP

we heighten the value of a thing; we raise ita price: we heighten the grandeur of an object; we raise a family.

Purity and virtue heighten sll the powers of fruition.

Blata.
I would have our conceptions raised by the dignity of thought and suhlimilty of expression, rather than by a train of rohes or a plume of leathers.

Addison.
Heighten and aggravate have connection with eacb other only in applicatlon to offences: the enormity of an offence is heightened, the guilt of the offender is aggravated, by particular circumatances. The horrors of a murder are heightened by being committed in the dead of the night; the guilt of the perpetrator is ag. gravated by the addition of ingratitude to murder.

The counsels of pusillsnlmity very rarely put off, while they are slways sure to adgravate, the evlis from which they would fly. Bonies.

## heinous, flagrant, flagitious, ATROCIOUS.

HEINOUS, in French haineux, Greek $\boldsymbol{a} \nu_{0} \mathrm{~g}_{\mathrm{s}}$ or $\delta \varepsilon \nu_{0} \mathrm{o}_{\text {, }}$ terrible. FLAGRANT, in Latin fagrans, burning, is a figurative expresaion denoting excessive and violent in its nature. FLAGITIOUS, in Latin flagitiosus, from flagitium, signifies peculiarly infamous. ATROCIOUS, in Latin atrox, cruel, from ater, black, aignifies exceedingly hlack in guilt.

These epithets, which are applied to crimas, seem to rise in degree. A crime is heirous which aeriously offends against the laws of men; a sin is heinous which serioualy offends against the will of God; an offence is flagrant which is in direct defiance of eatablished opinions and practice: it is flagitious if a gross violation of the moral law, or coupled with any grossness: a crime is atrocious which is attended with any aggravating circumstances. Lying is a heinous sin; gaming and drunkenness are flagrant breaches of the Divine law ; the murder of a whole family is in the fullest sense atrocious.

There sre many authors who have shown Wherein the malignity of a lie consists, and set forth in proper colors the heinousness of the afence.

ADDISON.
If sny fagrant deed occur to smite s msn's conscience, on this he cannot avold resting with anxiety and terror.

Blatr.

It is recorded of Sir Matthew Hale, that he fas s long time concealed the consecrstion of him self to the stricter duties of rellgion, lest by some Ragitious action he should hring piety into disgrace.
juanson.
The wickedness of a loose or profane author is more atrocious than that of the giddy libertine.

Johnson.
TO HELP, ASSIST, AID, SUCCOR, RElieve.
HELP, in Saxon helpan, German helfen, Teutonic heilfen, from heil, whole, ia connected with the Greek o $\quad \lambda$ osc, happy, and o $\phi \varepsilon \lambda \lambda \omega$, to do good to, ASSIST, in Latin assisto, or ad and sisto, signifies to place one'a self hy another ao as to give him our strength. AID, in Latin adjuwo, that is, the intensive syllable $a d$ and $j u v o$, aignifies to profit toward a specific end. SUCCOR, in Latin succurro, to run to the help of any one. RELIEVE, v. To alle. viate.

The idea of communicating to the ad. vantage of another in case of need ia common to all these terms. Help is the generic term; the rest specific: help may be substituted for the others, and in many cases where they would not he applicahle. The first three are employed either to produce a positive good or to remove an evil; the two latter only to remove an evil. We help a person to prosecute his work, or help him out of a difficulty; we assist in order to forward a schema, or we assist a person in tha time of his emharrassment; we aid a good cause, or we aid a person to make his escape; we suceor a person wbo la in danger; we relieve him in time of distress. To help and assist espect personal service, the former by corporeal, tha latter by corporeal or mental labor: one servant helps anotber by taking a part in his employment; one author assists anothar in the composition of his work. We help up a person's load; we assist him to rise when he has fallen: we speak of a helper or a helpmate in mechanical employments, of an assistant to a profes sional man.
Their strength anited best may holp to bear.

## Pops.

'Tis the first ssnction nsture gave to man
Each other to assist in what they can. Denan.
To assist and aid are used for services directly or indirectly performed: but the
former is said only of individuals, the latter may be said of bodies as well as individuals. One friend assists another with bis purse, with his counsel, his interest, and the like: one person aids another in carrying on a scheme; or one king, or nation, aids another with armies and subsidies. We come to the assistance of a person when he has met with an accident; we come to his aid when contending against numbers. Assistance is given, aid is sent.

She no sooner yielded to adnltery, but she agreed to assiat in the murder of her husband.

Browne.
Your private right should impious power invade, The peers of Ithaca would rise in aid. Pope.

To succor is a species of immediate assistance, which is given on the spur of the ocoasion; the good Samaritan went to the succor of the man who had fallen among thieves; so in like manner we may succor one who calls us by his cries; or we may succor the poor whom we find in circumstances of distress.

My fathar
Flying for succor to his servant Banister, Being distress'd, was by that wretch batray'd.

ShaEgreane.
So likewise one may succor a nation.

## Patroclus on the shore,

Now pale and dead, shall auccor Greece no more.
Pops.
The word relieve has nothing in common with succor, except that they both express the removal of pain; but the latter does not necessarily imply any mode by which this is done, and therefore excludes the idea of personal interference. To help is commonly an act of good-nature or discretion; to relieve an act of humanity or generosity.

I called out my whole family to help at saving mafter-growth of hay. Gocdsmith.
Compassion prompts ua to relieve the wants of onr brethren.

Bialr.
All these terms, except succor, may be applied to things as well as persons; we may walk by the help of a stick, read with the assistance of glasses, learn a task quickly by the aid of a good memory, and obtain relief from medicine.
A man reads his prayers out of a book, as a meane to $h$ glp hia undaratanding and direct his expressions.

Stilling

Acquaintance with method will assist one in ranging human affaira.

WATCE Wiae, weighty connsela aid a atate diatress'd.

## Pope.

An unbeliever feela the whole pressure of a present calamity, without being relieved by the memory of anything that is past, or the prospect of anything that is to come.

Addizon.
HERETIC, SCHISMATIC, SECTARIAN OR SECTARY, DISSENTER, NON-CONFORMIST.
A HERETIC is the maintainer of heresy (v. Heterodox); the SCBISMATIC is the author or promoter of schism; the SECTARIAN or SECTARY is the mem. ber of a sect; the DISSENTER is one who dissents from an established religion; and the NON-CONFORMIST one who does not conform to an establishment. A man is a heretic only for matters of faith and doctrine, but he is a schismatic in matters of discipline and practice. The heretic, therefore, is not always a schismatic, nor the schismatic a heretic. Whoever holds the doctrines that are common to the Roman Catholic and the reformed Churches is not a heretic in the Protestant sense of the word; although he may in many outward formalities be a schismatic. Calvinists are not heretics, but many among them are schismatics; on the other hand, there are many members of the establishment who hold, though they do not avow, heretical notions.
When a papist uses the word heretics, he generally means Protestants; when a Protestant uses the word, he generally means any peraon wilfully and contentiously obstinate in funda. mental errors.

The heretic is considered as such with regard to the Catholic Church or the whole body of Christians, holding the same fundamental principles; but the schismatic and sectarian are considered as such with regard to particular bodies of Christians. Schism, from the Greek $\sigma \chi \iota \zeta \omega$, to split, denotes an action, and the schismatic is an agent who splits for himself in his own individual capacity: the sectarian does not expressly perform a part, he merely holds a relation; be does not divide anything himself, but belongs to that which is already cut or divided. The schismatic therefore takes upon himself the whole moral responsi
bility of the schism; but the sectarian does not necessarily take an active part in the measures of his sect; whatever guilt attaches to schism attaches to the schismatic; he ia a voluntary agent, acting from an erroneous principle, if not an unchristian temper: the sectarian is often an involuntary agent; he follows that to which he has been incidentally attached. It is possible, therefore, to be a schismatic, and not a sectarian; as also to be a sectarian, and not a schismatic. Those professed members of the establishment who affect the title of evangelical, and wish to palm upon the Church the peculianities of the Calvinistic doctrine, and to ingraft their own modes and forms into its discipline, are schismatics, but not sectarians; on the other hand, those who by birth and education are attached to a sect are sectarians, but not always schismatics. Consequently, schismatic is a term of much greater reproach than sectarian.

The schismatic and sectarian have a reference to any established body of Christians of any country; but dissenter is a term applicable only to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and bearing relation only to the established Church of England: it includes not only those who have individually and personally renounced the doctrines of the Clurch, but those who are in a state of dissent or difference from it. Dissenters are not necessarily either schismatics or sectarians, for British Roman Catholics are all dissenters, although they are the reverse of what is understood by schismatic and sectarian: it is equally clear that all schismatics and sectarians are not dissenters, because every established community of Christians, all over the world, have bad individuals, or amaller bodies of individuals, setting themselves up against them: the term dissenter being in a great meaaure technical, it may be applied individually or generally without conveying any idea of reproach; the same may be said of non-conformist, which is a more special term, including only such as do not conform to some established or national religion : consequently, all members of the Romiah Church, or of the Kirk of Scotland, are excluded from the number of non-conformists; while on the other
hand, all British-born subjects not ad hering to theae two forma, and at the same time renouncing the established form of their country, are of thia number, among whom may be reckoned Independents, Presbyterians, Baptista, Quakera, Methodists, and all other auch sects as have been formed since the Reformation.
The Schismatics disturb the sweet peace of
How Church.
Hown.
In the house of Sir Samuel Lulse, one of Cromwell's officers, Butler observed so much of the character of the Sectaries that he is ssid to have written or begun his poem at this time.

Johngon.
Of the Diasenters, Swift did not wish to infringe the toleration, but he opposed their encroachments.

Johngon.
Watts is at least one of the few poets with whom youth and ignorance may be safely pleased ; and bappy will that reader be whose mind is disposed, by his verses or his prose, to imitate him in all but his non-conformity.

Joinson.

## TO HESITATE, FALTER, STAMMER, STUTTER.

HESITATE, $v$. To demur. FALTER or FAULTER seems to signify to commit a fault or blunder, or it may be a frequentative of to fall, signifying to stumble. STAMMER, in the Teutonic stammeln, comes most probably from the Hebrew satem, to obstruct. STUTTER is but a variation of stammer.

A defect in utterance is the idea which is common in the signification of all these terms: they differ either as to the cause or the mode of the action. With regard to the cauae, a hesitation results from the state of the mind, and an interruption in the train of thoughts; falter arises from a perturbed state of feeling; stammer and stutter arise either from an incidental circumstance, or more commonly from a physical defect in the organs of utterance. A person who is not in the habit of public speaking, or of collecting his thoughts into a aet form, will be apt to hesitate even in familiar conversation; he who first addresses a public assembly will be apt to falter. Children who first begin to read will stammer at hard words: and one who has an impediment in his speech will stutter when he attempts to speak in a hurry.

With regard to the mode or degree

## HIGH

of the action, hesitate expresses less than falter; stammer less than stutter. The slightest difficulty in uttering words constitutes a hesitation; a pause or the repetition of a word may be termed hesitating: but to falter supposes a failure in the voice as well as the lips when they refuse to do their office. Stammering and stattering are confined principally to the useless moring of the mouth; he who stammers hriags forth sounds, but not the right sounds, without trials and efforts; he who stutters remains for some time in a state of agitation without uttering a sound.

> To look with solicitude and speak with hesitation is sttainable at will ; but the show of wisdom is ridiculous when there is nothing to cause douht, as that of valor, when there is oothing to be feared.
> JoHNson.

And yet was every faultering tongue of man, Almighty Fsther! sileat in thy praise,
Thy works themselves wonld raise s genersl voice.

Thomson.
Lagean juice
Will stamm'ring tongues snd stagg'ring feet produce.

Dhymen.

## heterodoxy, heresy.

HETERODOXY, from the Greek exepos and $\delta_{0} \xi \eta$, signifies another or a different doctrine. HERESY, from the Greek alpegts, a choice, signifies an opinion adopted by individual choice.

To be of a different persuasion is heterodoxy; to have a faith of one's own is heresy; the heterodoxy characterizes the opinions formed; the heresy characterizes the individual forming the opinion: the heterodoxy exists independently and for itself; the heresy sets itself up against others. As all division supposes error either on one side or on both, the words heterodoxy and heresy are applied only to human opinions, and strictly in the sense of a false opinion, formed in distinction from that which is better founded; but the former respects any opinions, important or otherwise, the latter refers only to matters of importance: the heresy is therefore a fundamental error. There has been much heterodoxy in the Chris. tian world at all times, and among these have been heresies denying the plainest and most serious truths which have been acknowledged by the great body of Christians since the Apostles.

All wrong notions in religion sre ranked undet the general name of haterodow.

Goldino.
Heterodowies, false doctrines, yea, and heren sies, may be propagated by prayer as well as preaching.

Bule.
HIDEOUS, GHAS'TLY, GRIM, GRISLY.
HIDEOUS comes probably from hide, signifying fit only to be hidden from the view. GHASTLY signifies like a ghost GRIM is in German grimm, fierce. GRIS LY, from grizale, signifies grizzled, or metley colored.

An unseemly exterior is characterized by these terms; but the hideous respects natural objects, and the ghastly mere properly that which is supernatural, or what resembles it. A mask with monstrous grinning features looks hideous; a human form with a visage of death-like paleness is ghastly. The grim is applicable only to the countenance; dogs or wild beasts may look very grim: grisly refers to the whole form, but particularly to the color; as blackness or darkness has always something terrific in it, a gris$l y$ figure having a monstrous assemblage of dark color, is particularly calculated to strike terror. Hideous is applicable to objects of hearing also, as a hideous roar; but the rest to objects of sight only.
From the hroad margin to the centre grew
Shelves, rocks, and whirlpools, hideous to the view.

Falconer.
And Death
Grina'd horrihly s ohastly smile. Mixtor.
Even hell's grim king Alcides' pow'r confess'd.
Pope,
All psrts resonnd with tumults, plaints, snd fears, And grisly death in sundry shapes sppears.

Pope.
HIGH, TALL, LOFTY.
HIGH, in German hoch, comes from the Hebrew agag, to be high. TALL, in Welsh tal, from the Hebrew talal, to elevate. LOFTY is doubtless derived from lift, in the sense of lifted (v. To lift).

High is the term in most general use, which seems likewise in the most unqualified manner to express the idea of extension upward, which is common to them all. Whatever is tall and lofty is high, but everything is not tall or lofty which is high. Tall and lofty both designate a more than ordinary degree of height; but tall is peculiarly applicable
to what shoots up or stands up in a perpendicular direction: while lofty is sald of that which is extended in breadth as well as in height; that which is lifted up or raised by an accretion of matter or an expansion in the alr. By this rule we say that a house is high, a chimney tall, a room lofty. With the high is associatsd no idea of what is striking; but the tall is coupled with the aspiring, or that which strives to out-top: the lofly is always coupled with the grand, and that which commands admiration.

## High at thair head he aaw the chief appear, And bold Merion to excite their rear. Pope. <br> Prostrate on earth their beauteons bodies lay, Like mountain firs, as tall and straight as they. Pops.

E'en now, 0 king ! 'tis giv'n thee to destroy The lofty tow're of wide-extended Troy. Pore.

High and lofty have a moral acceptation, but tall is taken in the natural sense only : high and lofty are applied to persons or what is personal, with the same difference in degree as before: a lofly title or lofty pretension conveys more than a high title or a high pretension. Men of high rank should have high ideas of virtue and personal dignity, and keep themselves clear from everything low and mean : a lofty ambition often soars too high to serve the purpose of its possessor, whose fall is the greater when he finds himself compelled to descend.
When you are tried in scondal's court,
Stand high in loonor, wealth, or wit,
All othere who inferior sit
Conceive thamselvea in conscianca bound
To join and drag you to the ground. Swirt.
Without thee, nothing lofty can I aing ;
Come then, and with thyself thy genios bring.
Dryden.

## TO HINDER, PREVENT, IMPEDE, OBSTRUCT.

HINDER, from hind or behind, signifies to pull or cause to be behind. PREVENT, from $p$ ree and venio, to come before, signifies to hinder by coming before, or to cross another by the anticipation of his purpose. IMPEDE, from in and pedes, signifies to come between a person's feet and entangle him in his progress. OBSTRUCT', from ob and struo, signifies to set up something in his way, to block the passage.

Hinder is the most general of these
terms, as it conveys little more than the idea which is common to them all, namely, that of keeping one from his purpose. To hinder is commonly said of that which is rendered impracticable only for the time being, or merely delayed; prevent is sald of that which is rendered altogether impracticable. A person is hindered by the weather and his various engagements from reaching a place at the time be intended; he is prevented but not hindered. by ill health from going thither at all. If a friend calls, he hinders me from finishing the letter which I was writing; if I wish to prevent my son from reading any book I keep it out of his way. To hinder is an act of the moment, it supposes no design; prevent is a premeditated act, deliberated upon, and adopted for general purposes: the former is applied only to the movements of any particular individual, the latter to events and circumstances. I hinder a person who is running, if I lay hold of his arm and make him walk: it is the object of every good government to prevent offences rather tban to punish offenders. In ordinary discourse these words fall very much into one another, when the circumstauces of the case do not sufficiently define whether the action in hand be altogether suspended, or only suspended for a time; but the above explanation must make it very clear that to hinder, in its proper sense and application, is but to stop in the progress, and prevent to stop in the outset.

It is much easiar to keep ourbelves void of rer aentment than to restrain it from excess when in has gained admission. To use the illustration of an excellent anthor, we can prevent the beginnings of aome thinga, whose progreas afterward we cannot hinder.

Holland.
To impede and obstruct are a species of hindering which is said rather of things than of persons: hinder is said of both; but hinder is commonly employed in re. gard to trifling matters, or such as retard a person's proceedings in the smallest degree; impede and obstruct are acts of greater importance, or produce a still greater degree of delay. A person is hindered in his work, although neither impeded nor obstructed; but the quantity of artillery and baggage which is attach. ed to an army will greatly impede it in ita
march; and the trees which are thrown across the roads will obstruct its march. Hinderances always suppose the agency of a person, either of the one who hinders, or the one who is hindered: but impediments and obstructions may be employed with regard to the operations of nature on inanimate objects. Cold impedes the growth of plants; a dam obstructs the course of water.

I am not gamesome; I do lack some part Of that quick spirit that is in Anthony: Let me not hinder, Cassins, your deaires. I'll leave you.

Shakgpeare.
Truth was provoked to aee herself thus baffled and impeded hy an enemy whom she looked on with contempt.

Jognaon.
This path you say is hid in endless night,
'Tis self-conceit alone obstructs your sight.
Jentina.

## TO HINDER, STOP.

HINDER (v. To hinder) refers solely to the prosecution of an object : STOP, signifying to make to stand, refers simply to the cessation of motion; we may be hindered, therefore, by being stopped; but we may also be hindered without being expressly stopped, and we may be stopped without being hindered. If the stoppage do not interfere with any other object in view, it is a stoppage, but not a hinderance, as when we are stopped by a friend while walking for pleasure: but if stopped by an idler in the midst of urgent business, so as not to be able to proceed according to our business, this is both a stoppage and a hinderance: on the other hand, if we are interrupted in the regular course of our proceeding, but not compelled to stand still or give up our busincss for any time, this may be a hinderanee, but not a stoppage: in this manner, the conversation of others in the midst of our business may considerably retard its progress, and so far hinder, but not expressly put a stop to, the whole concern.

Is it not the height of wisdom and goodness too to hinder the consummation of those soul-wasting sins, hy obliging us to withstand them in their first infancy ?

Soutr.
A signal omen stopp'd the passing host,
Their martial fury in their wonder lost. Pope.

## TO FINT, SUGGEST, INTLMATE, INSINUATE.

HINT, v. To allude. SUGGEST, v. To allude To INTIMATE is to make one
intimate, or specially acquainted with, to communicate one's most inward thoughts. INSINUATE, from the Latin sinus, the bosom, is to introduce gently into the mind of another.

All these terms denote indirect expres. sions of what passes in one's own mind. We hint at a thing from fear and uncertainty; we SUGGEST a thing from prudence and modesty; we intimate a thing from indecision; a thing is insinuated from artifice. A person who wants to get at the certain knowledge of any circumstance hints at it frequently in the presence of those who can give him the information ; a man who will not offend others by an assumption of superior wis. dom suggests his ideas on a subject, instead of setting them forth with confdence; when a person's mind is not made up on any future action, he only intimates what may be done; he who has anything offensive to communicate to another, will choose to insinuate it, rather than declare it in express terms. Hints are thrown out; they are frequently characterized as broken: suggestions are offered; they are frequently termed idle orill-grounded: in. timations are given, and are either sligh or broad: insinuations are thrown out; they are commonly designated as slander. ous, malignant, and the like.

Willing to wound, and yet afraid to strike, Just hint a fault, and hesitate dislike. Pope.
We must sugoest to the people, in what batred He still hath held them.

Shakbpeare.
'Tis Heay'n itself that points ont an hereafter, And intimates eternity to man. Admison.
He had so subtle a way of interrogating, and, under the notions of donhts, insinuating his objections, that he infused his own opinions into those from whom he pretended to learn and receive them.

Clarendon.
To hint is taken either in a bad or an indifferent sense; it is commonly resorted to by tale-bearers, mischief-makers, and all who want to talk of more than they know. To suggest is oftener used in the good than the bad sense: as to suggest doubts, queries, difficulties, or improvements in matters of opinion, is truly laudable, particularly for young persons; but to suggest anything to the disadvantage of another is even worse than to speak ill of him openly, for it bespeaks cowardice as well as ill-nature. To intimate is taken
either in a good or an indifferent sense; it commonly passes between relatives or persons closely connected in the communication of their half-formed intentions or of douhtful intelligence; but to insinuate is always taken in a bad seuse; it is the resource of an artful and malignant enemy to wound the reputation of another, whom he does not dare openly to accuse. A person is said to take a hint, to follow a suggestion, to receive an intimation, to disregard an insinuation.
It is a mistake to imagine that creeds were, at first, intended to teach in full and explicit terms all that should be necessary to be believed by Christiana. They were designed rather for hinta and minutes of the main "credenda."

WATERLAND.
Avarice replied, that he looked upon Plenty (the first minister of his antagoniat) to be a much more destructive comsellor than Poverty, for that he was perpetually suggesting pleasures.

Addraon.
It was his saying, and it did lim no good, that he was none of the reptilia, intimating that he could not creep on the ground, and that the court was not hia element.

Naunton.
Let it not be thonght that what is here said $i n-$ ainuatea anything to the discredit of Greek and Latin criticiam.

Warburton.

## HIRELING, MERCENARY.

HIRELING, from hire, and MERCENARY, from merces, wages, are applied to any one who follows a sordid employment; but hireling may sometimes be taken in its proper and less reproachful sense, for one who is hired as a servant to perform an allotted work ; but in general they are both reproachful epithets: the former having particular reference to the meanness of the employment, and the latter to the sordid character of the person. Hireling prints are those which are in the pay of a party; a mercenary principle will sometimes actuate men in the highest station.
It was not his carrying the bag which made Jndas a inief and a hireling.

South.
These ooldiers were not citizens, but mercena$d$, sordid deaerters.

Buere.

## to hold, keer, detain, retain.

HOLD, Saxon healden, Teutonic, etc., holden, like the Greek $\kappa \omega \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega} \omega$, comes from the Hebrew col, to restrain. KEEP comes in all probability, like the Latin capio, to any hold of, from the Hebrew caph, the
hollow of the hand. DETAIN and RE TAIN both come from the Latin teneo, to hold; the first signifies, by virtue of the particle de, to hold from another; the second, by virtne of the particle re, to hold back for one's self.

To hold is a physical act; it requires a degree of bodily strength, or at least the use of the limbs; to keep is simply to have by one at one's pleasure. The having in one's power so that it shall not go is the leading idea in the signification of hold; the durability of having is the leading idea in the word keep: we may hold a thing only for a moment; but what we keep we keep for a time. On the other hand, we may keep a thing by holding, although we may keep it by various other means: we may therefore hold without keeping, and we may keep without holding. A servant holds a thing in his hand for it to be seen, but he does not keep it; he gives it to his master, who puts it into his pocket, and consequently keeps, but does not hold it. A thing may be held in the hand, or kept in the hand; in the former case, the pressure of the hand is an essential part of the action, but in the latter case it is simply a contingent part of the action: the hand holds, but the person keeps it. What is held is fixed in position, but what is kept is left loose, or otherwise, at the will of the individual. Things are held by men in their hands, by beasts in their claws or mouths, by birds in their beaks; things are kepi by perple either about their persons or in their houses, according to convenience.
France, thou mayst hold a serpent by the tongue, A fasting tiger safer by the tooth
Than keep in peace that hand which thon dost hold.

Shakgpeare.
Detain and retain are modes of keeping; the former siguifies keeping back what belongs to another; the latter sig nifies keeping a long time for one's own purpose. A person may be either held, kept, detained, or retained: when he is held, he is held contrary to his will by the hand of another; as suspected persons are held by the officers of justice, that they may not make their escape: he is kept, if he stops in any place, by the desire of another; as a man is kept in prison until his innocence is proved; or a child is kept at schọol, until he has fin
ished his education: 'hs is detained if he be kept away from any place to which he is going, or from any person to wbom be belongs; as the servant of another is detained to take back a letter; or one is detained by business, so as to be prevented attending to an appointment: a person is retained who is kept for a continuance in the service of another; as some servants are said to be retained, while othars are dismissed.

Too late it was for satyr to be told Or aver hopa recover her again : In vain ho saeks, that having cannot hold.

Spenser.
That I mey know whet keepa yon here with me.
Daynen.
He has described the passion of Calypso, and the indecent adrences she made to detaln him from his country.

Bbowne.
Heving the address to retain the conquast sha had made, she kept possession of his love without any rival for many years.

Robebtaon.
Thinge are held in the improper sense : they are kept, detained, and retained in the proper sense. A money-londer holds the property of others in pledge; the idea of a temporary and partial action is here axpressad by hold, in distinction from keeg, which is used to express somathing definite and permanent; the money-lender keeps the property as his DWמ, if the borrower forfeits it by breach of contraot. When a person purchases anything, he is expected to keep it, or pay the value of the thing ordered, if the tradesman fulfil his part of the sngagement. What is detained is kept either contrary to the will, or without the consent, of the possessor: when things are suspected to be stolen, the officers have the right of detaining them until inquiry be instltuted. What is retained is continued to be kept ; it supposes, however, some alteration in the terms or circumstances under which it is kept: a person retains his seat in a coach, notwithstandlng he finds it disagreeable: or a lady retains some of the articles of millinery, which are sent for her choice, but sbe raturns the rest.

Assuredly it is more shame for a man to lose that which he holdeth than to fail in gatting that which he never had.

HAYWARD,
This charge I keep until my appointed day Of rendering up.

Milton.
Haste ! godiess, haste ! the flying host detain, Nor let one sail be hoisted on the main. Pope.

Let me retains
Tha name and all th' addition to a king.
Shakapearen
All are used in a moral application ex. cept detcin; in this case they are marked by a similar distinction, A person is said to hold an office, by which simple possession is implied; he may hold it for a long or a short time, at the will of others, or by his own will, which are not marked: he keeps a situation, or he keeps his post, by which his continuance in the situation, or at the pest, are denoted: but to say he retains bis office, signifies that he might have given it up, or lost it, had he not been led to continus in it. In like manner, with regard to one's sentlments or feelings, a man is said to hold certain opinions, which are ascribed to him as a part of his creed; he keeps the opinions whlch no one can induos him to give up; he retains his old attachments, notwithstandiug the lapse of years and change of circumstances which have intorvened, and were naturally oalculated to wean him from them.

It if a certain sign of a wise government, whan it can hold men's hearts by hopes. BaOon,

The proof is best whan men keep their authority toward their children, but not their parse, Bloon.
Ideas are retained by renovation of that impression which tima is always wearing away.

Johnaon.

## TO HOLD, OCCUPY, POREEGS.

HOLD, v. To hald. OCCUPY, in Latin occupo, or oc and capio, to hold or keep, so that it cannot be held by others, or fill a space, so that it cannot be filled by any other object, POSSESS, in Latln possideo, or potis and sedeo, signifiss to sit as master of,

We hold a thing for a long or a short time; we occupy it for a permanence: we hold it for ourselves or others; we occupy it only for ourselves: we hold it for various purposes; we occupy only for the purpose of converting it to our private use. Thus a person may hold an estate, or, which is the same thing, the title-deeds to an estate, pro tempore, for another person's benefit; but he occupies an estate if he enjoys the fruit of it. On the other hand, to occupy is only to hold under a certain compact; but to possess is to hold as one's own. The tenant oo-
rupies the farm when he holds it by a certain lease, and cultivates it for his subsistence: but the landlord possesses the farm, possessing the right to let it, and to receive the rent. We may hold by force, or fraud, or right; we oocupy either by force or right; we possess only by right.
He (the eagle) drives tham from bls fort, the towaring seat,
For ages, of his empire, which in peace Unstain'd he holds.

Thombon.
If the title of occupier be good in a land unpeopled, why should it be bad accounted in a conntry peopled thinly ?

Raleioh.
But now the feather'd youth their former bounds Ardent disdain, and, weighing oft thair wings, Damad the frea possession of the aky.

Thombon.
Hence we say, figuratively, to hold a person in esteem or contempt, to occupy a person's attention or a place, or to possess one's affection.

I, as a stranger to my heart and me, Hold thee from this forever.

Shakapeane.
Ha must assert infinite generations before that first deluge, and then the earth could not receive them, but the infinite bodies of men must accupy an infinite space.

Bentley.
Of fortune's favor long possesg' $d$, Hie was in one fair daughter only bless'd.

Dhtien.

## TO HOLD, SUPPORT, MAINTAIN.

HOLD (v. To hold, keep) is here, as in the former article, a term of very general inport. SUPPORT (v. Tb countenance) and MAINTAIN ( $v$. To assist, maintain) include the idea of holding with other collateral ideas in their signification.

Hold and support are employed in the proper sense, maintain in the improper sense. To hold is a term unqualified by any circumstance; we may hold a thing in any direction, hold it up or down, in a straight or oblique direction : support is a species of holding up; to hold up, however, is a personal act, or a direct effort of the individual; to support may be an indirect and a passive act ; he who holds anything up keeps it in an upright posture by the exertion of his strength; be who supports a thing only bears its weight, or suffers it to rest upon himself : persons or voluntary agents can hold up; inanimate objects may support: a servant holds up a child that it may see; a plliar supports a building.

Oh who can hold a fire in his hand
By thinking on the frosty Cancasus?
Shakefearin
Man, like the gen'roas vine, supported lives, The strength he gains is from the embrace he gives.

Popr.
In the figurative application a person is said to hold power for himself, hut to support the authority of another, or to have one's own mind supported by circumstances or reflections. To maintain is to hold firmly or with vigor.

The naurpation which, in order to aubvert ancient institutions, has destroyed ancient principles, will hold power hy arts similar to those by which it has acquired it.

Buree.
Nothing can support the minds of the guilty from drooping.
Who than is free? The wise, who well maintaine
An empire o'er himself.
Francis.
These terms are all applied to the opin. ions with a similar distinction. Opinions are held and maintained as one's own, they are supported when they are another's. We hold and maintain whatever we believe. We support the belief or doctrine of another, or what we ourselves have asserted and maintained at a former time. What is held is held by the act of the mind within itself, and as regards itself, without reference to others; but what is maintained and supported is openly declared to be held; it is maintained with others or against others; it is supported in an especial manner against others; it may be maintained by simple declaration or assertions; it is supported by argument.

It was a notable observation of a wise father, that those which held and persuaded pressure of consciences were commonly interested therein themselves for their own ends.

Bacon.
If any man of quality will maintain upon Edward Earl of Glo'ster that he is a manlfold traitor, let him appear.

Shakapeare.
He sugoported. the motion for the council of trade, in opposition to the court. Buanet.

What is held may he held by means of the affection, as to hold a person dear, or hold a thing in esteem; to maintain and support are applied only to speculative matters with which the understanding is engaged, as to maintain or support truth or error, to maintain or support a cause.

As Chancer is the father of English poetry, so I hold him in the same degree of veneration as
the Grecians held Homer, and the Romans Virgil.

Pope.

## HOLINESS, SANCTITY.

HOLINESS, which comes from the Northern languages, has altogether acquired a Christian significatiou; it respects the life and temper of a Christian. SANCTITY, which is derived from the Latin sanctus and sanctio, to sanction, has merely a moral signification, which it derives from the sanction of human authority.

Holiness is to the mind of a man what sanctity is to his exterior; with this difference, that holiness to a certain degree ought to belong to every man professing Christianity; but sanctity, as it lies in the manners, the outward garb, and deportment, is becoming only to certain persons, and at certain times. Holiness is a thing not to be affected; but sanctity, consisting in externals, is from its very nature exposed to falsehood. It is becoming those who fill a sacred office, but not otherwise.

Habitual preparation for the sacrament consists in a permanent habit or principle of holiness.

SOCTH.
About an age ago, it was the fashion in England for every one that would be thought relig. ious to throw as much sanctity as possible into his face.

AdDison.

## HOLLOW, EMPTY.

HOLLOW, from hole, signifying like a hole, respects the body itself; the absence of its own materials produces hollowness. EMPTY (v. Empty) respects foreign bodies; their absence in another body constitutes emptiness. Hollowness is therefore a preparative to emptiness, and may exist independently of it; but emptiness presupposes the existence of hollowness: what is empty must be hollow; but what is hollow need not be empty. Hollowness is often the natural property of a body; emptiness is a contingent property: that which is hollow is destined by nature to contain; but that which is empty is deprived of its contents by a casualty: a nut is hollow for the purpose of receiving the fruit; it is empty if it contain no fruit.

They are beth employed in a moral acceptation, and in a bad sense; the hollow, in this case, is applied to what ought to be colid or sound, and empty to what
ought to be filled; a person is hollons whose goodness lies only at the surface, whose fair words are without meaning $;$ a truce is hollow which is only an exter. nal cessation from hostilities: a person is empty who is without a requisite portion of understanding and knowledge; an excuse is empty which is unsupported by fact and reason; a pleasure is emply which cannot afford satisfaction.

He seem'd
For dignity compos'd, and high exploit,
But all was false and hollow.
Minton.
The creature man,
Condemn'd to sacrifice his childish years
To babbling ignorance and empty fears. Phior.

## HOLY, PIOUS, DEVOUT, RELIGIOUS.

HOLY, v. Holiness. PIOUS, in Latin pius, which is most probably changed from dizus or deus, signifies having a regard for the gods. DEVOUT, in Latin devotus, from devoveo, to engage by a vow, signifies devoted or consecrated. RELIGIOUS, in Latin religiosus, comes from religio and religo, to bind, because religion binds the mind, and produces in it a fixed principle.

A strong regard to the Supreme Being is expressed by all tbese epithets; but holy conveys the most comprehensive idea; pious and devout designate most fervor of mind; religious is the most general and abstract in its signification. A holy man is in all respects beavenly. minded; he is more fit for beaven than earth: holiness, to whatever degree it is possessed, abstracts the thoughts from sublunary objects, and fixes them on things that are above. Our Saviour was a perfect pattern of holiness; his apostles after him, and innumerable saints and good men, both in and out of the ministry, have striven to imitate his example, by the holiness of their life and conversation.

The holiest man, by conversing with the world, insensibly draws something of soil and taint from it. Souta.
Pious is a term more restricted in its signification, and consequently more extended in application than holy: piety is not a virtue peculiar to Christians, it is common to all believers in a Supreme Being; it is the homage of the heart and the affections to a superior Being : from
ts similarity in the relationship between a heavenly and an earthly parent, devotedness of the mind has in both cases been denominated piety. Piety toward God naturally produces piety to ward parents; for the obedience of the heart, which gives rise to the virtue in the one case, seems instantly to dictate the exercise of it in the other. The difference between holiness and piety is obvious from this, that our Saviour and his apostles are characterized as holy, but not pious, because piety is swallowed up in holiness. On the other hand, Jew and Gentile, Christian and Heathen, are alike termed pious, when they cannot be called holy, because piety is not only a more practicable virtue, but because it is more universally applicable to the dependent condition of man.

In every age the practice has prevailed of substituting certain appearances of piety in the place of the great duties of humanity and mercy.

Blaik.
Devotion is a species of piety peculiar to the worshipper; it bespeaks that devotedness of mind which displays itself in the temple, when the individual seems by his outward services solemnly to devote himself, soul and body, to the service of his Maker. Piety, therefore, lies in the heart, and need not appear externally; but devotion requires to be marked by some external observance: a man pionsly resigns himself to the will of God in the midst of his afflictions; he prays devoutly in the bosom of his family.

> A state of temperance, sobriety, and justice, without devotion, is a lifeless, insipid condition of virtue.
> ADDIson.

Religious is a term of less import than either of the other terms; it denotes litthe more than the simple existence of religion, or a sense of religion in the mind: the religious man is so, more in his principles than in his affections; he is relig. ious in his sentiments, inasmuch as he directs all his views according to the will of his Maker; and he is religious in his conduct, inasmuch as he observes the outward formalities of homage that are due to his Maker.

A man should be religious, not superstitions.
Addison.

When applied to things, these terms preserve a similar distinction: we speak of the holy sacrament; of a pious discourse, a pious ejaculation; of a devous exercise, a devout air; a religious sentiment, a religious life, a religious education, and the like.

Devotion expresses not so much the performance of any particnlar duty, as the spirit which must animate all religio $u_{8}$ duties.

Blala.

## HOLY, SACREL DIVINE.

HOLY (v. Holiness) is here, as in the former article, a term of higher import than either SACRED, which is in Latin sacer, or DIVINE (v. Godlike). Whatever is most intimately connected with religion and religious worship, in its purest state, is holy, unhallowed by a mixture of inferior objects, and elevated in the greatest possible degree, so as to suit the nature of an infinitely perfect and exalted Being. Among the Jews, the holy of holies was that place which was intended to approach the ncarest to the heavenly abode, consequently was preserved as much as possible from all contamination with that which is earthly: among the Christians, that religion or form of religion is termed holy which is esteemed purest in its doctrine, discipline, and ceremonies.

To fit us for a due access to the holy Sacrament, we most add actual preparation to habitual.

Soute.
Sacred is less than noly; the sacred derives its sanction from human institutions, and is connected rather with our moral than our religious duties; what is holy is altogether spiritual. and abstract. ed from the earthly. The laws are sacred, but not holy; a man's word should be sacred, though not holy: for neither of these things is to be reverenced, but both are to be kept free from injury or external violence. The holy is not so much opposed to, as it is set akove, ev. erything else; the sacred is opposed to the profane: the Scriptures are properly denominated holy, because they are the word of God, and the fruit of his Holy Spirit; but other writings may be termed sacred which appertain to religion, in dis. tinction from the profane, which apper tain only to worldly mattere.

Keligton properly consists in a reverential esteem of things sacred.

Sodtre.
Divine is $\Rightarrow$ term of even less import than sacred; it signifies either belang. ing to a deity, or being like a deity; but from the looseness of its application it has lost in some respeots the dignity of its meaning. The divine is often contrasted with the human: but there are many human things which are denominated divine: Milton's poem is entitled a divine poem, not merely on account of the subject, but from the exalted manner in which the poet has treated his subject: what is divine, therefore, may be so superlatively excellent ss to be conceived of as having the stamp of inspiration from the Deity, which, of course, as it respects human performsnces, is but a hyperbolical mode of speech.

When a man resteth and assureth himself upon divine protection, he gathereth a force and faith which human nature in itself conld not obtain.

Bacon.

## HOMAGE, FEALTY, COURT.

HOMAGE, in French hommage, comes from homme, a man, signifying a man's, that is, an inferior's, act of acknowledging superiority. Homage, in the technical sense, was sn oath taken, or a service performed, by the tenant to his lord, on being admitted to his land; or by inferior princes to a sovereign, whereby they acknowledged his sovereignty, and prom. ised fidelity: in its extended and figurative sense, it comprehends sny solemn mark of deference, by which the superiority of snother is acknowledged, FEAL. TY, from the Norman feal, loyal, trusty, is a lower species of homage, consisting only of sn oath; it was made formerly by tenants, who were bound thereby to personal service under the feudal system. COURT, which derives its meaning from the verb to court, woo, snd seek favor, is a species of homage, complaisance, or deference, which is assumed for 2 specific purpose; it is not only voluncery, but depends upon the humor and convenience of the courter.

Homage is paid or done to superior endowments; court is paid to the contingent, not the real, superiority of the individual. Fealty is figuratively employed in the sense of fidelity to one's sovereign.

Homage conslsts in any form of respect which is admitted in civil society; the Romans did hamage to the tslents of Vir gil, by always rising when he entered the thestre; men do hamage to the wisdom of snother, when they do not venture to oontradict his assertions, or call in question his opinions. Court is everything or nothing, as circumstances require; he who psys his court consults the will and humor of him to whom it is paid, while he is consulting bis own interest.
We cannot aroid observing the homage wbich the world is constrained to pay to virtue. Blair. Man disobeying,
Disloyal breaks his fealty. Milutox.
Virtue is the universal charm; even its shad. ow is courted. BIALR

## HONESTY, PROBITY, UPRIGHTNESS, INTEGRITY.

HONESTY (v. Fair) is the most fsmilisr and universal term; it is applied alike to actions and principles, to a mode of conduct or a temper of mind: a person may be honest, a principle honest, or an action honest; the other terms sre applied to the person, ss a person of probity, uprightness, and integrity: a man is said to be honest who, in his dealings with others, does not violate the laws; a servant is honest who does not take any of the property of his master, or suffer it to be tsken; a trsdesmsn is honest who does not sell bad srticles; snd people in genersl are denominated honest who pay what they owe, and do not adopt any methods of defrauding others.
The blunt, honest humor of the Germans sounds better in the roughness of the high Dutch, than it would in a politer tongue.

Aphison.
Honesty is a negative virtue, sll the other terms denote positive virtues and higher characteristics. PROBITY, from probus, good, and probo, to prove, signifying tried virtue or solid goodness, is applied not merely to the commerclal dealings of men, but to sll the concerns of life, where truth snd goodness are called into exercise. Probity respects the rights of men, giving to every one his due, whether as regards his property, reputstion, honor, or any other thing on which a val. ue is set. Honesty is opposed to direct
fraud, probity to any specles of insincarity.
A compliment, ss far as it deserves to be practised by a man of probity, is only the most civil and obilging way of saying what you mean.

Atterbuby.
UPRIGBTNESS, from upright or $u p$ and right, signifies bearing up in e strsight and underiating course in opposition to every termptation which may offer. Up. righthess, therefore, supposes sn independent and positite principle which forms tha rule of life. A person may be ssid to be upright in all situations where confidence and intelligence are required, but more particularly to a judge who scrupulously adheres to the dictates of an unblassed consolence.
The steward, whose account is clear, Demends his honor thay appear ; His actions never shun the light;
Ha is, and would be, prov'd upright.
Gax.
INTEGRITY, from integer, whole or sound, slignifying soundness of principle, is applied, like uprightness, to cases where \& psiticular trust is reposed; but integrity is taken sbsolutely, thst is, without any reference to the outward circumstances which might tend to produce the contrary charscteristic. He who faithfully discharges his truist, and consults the interests of others rsther than his own, is justly styled a man of integrity. This virtue is to be looked for especially in those who fill any office.

He disoharged all the offices he went through with great abilities and a singular reputation of integrity.

Ctateridon.

## HONESTY, HONOR.

Thess terms both respect the princlple which actustes men in the adjustment of thair rights with each other. The words are both derived from the ssme source, namely, the Hebrew hon, substance or wealth ( $v$. Honesty), whlib, being the primitive source of esteem among men, becsme st length put for the measure or standard of esteem, namely, what is good. Hence HONESTY sid HONOR are both founded upon what is estimable; with this differenice, that honesty is confined to the first principles or laws upon which civil society is founded, and honor is an independent principle that extends to evervthing whith by ussge has been sdmit-
ted as astimable or entitled to esteem. An honest action, therefore, csan never reflect so much credit on the sgent as an honorable sction, since in the performsnce of the one he may be guided by motlves comparatively low, wheress in the other cose he is actuated solely by a fair regard for the honor or the esteem of others. To a breach of honesty is attached punishment snd personal inconvenience in various forms; but to a bresch of honor is annexed only disgrace or the ill opinion of others. On the other hand, since honesty is founded on the very first principles of human society, and honor on the incidental principles which have been annexed to them in the progress of time and culture; the former is positive and definite, and he who is actuated by this prinoiple can never err; but the latter is indefinite snd vsrisble, and, as it depends upon opinlon, it will essily mislead. We cannot have a false honesty, but we may have false honor. Honesty always kseps a msn within the line of his duty; but s mistsken notion of what is honorable may csrry a msn very far from what is right, and msy even lead him to run counter to common honesty.

Honesty, in the language of the Romans, as well as in French, rather aigniffes a composition of those quailties which generally acquire honor and esteem to those who possess them. Temple. With breathing hrass to kindie flerce alarms, And rouse to dare their fate in honorable arms. Daxden.

TO HONOR, REVERENCE, RESPECT.
These terms agree in expressing the act of an inferior towsrd his superior; but HONOR ( $v$. Clory) expresses less than REVERENCE (v. To adore), and more than RESPECT ( $v$. To esteem).
To honor is only an outward act; to reverence is either an act of the mind, or the outward expression of a sentiment; to respect is mostly an act of the mind, though it may admit of being expressed by some outward sct. We honor God by adoration and worship, ss well ss by the performsuce of his will; we honor our parents by obeying them and giving them our personsl service: we reverence our Maker by cherishing in our miods a dreed of offending him, sad msking a fesrful use of his holy name and word: we rew
orene our parents by holding a similar sentiment in a less degree.
This (honoring parents) is a duty io the fifth commandment required toward our prince and our parent: a respect which in the notion of it implies a mixture of love and fear, and in the object equally supposes goodness and power.

Rogerb.
The foundation of every proper disposition toward God must be laid in reverence, that is, admiration mixed with awe.

Bialf.
Establish your character on the respect of the wise, not on the flattery of depeadeats. Blair.

To honor, whea applied to thiags, is taken in the sease of holdiag in honor; and respect, to have respect toward, witb the same distinction between them.
Of learning, as of virtue, it may be affirmed that it is at oace honored and neglected.

Jobnson.
The blest gods do not love
Ungodly actions, but respect the right, And in the works of pious men delight.

Crapman.

## HONOR, DIGNITY.

HONOR (v. Honor) may be taken either for that which intrinsically belongs to a person, or for that which is coaferred on him. DIGNITY, from the Latio dignus, worthy, signifying worthiness, may be equally applied to what is extriasic or intriosic in a man.

In the first case honor has a reference to what is esteemed by others; dignity to that which is csteemed by ourselves: a sense of honor impels a man to do that which is esteemed honorable among men; a sease of dignity to do that which is coosistent with the worth and greatuess of his nature: the former impels a man to elevate himself as an individual; the latter to raise himself to the standard of his species: the former may lead a person astray; hut the latter is an unerring guide. It is honor which makes a man draw his sword upon his friead: it is dignity which makes him despise every paltry affront from others, and apologize for every apparent affront on his own part. This distinction betweea the terms is kept up in their application to what is extraoeous of a man: honor is that which is conferred on him by others; but dignity is the worth or value which is added to his condition : hence we always speak of honors as conferred or received; but digaities as possesacd or maintaiaed. Honors
may sometimes be casual ; but dignities are always permanent : ac act of condesceasion from the sovereign is an honor; but the dignity is that which exalts the man. Hence it is that honors are mostly civil or political; dignities may also be ecclesiastical.

When a proud, aspiring man meets with honor and preferments, these are the things which are ready to lay hold of his heart and affections.

South.
Him Tullus next in dignity succeeds. Dryden.

## HOPE, EXPECTATION, TRUST, CONFIDENCE.

Anticipation of futurity is the common idea expressed by all these words. HOPE, in Saxoa hopian, Dutch hoopen, is in all probability derived from the same root as the Greek onevw, to look at with pleas. ure. Hope is that which is welcome; EXPECTATION (v. To await) is either welcome or uawelcome: we hope only for that which is good; we expect the bad as well as the good. In bad weather we hope it will soon be better; but in a bad season we expect a bad harvest, and in a good season a good harvest. Hope is simply a preseotiment; it may vary io degree, more according to the temper of the mind than the nature of the circumstances; some hope where there is no ground for hope, and others despair where they might hope. expectation is a conviction that excludes doubt; we expect in proportion as that conviction is positive: we hope that which may be or can possibly be; we expect that which must be or which ought to be. The young man hopes to live many years; the old man expects to die in a few years.
Regions of sorrow, doleful shades, where peace And rest call never dwell; hope never comes, That comes to all.
All these within the dongeon's depth remain, Despairing pardon, aad expecting pain.

Dryden.
Hope and expectation consist in looking for some good, TRUST ( $v$. Belief) and CONFIDENCE (v. To confide) in a dependence on a person or thiog to briag about the good. We may, therefore, have either hope or expectation grounded on trust or confidence, or we may bave them where there is no room for either trust or confidence; a person may hope that
something good may turn up becanse the future is uncertain; we may expect that it will rain to-day; a person may trust to the skill of another, or confide in hia promises. Trust and confidence denote the same aentiment, but trust ia applied to objects generally, confidence to particular objecta; we may trust partially, but we confide entirely; we may trust strangera, we confide in friends or those we are partial to.
I am not settled yet in any stable coudition, but lie wind-bound in the cape of good hope, seopeoting some gentle gale to launch out into an omployment.

Howell.
Our conntry's gods, in whom our trust we place.
Dryden.
So Eden was a scene of harmless sport Where kindness on his part who ruled the whole Begat a tranquil confidence in all. Cowpen.

Trust and confidence may both be applicd to a man's self, or that which belongs to him, with a aimilar distioction.
They trust in armies, and their courage dies, In wisdom, wealth, in fortune, and iu lies. But all they trust in withers, as it must, When he commands, in whom they put no trust. Cowpea. Hls pride
Humbled by such rebuke, so far beneath
His confidence to equal God in pow'r. Milton.

## HOT, FIERY, BURNING, ARDENT.

These terms characterize either the presence of heat or the canse of heat. HOT, in German heiss, Latin cestus, from the Hebrew ash, fire, is the general term which marks simply the presence of heat; FIERY, $i$. e., having fire, goee further, it denotes the presence of fire which is the canse of heat; BURNING, i.e., in a state of burning, denotes the action of fire, and consequently is more expressive than the two; ARDENT (v. Fervor), which is literally the aame in signification, is employed either in poetry or in application to moral objects: a room is hot; a furnace or the tail of a comet fiery; a coal burning; the sun ardent.

In the figurative application, a temper ia said to be hot or fiery; rage is burning; the mind is ardent in pursuit of an object. Zeal may be hot, fiery, burning, and ardent; but in the first three cases it denotes the intemperance of the mind when heated by religion or politics; the latter is admissible so long as it is confined to a good object.

Let loose the raging elements. Breath'd hot From all the boundless furnace of the sky, And the wide, glittering waste of burning sand A suffocating wind the pilgrim smites With instant death.

Thomson
E'en the camel feels,
Shot through his wither'd heart, the fiery blast.
THomson.
The royal eagle draws his vigorous young, Strong pounc'd, and ardent with paternal fire.

Thomson
HOWEVER, YET, NEVELRTHELESS, NOTWITESTANDING.
These conjunctiona are in grammar termed adversative, becanse they join sentences together that stand more or less in opposition to each other. HOW. EVER is the most general and indefinite; it servea aa a concluaive dednction drawn from the whole. "The truth is, however, not yet all come ont;" by this is nnderstood that much of the truth has been told, and much yet remains to be told: so likewise in similar aentences; "I am not, however, of that opinion;" where it is implied either that many hold the opinion, or much may be said of it, but be that as it may, I am not of that opinion: "howo. ever, you may rely on my assistance to that amount;" that is, at all events, let whatever happen, yon may rely on so much of my assistance: however, as is obvious from the above examples, connects not only one single proposition, but many propositions either expressed or understood. YET, NEVERTHELESS, and NOTWITHSTANDING, are mostly employed to set two specific propositions either in contrast or direct opposition to each other ; the latter two are bnt species of the former, pointing out the opposition in a more specific manner.

There are cases in which yet is peculiarly proper ; others in which nevertheless, and others in which notwithstanding is preferable. Yet bespeaks a simple contrast; "Addison was not a good speaker, yet he was an admirable writer; Johnson was a man of uncouth manners, yet he had a good heart and a sound head;" nevertheless and notwithetanding conld not in these cases have been substituted. Nevertheless and notwithstanding are mostly used to imply effects or consequences opposite to what might naturally be expected to result. "He has acted an unworthy part; never. theless'I will be a friend to him as far as

## HUMBLE

[ can ;" that is, although he has acted an unworthy part, I wlll be no less his friend aa far as lies in my power, "Notwithstanding all I have aaid, he still persiats in his own imprudent conduct;" that is, all I have said notwithstanding or not restraining him from it, hee still persists. "He is still rich notwithstanding his loss;" that is, his loss notwithstanding, or not standing in the way of it, he ia still rich. From this resolution of the terms, more than from any specific rule, we may judge of thair distinct applications, and clearly perceive that in auch cases as thoae above cited the conjunctions nevertheless and notwithstanding could not be aubstituted for each other, nor yet for either: in other casea, however, where the objocta are leas definitely pointed out, they may be used indiffereutly. "The Jesuits piqued themselves always upon their atrict morality, and yet (notwithstanding or nevertheless) they admltted of many things not altogether consonant with moral principle. You know that these are but tales, yet (hotwithstanding, nevertheless) you believe them."

Howener, it is put just somatimes to give the world a representation of the hright side of hnman mature.

HyOHEs.
He had not that reverence for the quesn as might have heen sxpected from a man of his wisdom and breeding; yet he was Impertinently golicitous to know what har majesty said of him In private.

Clarenion.
Thare will always be something that we shall wish to have finished, and be nevertheless unwilling to begln.

Johnson.
Notwithstanding there ls sach infinte room between man and bis Maker for the crestiva powep to exert itself in, it is impossible that it should evęp be filled up.

Adplison.

## HUMAN, HUMANE.

Thounn both derlved from homo, a man, they are thua far distinguiahed that HOMAN is aaid of the genus, and HUMANE of the specles. The human race or human beinge are opposed to the ircational part of the creation; a humane race or a humane individual la opposed to one that is cruel and fond of inflicting pain. He who is not human ls divested of the firat and distinguishing characteriatics of his klad; he who is not humane, of the most important and elevated characterlstic that belongs to his nature.

Christianity has rescued human nature from that ignominipus yoke under which in former times the one-half of mankind groaned.' BLarr, Life, fill'd with grief's distressfuil train, Forever asks the tear humane. Lasoновne.

## HUMBLE, LOWLY, LOW.

HUMBLE (v. Humble, modest) is here compared with the other terms as it reapects both persons and things, A pergon ia said to be humble on account of the state of his mind: he is said to be LOWLY and LOW either on account of his mind or hia outward circumstances. A humble peraon is so in his principles and in his conduct; a lowly person ia ao in the tone of his feelinga, or in his atation and walk of life; a low person is so either in his aentiments, in his actions, or in his rank and condition; but persons may aometimes be low from particular circumstances who are not low in condition. Humility should form a part of the character, as it is opposed to arrogance and assumption; it la most con. gistent with the fallibility of our nature: Lowliness should form a part of our temper, as it is opposed to an aapiring and lofty mind ; it is most consistent with the temper of our Saviour, who was meek and lowly of mind.
sleep is a god too proud to walt in palacea, And yat so humble too as not to scorn The mssnest country cottages.

Cowhry.
Where purple violsts lark,
With all the lowiy children of the slyade.
тномяом.
The humble and lowly are alwayg taken in a good aense; but the low either in a bad or an indifferent sense, A lonyly man, whether as it respeots his mind or his condition, is so without any moral de hasement; but a man who is low in his condition is likewise conceived to be lone in his habits and his sentiments, whioh is being near akin to the vicious. The same distinction is preserved in applying these terms to inanimate or spiritual objeets. A humble roof, a humble offige, a humble atation, are associated with the highest moral worth; whlle a low office, a lone situation, a low birth, seem to ex. olude the idea of worth.
The example of the heavaniy larre, Thy fellow-poet, Cowley, mark ;
Above the skies let thy proud masic sound, Thy humble nest build mpon the ģrand,

Cowper

## HUMBLE

To be worst, Tha loweat, most dejected thing of fortune, Stands still in asperance.

## HUMBLE, MODEST, SUBMISSIVE.

Trese terms designate a temper of mind the reverse of self-conceit or pride. The HOMBLE, in Latin humilis, low, trom humus, the ground, stgnifying the lowest position, is so with regard to ourselves or others. MODESTY (v. Modest) is that which respects ourselves only: BUBMISSIVENESS, from submissus, sig. nifying put under, is that which respects others. A man is humble from a sense of his comparative inferiority to others In point of station and outward circumstances; or he is humble from a sense of his imperfections, and a consciousness of not being what he ought to be: be is modest, inasmuch as he sets but little value on his qualifications, acquirements, and endowments. Humility ls a painful gentiment; for when it respects others it is coupled with fear, when it respects our own unworthiness it is coupled with sorrow: modesty is a peaceful sentiment; It serves to keep the whole mind in due bounds. When humility and modesty show themselves in the outward conduct, the former bows itself down, the latter shrinks : a humble man gives freely to others from a sense of their desert; a modest man demands nothing for himself, from an unconsciousness of desert in himself.

In God's hely hoasa 1 prostrate myself in the kumblest and decentest way of genuflection I can imagine.

Howsll.
Sedition Itself is modest in the dawn, and only toleration may be petitienad whera nething less than empirc is designed.

SOUTH.
Between humble and submissive there is this prominent feature of distinction, that the former marks a temper of mind, the latter a mode of action: the former is therefore often the cause of the latter, but not so always; we may be submissive because we are hwmble; but we may likewise be submissive from fear, from interested motives, from necessity, from duty, and the like: and on the other hand, we may be humble without being submissive, when we are not brought into connection with others. A man is humble in his closet whem he takes a review of his
sinfulness: he is submissive to a mastet whose displeasure he dreads.

She should be humble who would please, And she must suffic whe can love. Pearer.
And potent rajahs, whe themselves preside
O'er realms of wide extent! Bnt here submig. side
Their homage pay 1 alternate kings and slaves !
Somerville.

## TO HUMBLE, HUMILIATE, DEGIADE,

HUMBLE aud HUMILIATE are both drawn from the same source ( $v$. Humble, modest). DEGRADE, v. To abase.

Humble is commonly used as the act either of persons or things: a person may lumble himself or he may be humbled: humiliate is employed to characterize thiogs; a thing is humiliating or a humiliation. No man humbles himself by the acknowledgment of a fault; but it is a great humiliation for a person to be dependent on another for a living when he has it in his power to obtain it for himsclf.

Deep horror seizes ev'ry human breast, Their pride is humbled, and their fear confess'd, DRYDEN.
A long habit of humiliation does net seem a vary goed preparative to manly and vigorous sentiments.

Burke.
To humble is to bring down to the ground; it supposes a certain eminence, either created by the mind, or really existing in the outward circumstaaces; to degrade is to set down lower; it supposes steps for ascending or descending. He who is most elevated in his own esteem may be most humbled; misfortunes may humble the proudest conqueror: he who is most elevated in the esteem of others may be the most degraded; envy is ever on the alert to degrade. A lesson in the school of adversity is humbling to one who has known nothing but prosperity: terms of peace are humiliating: low vices are peculiarly degrading to a man of rank.

The mistress of the world, the seat of empire, The nurse of herges, the delight of gods, That $h u m b l e d$ the proud tyrants of the earth.

Addison.
Who but a tyrant (a name expressive of everything which can vitiate and degrade homan nature) conld think of seizing on the property of men maccused and unheard ?

Burks

## HUMOR, TEMPER, MOOD.

HUMOR literally signifies moisture or fluid, in which sense it is used for the fluids of the human body; and as far as these humors or thelr particular state is connected with, or has its influence on, the animal spirits and the moral feelings, so far is humor applicable to moral agents. TEMPER (v. Disposition) is less specific in its signification; it may with equal propriety, under the changed form of temperament, be applicable to the general state of the body or the mind. MOOD, which is but a change from mode or manner, has an original signification not less indefinite than the former; it is applied, however, only to the mind. As the hunors of the body are the most variable parts of the animal frame, humor in regard to the mind denotes but a partial and transitory state when compared with the temper, which is a general and habitual state. The humor is so fluctuating that it varies in the same mind perpetually; but the temper is so far confined that it always shows itself to be the same whenever it shows itself at all: the humor makes a man different from himself; the temper makes him different from others. Hence we speak of the humor of the moment; of the temper of youth or of old age: so likewise we say, to accommodate one's self to the $h u$ mor of a person; to manage his temper: to put one into a certain humor; to correct or sour the temper. Humor is not less partial in its nature than in its duration; it fixes itself often on only one object, or respects only one particular direction of the feelings: temper extends to all the actions and opinions as well as feelings of a man : it gives a coloring to all he says, does, thinks, and feels. We may be in a humor for writing or reading; for what is gay or what is serious; for what is noisy or what is quiet: but our temper is discoverable in our daily conduct; we may be in a good or ill humor in company, but in domestic life and in our closest relations we show whether we are good or ill tempered. A man shows his humor in different or trifling actions; he shows his temper in the most important actions: it may be a man's humor to sit while others stand, or to
go unshaven while others shave; but he shows his temper as a Christian or otberwise in forgiving injuries or harboring resentments; in living peaceably, not indulging himself in contentions.
When I am in a serious humor, I very often walk by myself in Westminster Abbey, where the gloominess of the place, and the use to which is is applied, are apt to fill the mind with a kind of melancholy.

Speetator.
In the great articles of life, a man's convictions ought to be very atrong, and, if possible, ao well-timed that worldly advantages may have no share iu it (change of opinion), for mankind will be ill-natured enongh to think he does not change aides out of principle, but either out of levity of temper or prospects of interest.

Spectator.
When applied to bodies of men, humor, as denoting a temporary or fluctuating feeling, is more commonly used than temper.
Both Houses of Parliament seemed to have no eyes but for the dangers of popery, which humor was blown up by all the arts and intrigues of the Duke of Monmonth and Lord Shafteshnry.

Temple.
Humor and mood agree in denoting a particular and temporary state of feeling; but they differ in the cause: the former being attributable rather to the physical state of the body; and the latter to the moral frame of the mind; the former, therefore, is independent of all external circumstances, or at all events of any that are reducible to system; the latter is guided entirely by events, or the view which the mind takes of events. Humor is therefore generally taken in a bad sense, unless actually qualified hy some epithet to the contrary: mood is always taken in an indifferent sense. There is no calculating on the humor of a man ; it depends upon his mood whether he performs ill or well: it is necessary to suppress humor in a child; we discover by the melancholy mood of a man that something distressing has happened to him.

[^68]
## HURTFUL

mor may be good or bad; caprice is always taken in a bad sense. Humor is always independent of fixed principle; it is the feeling or impulse of the moment: caprice is always opposed to fixed principle, or rational motives of acting; it is the feeling of the individual setting at naught all rule, and defying all reason. The feeling only is perverted when the humor predominates; the judgment and will are perverted by caprice; a child shows its humor in fretfulness and lmpatience; a man betrays his caprice in his intercourse with others, in the manggement of his concerns, or in the choice of his amusements.

You'll ask me, why I rather choose to have A weight of carrion flesh, than to receive Tbree thousand ducats; l'll not answer that, But say, it is my humor.

Shakspeare.
Men will subunit to any rule by which they may be exempted from the tyranny of caprice and chance.

JOMNSON.
Indulgence renders children and subordinate persons humorsome; prosperity ar unlimited power is apt to render a man capricious: a humorsome person commonly objects to be pleased, or is easily displeased; a capricious person likes and dislikes, approves and disapproves the same thing in quick succession.

I am glad that though you are incredulous you are not humorsome too.

Goomman.
A subject onght to suppose that there are reasons, although he be not apprised of them, otherwise he mnst tax bis prince of capriciousness, Inconstancy, or ill design.

SWIFT.

## HUMORSOME, HUMOROUS, CAPRICIOUS.

Humor, when applied to things, has the sense of wit, whence the distinction between humorsome and humorous: the tormer implying the existence of humor or perverted feeling in the person; the latter implying the existence of humor or wit in the person or thing. Caprice is improperly applied to things to designate their total irregularity and planlessness of proceeding; as, in speaking of fashion, we notice its caprice, when that which has been laid aside is again taken into use; diseases are termed capricions which act in direct opposition to all established rule.

Thy humorous vein, thy pleasiog folly,
Lies all neglected, all forgot, And pensive, wayward melancholy, Thon dread'st and hop'st thon' know'st not what.

Priog.
Does it imply that our language is in its nature irregular and ortpricious f

Lowth.

## HUNT, CHASE.

The leading idea in the word HUNT is that of searching after; the leading idea in the word CHASE is that of driving away, or before one. In a strict sense, hunt denotes a search for objects not within sight ; chase is a pursuit after such objects only as are within sight: we may hunt, therefore, without chasing: we may chase without hunting: a person hunts after, but does not chase that which is lost: a boy chases, but does not hunt a butterfly. When applied to field-sports, the hunt commences as soon as the huntsmais begins to look for the game; the chase commences as soon as it is found: on this ground, perbaps, it is that hunt is used, in familiar discourse, to desig. nate the specific act of taking this amusement; and chase is used only in particular cases where the peculiar idea is to be expressed: a fox-hunt, or a stag-hunt, is said to take place on a particular day; or that there bas been no hunting this season, or that the hunt has been very bad: but we speak, on the other hand, of the pleasures of the chase; or that the chase lasted very long; the animal gave a long chase.
Come hither, boy 1 we'll hunt to-day
The hookworm, ravening beast of prey.
Greatness of mind and fortune too
Th' Olympic trophies show;
Both their several parts must do
In the noble chase of fame.
Cowley.
HURTFUL, PERNICIOUS, NOXIOUS, NOIsome.
Between HURTFUL, signifying full of hurt, and PERNICIOUS (v. Destruc. tive) there is the same distinction as between hurting and destroying: that which is hurtful may hurt in various ways; but that which is pernicious necessarily tends to destruction : confinement is hurtful to the health: bad company is pernicious to the morals; or the doctrines of freethinkers are pernicious to the well-being of society. NOXIOUS and NOISOME,

## IDEA

from noceo, to hurt, are species of the hurtful: things may be hurtful both to body and mind; noxious and noisome only to the body : that which is noxious inflicts a direct injury; that which is noisome inflicts it indirectly: noxious insects are such as wound; noisome vapors are such as tend to create disorders.

The hurtful bazel in thy vineyard shun.
Dryden.
Of strength, pernicious to myself, I hoast, The powers I have were given me to my cost.

Lewis.
The serpent, subtlest beast of all the field, Of huge extent sometimes, with lurazen eyes, And hairy mane, terrific, thongh to thee Not noceious, but obedient at thy call. Milion.
The only prison that enslaves the soul
As the dark habitation where she dwells Is in a noisome dungeon.

Bklesf.

## HYPOCRITE, DISSEMBLER.

HYPOCRITE, in Greek vioкoutys, from $v \pi{ }^{2}$ and $\kappa \rho \iota \nu \circ \mu a t$, signifies one appearing under a mask. DISSEMBLER, from dissemble, in Latin dissimulo or dis and similis, signifies one who makes himself appear unlike what he really is.
The hypocrite feigns to be what he is not; the dissembler conceals what he is: the former takes to himself the credit of virtues which he has not; the latter conceals the vices that he has; every hypocrite is a dissembler; but every dissembler is not a hypoorite: the hypocrite makes truth serve the purpose of falsehood; the dissembler is content with making falsehood serve his own particular purpose.
In regard to others, hypocrisy is not so pernicious as barefaced irreligion.

Addison. So spake the false dissembler unperceived.

Milton.

## I.

## IDEA, THOUGHT, IMAGINATION.

IDEA, in Latin idea, in Greek $\varepsilon$ e $\delta \varepsilon \alpha$, signifies the form or image of an object, from $\varepsilon i \delta \omega$, to see, that is, the thing seen in the mind. THOUGHT literally signifies the thing thought. IMAGINATION signifies the thing imagined.

The idea is the simple representation
of an object; the thought is the reflea tion; and the imagination is the combination of ideas: we have ideas of the sun, the moon, and all material objects; we bave thoughts on moral subjects; we have imaginations drawn from the ideas already existing in the mind. Ideas are formed ; they are the rude materials with which the thinking faculty exerts itself: thoughts arise in the mind by means of association and combination, or recur in the mind by the power of the memory; they are the materials with which the thinking faculty employs itself: imaginations are created by the mind's reaction on itself; they are the materials with which the understanding seeks to enrich itself. The term idea is used in all cases for the mental representation, abstractedly from the agent that represents them: hence ideas are either clear or distinct; ideas are attached to words; ideas are analyzed, confounded, and the like; in which cases the word thought could not be substituted. Thought belongs only to thinking and rational beings: the brutes may be said to have ideas, but- not thoughts: hence thoughts are either mean, fine, grovelling, or sublime, according to the nature of the mind in which they exist: hence we say with more propriety, to indulge a thought than to indulge an idea; to express one's thoughts, rather than one's ideas, on any subject: although the latter term idea, on account of its comprehensive use, may, without violation of any express rule, he indifferently employed in general discourse for thought; but the former term does not on this account lose its characteristic meaning. Imagination is not only the fruit of thought, but of peculiar thought: the thought may be another's: the imagination is one's own: the thought occurs and recurs; it comes and it goes; it is retained or rejected at the pleasure of the thinking being: the imagination is framed by the power which we term imagination; it is cherished with the partiality of a parent for its offspring. Thoughts are busied with the surrounding objects; imaginations are employed on distant and strange objects: hence thoughts are denominated sober, chaste, and the like; imaginations, wild and extravagant.

Every one finds that many of the $\{d s a s$ which he desirad to retain have slipped away irretrievably. Johnson.

$$
0 \text { calm }
$$

The warring passions, and tumaltuous thoughts That rage within thee !

Rowe.
Differeot climates produce in men, by a different mixture of the humors, a different and onequal course of imaginations and passions.

TEmple.

## IDEAL, LMAGINARY.

IDEAL does not strictly adhere to the sense of its primitive idea ( $v$. Idea): the idea is the representation of a real object in the mind; but ideal signifies belonging to the idea independently of the reality or the external object. IMAGINARY preserves the signification of its primitive imagination (v. Fancy, also v. Idea), as denoting what is created by the mind itself. The ideal is not directly opposed to, but abstracted from, the real; the imaginary, on the other hand, is directly opposed to the real; it is the unreal thing formed by the imagination. Ideal happiness is the happiness which is formed in the mind without having any direct and aotual prototype in nature; but it may, nevertheless, be something possible to be realized; it may be above nature, but not in direct contradiction to it: the imaginary is that which ls opposite to some positive existing reality; the pleasure which a lunatic derives from the conceit of being a king Is altogether imaginary.

There is not, perhaps, in all the stores of deal anguish, a thought more painfal than the conscionsness of having propagated corruption.

Joinnon.
Saperior beings know well the vanity of those imaginary perfections that swell the heart of man. ADDison.

## IDLE, LAZY, INDOLENT.

IDLE is in German eitel, vain. LAZY, in German lössigg, is connected with the Latin lassus, weary, because weariness naturally engenders laziness. INDOLENT, in Latin indolens, signifies without feeling, having apathy or unconcern.

A propensity to inaction is the common idea by which these words are connected; they differ in the cause and degree of the quality: idle expresses less than lazy, and Jaky less than indolent: one is termed idle who will do nothing useful; one is lusy Who will do nothing at all without great
reluctance; one is indolent who does not care to do anything or set about anything. There is no direct inaction in the idler; for a child is idle who will not learn his lesson, but he is active enough in that which pleases himself: there is an aversion to corporeal action in a lazy man, but not always to mental action; he is lazy at work, lazy in walking, or lazy in sitting; but he may not object to any employment, such as reading or thinking, which leaves his body entirely at rest ; an indolent man, on the contrary, fails in activity from a defect both in the mind and the body; he will not only not move, but he will not even think, if it give bim trouble; and trifling exertions of any kind are sufficient, even in prospect, to deter him from attempting to move.

> As pride is sometimes hid under humility, ideness is often covered by turbulence and hurry.

> Johnson.
> Wicked condemnad men will ever live like rogues and not fall to work, but be lasy and apend victuala.

> Bacon.
> Nothing is so oppoaite to the trua onjoyment of life as the relaxad and feable stets of an indolent mind.

> Blaig.
> Lazy is figuratively applied to other objects.

The daw,
The rook, and magple, to the gray.grown oaks, That tha calm village to their verdant arms Shaltering embrace, direct their lasy flight.

Thomson.
Idle is also applied to things in the sense of leisure and vanity, for which see the next articles.

## idle, Leisure, Vacant.

IDLE ( $v$. Idle) is opposed here to the busy; LEISURE, otherwise spelled leasure, from lease, as in the compound release, and the Latin laxo, to make lax or loose, that is, loosed or set free, is opposed simply to the employed: he, therefore, who is idle, instead of being busy, commits 9 fault; which is not always the case with him who is at leisure or free from his employment. Idle is always taken in a sense more or less unfavorable; teisure in a sense perfectly indifferent: if 9 man says of bimself that he has spent an idle hour in this or that place, in amusement, company, and the like, he means to sig: nify he would have spent it better if ainy. thing had offered; on the other band, he
would say that he spends his leisure moments in a suitable relaxation: he who values his time will take care to have as few idle hours as possible; but since no one can always be employed in severe labor, he will occupy his leisure hours in that which best suits his taste.

Life is sustained with so little labor, that the tediousness of $i$ ale time cannot otherwise be supported (than by artificial desires). Johnson.
The plant that shoots from seed, a sullen tree, At leisure grows, for late posterity. Dryosn.

Idle and leisure are said in particular reference to the time that is employed; VACANT ( $v$. Free) is a more general term, that simply qualifies the thing: an idle bour is one without any proper employment; a vacant hour is in general one free from the employments with which it might be filled up; a person has leisure time according to bis wishes; but he may have vacant time from necessity, that is, when he is in want of employment.

Idleness dictates expedients by which life may be passed unprofitably, without the tediousness of many vacant hours.

Johnson.

## IDLE, VAIN.

These epithets are both opposed to the solid or substantial ; but IDLE (v. Idle, lazy) has a more particular reference to what ought or ought not to engage the time or attention; VAIN, in Latin vanus, probably changed from vacaneus, signifying empty, seems to qualify the thing without any such reference. A pursuit may be termed either idle or vain: in the former case, it reflects immediately on the agent for not employiag his time on something more serious; but in the latter case it simply characterizes the pursuit as one that will be attended with no good consequences: when we consider ourselves as beings who have but a short time to live, and that every moment of that time ought to be thoroughly well-spent, we should be careful to avoid all idle concerns; when we consider ourselves as rational beings, who are responsible for the use of those powers with which we have been invested by our Almighty Maker, we shall be careful to reject all vain concerns: an idle effort is made by one who does not care to exert himself for any useful purpose, who vorks only to please himself; a vain ef-
fort may be made by one who is in a state of desperation.
And let no spot of idle earth be found, But cultivate the genins of the ground.

Dryden.
Deluded by vain opinious, we look to the advantages of fortune as our ultimate goods.

Blaid.

## IGNORANT, ILLITERATE, UNLEAINED, UNLETTERED.

IGNORANT, in Latin ignorans, from the privative $i g$ or in and noro, or the Greek yıvook $\omega$, signifies not knowing things in general, or not knowing any particular circumstance. UNLEARNED, ILLITERATE, and UNLETTERED, are compared with ignorant in the general sense.

Ignorant is a comprehensive term; it includes any degree from the highest to the lowest, and consequently includes the other terms, illiterate, unlearned, and unlettered, which express different forms of ignorance. Ignorance is not always to one's disgrace, since it is not always one's fault; the term is not, therefore, directly reproachful: the poor ignorant savage is an object of pity, rather than condemnation; but when ignorance is coupled with self-conceit and presumption, it is a perfect deformity: hence the word illiterate, which is mostly used in such cases as become a term of reproach: an ignorant man who sets up to teach others, is termed an illiterate preacher; and quacks, whether in religion or medicine, from the very nature of their calling, are altogether an illiterate race of men. The term illiterate is in all cases taken for one who is without education or even the knowledge of his letters; the words unlearned and unlettered are disengaged from any unfavorable associations. A modest man, who makes no pretensions to learning, may suitably apologize for his supposed deficiencies by saying he is an unlearned or unlettered man ; the former is, however, a term of more familiar use than the latter. A man may be described either as generally unlearned, or as unlearned in particular sciences or arts; as unlearned in history; unlearned in philosophy; unlearned in the ways of the world : a poet may describe his muse ap unlettered.

He sald, and sent Cyllenlus with command To free the ports, and ope the Punic land To Trojan guests; lest, ignorant of fate, The queen might force them from her town and state.

Dhyden.
Oa the accosslon of Henry VIL., emerged from the Fells of Cumberland, where he had been principally coacealed for twenty -flve years, Henry Lord Clifford, with the manners and education of a shepherd. He was almost illiterate, but not defficieat ia natural understanding.

Whitaeer.
Because this doctrine may have appeared to the unlearned light and whimsical, I must take zeave to unfold the wisdom and antiquity of my first proposition in these my essays, to wit, that "every wortheses man is a dead man."

Addison.
Ajax, the haughty chief, the unlettered oolditer, had no way of making hie anger known bit by gloomy aullenness.

Johnaon.

## TO ILLUMINATE, ILLUMINE, ENLIGHTEN.

ILLUMINATE, in Latin illuminatus, participle of illumino, and ENLIGHTEN, from the noun light, both denote the communication of light; the former in the natural, the latter in the moral sense. We illuminate by means of artificial lights; the sun illuminates the world by Its own light: preaching and instruction enlighten the minds of men. Illumine is but a poetic variation of illuminate; as, the Sun of Righteousuess illumined the benighted world; illuminations are employed as public demonstrations of joy: no nation is now termed enlightened but such as have received the light of the Gospel.
Reason our guide, what can she more reply,
Than that the sun illuminatee the sky? Prior.
But if neither yon nor I can gather so much from these placas, they will tell us it is because we are not inwordly enlightened. South.

What in me is dark,
Illumine; what is low, raise and aupport. Mn,ton.

## TO IMITATE, COPY, COUNTERFEIT.

The idea of taking a likeness of some object is common to all these terms; but IMITATE ( $v$. To follow) is the generic : COPY (v. Copy), and COUNTERFEIT, from the Latin contra and facio, signifying to make in opposition to the reality, are the specific terms: to imitate is to take a general likeness; to copy, to take an exact likeness; to counterfeit, to take $s$ false likeness: to imitate is, therefore,
almost always used in a good or an in. different sense; to copy mostly, and to counterfeit still oftener, in a bad sense : to imitate an author's style is at all times allowable for one who cannot form a style for himself; but to copy an author's style would be a too slavish adherence even for the dullest writer.

Poetry and music have the power of imitating. the mauners of men.

Sir W. Jones:
I need not enlarge on this relation; it is erident from hence that the Sorbonists were the original authors, and our schismatics in England were the copiere of rebellion.

Dryden.
To imitate is applicable to every object, for every external object is ausceptible of imitateon; and in man the imitative faculty diaplays itself alike in the highest and the lowest matters, in works of art and moral conduct: to copy is applicable only to certain objects which will admit of a minute likeness being taken; thus, an artist may be said to copy from nature.
The mind, impressible and aoft, with ease Imbibes and copies what she hears aad sees.

Cowpea.
Nothing was more natural than to imitats, by the sound of the voice, the quality of the sound or noise which any external object made. Blass.

To counterfeit is applicable but to few objects; we may counterfeit coin, which is an unlawful act, or we may counterfeit the person, the character, the voice, or the handwriting, of any one for whom we would wish to pass, which is also an unlawful act except on the stage.
I can countgrfeit the deep tragedian, Speak and look big, and pry on every side.

Sramspeare.
TO IMITATE, MIMIC, APE, MOCK.
To IMITATE (v. To follow) is here the general term : to MIMIC, from the Greek $\mu \mu \mathrm{os}$, and to APE, signifying to imitate like an ape, are both species of vicious imitation. One imitates that which is deserving of imitation, or the contrary: one mimics either that which is not an authorized subject of imitation, or which is imitated imperfectly or so as to excite laughter. A person wishes to make that his own which he imitates, but he mimics for the entertainment of others.
Because wa sometimes walk on two:
1 hate the imitating crew.
Gat.

Nor will it less dellght th' attentive aage T' observe that instinct which unerriog guides The bratal race which mimics reason's love.

Someryille.
To ape is a serious though an absurd act of imitation; to MOCK, in French mocquer, Greek $\mu \omega \kappa \alpha \omega$, to laugh at, is an ill-natured and vulgar act of imitation. The ape imitates to please himself; the mock:er mocks to insult others.

A corrtier any ape surpasses ;
Behold him, humbly cringing, wait
Upon the minister of state.
View him soan after to inferiora Aping the conduct of superiors.

Swift.
What thoagh no friends in sable weeds appear, Grieve for an hoar, perhaps, theo mouro a year, And bear about the mockery of woe To midnight dances.

Pope.

## IMMINENT, IMPENDING, THREATENING.

IMMINENT, in Latin imminens, from maneo, to remain, signifies resting or coming upon. IMPENDING, from the Latin pendeo, to hang, signifies hanging upon or over. THREATENING, containing a threat.

All these terms are used in regard to some evil that is exceedingly near: imminent conveys no idea of duration; im. pending excludes the idea of what is momentary. A person may be in imminent danger of losing his life in one instant, and the danger may be over the next instant: but an imperding danger is that which has been long in existence and gradually approaching; we can seldom escape imminent danger by any efforts of one's own; but we may be successfully warned to escape from an impending danger. Imminent and impending are said of dangers that are not discoverable; but a threatening evil gives intimations of its own approach; we perceive the threatening tempest in the blackness of the sky; we bear the threatzning sounds of the enemy's clashing 3words.

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## IMMODEST, IMPUDENT, SHAMELESS.

IMMODEST signifies the want of mod esty: IMPUDENT and SHAMELESS sig. nify without shame. Immodest is less than either impudent or shameless: an immod est girl lays aside the ornament of her sex, and puts on another garb that is less becoming; but her heart need not be corrupt until she becomes impudent: she wants a good quality when she is immod est; she is possessed of a positively bad quality when she is impudent. There is always hope that an immodest woman may be sensible of her error, and amend; but of an impudent woman there is no such chance, she is radically corrupt. Impudent may characterize the person or the thing: shameless characterizes the person. A person's air, look, and words are impudent, when contrary to all modesty: the person himself is shameless who is devoid of all sense of shame.

Music diffoses a calm all around us, and makes us drop all those immodest thoughts which wonld be a hinderance to us in the performance of the great duty of thanksgiviog.

Spectator.
I am at once equally fearful of sparing you, and of being too impudent a corrector. Pops.
The sole remorse his greedy heart can feel, Is if one life escapes hia murdering steel; Shameless by force or frand to work his way, And no less prompt to flatter than betray.

Comberland.

## TO LMPAIR, INJURE.

IMPAIB, comes from the Latin im and pair, pejoro or pejor, worse, signifying to make worse. INJURE, from in and jus, against right, signifies to make otherwise than it ought to be.

Impair seems to be in regard to injury as the species to the genus; what is im . paired is injured, but what is iniurad is not necessarily impaired. To impair is a progressive mode of injuring: an injury may take place either by degrees or hy an instantaneous act : straining of the eyes impairs the sight, but a blow injures rather than impairs the eye. A man's health may be impaired or injured by his vices, but his limbs are injured rather than impaired by a fall. A person's cir cumstances are impaired by a successios of misfortones; they are injured by $\%$ sudden turn of fortune.
It is paioful to consider that this sublime en
foyment of friendahip may ba impaired by lnpumerabla çusea. JoHnaon.
Who lives to nature rarely can be poor, 0 what a patrimony this $!$ a being
Of such inherent atrangth and majeaty,
Not worlds posseat can raiae it ; worlde deatroy'd san't injure.

Young.

## IMPEREECTION, DEFECT, FAULT, VICE.

These terms are applied either to persons or things. IMPERFECTION, denoting either the abstract quality of imperfect, or the thing which constitutes it im perfect, in a person arises from his want of perfection, and the infirmity of his nature; there is no one without some point of imperfection which is obvious to others, if not to himself; he may strive to diminish it, although he cannot expect to get altogether rid of it: a DEFECT ( $v$. Blemish) is a deviation from the general constitution of man; it is what may be natural to the man as an individual, but not natural to man as a species; in this manner we may speak of a defect in the speech, or a defect in temper. The FAULT and VICE rise in degree and character above either of the former terms; they both reflect disgrace more or less on the person possessing them; but the fault always characterizes the agent, and is said in relation to an individual; the vice characterizes the action, and may be considered abstractedly: hence we speak of a man's faults as the things we may condemn in him; but we may speak of the vices of drunkenness, lying, and the like, without any immediate reference to any one who practises these vices. When they are both employed for an individual, their distinction is obvious: the fault may lessen the amiability or excellence of the character; the vice is a stain; a single act destroys its purity; a habitual practice is a pollution.
It is a pleasant atory that wa, forsooth, who are the only imperfect creaturea in tha universe, are the only heings that will not allow of imperfection.

Steele.
The low race of men take a secret pleasure in finding an eminent character levelled to their condition by a report of ita defects, and keep themaelves in conntenance, though they are excalled in a thonsand virtues, if they believe that tbay have in common with a great person any one fault.

ADDison.
I did myself the honor this day to maka a visit to a lady of quality, who is one of those that are ver railing at the vices of the age.

In regard to things, the distinction depends upon the preceding explanation in a great measure, for we can scarcely use these words without thinking on man as a moral agent, who was made the most perfect of all creatures, and became the most imperfect ; and from our imperfection bas arisen, also, a general imperfection throughout all the works of creation. The word imperfection is therefore the most unqualified term of all: there may be imperfection in regard to our Maker, or there may be imperfection in regard to what we conceive of perfection: and in this case, the term simply and generally implies whatever falls short in any degree or manner of perfection. Defect is a positive degree of imperfection; it is contrary both to our ideas of perfection, or our particular intention: thus, there may be a defect in the materials of which a thing is made; or a defect in the mode of making it: the term defeet, however, whether said of persons or things, characterizes rather the object than the agent. Fault, on the other hand, when said of things, always refers to the agent: thus we may say there is a defect in the glass, or a defect in the spring; but there is a foult in the workmanship, or a fault in the putting together, and the like. Vice, with regard to things, is properly a serious or radical defect; the former lies in the constitution of the whole, the latter may lie in the parts; the former lies in essentials, the latter lies in the accidents: there may be a defect in the shape or make of a horse; but the vice is said in regard to his soundness or unsoundness, his docility or indocility.
Go, wiser thou ! and in thy acale of sense, Weigh thy opinion againat providence ;
Call implerfection what thon fanciest such.
Popr.
The lovers soon espy'd
This small defect, for lova is eagle-eyed,
And in soft whispers soon the passage try'd.
Pyaamus and Thishe,
He who is gratifled with what is faulty in works of art is a man of bad taste. Braties.
Or when the latent vice ia cnred hy fire,
Redundant humors by the pores expire.
DRYDEN,
LMPERFECTION, WEAKNESS, FRAILTY, FALLING, FOIBLE.
IMPERFECTION (v. Imperfection) bas already been considered as that which

In the most extended sense, abridges the moral perfection of man; the rest are but modes of imperfection varying in degree and circumstances. WEAKNESS is a positive and strong degree of imperfection which is opposed to strength ; it is what we do not so necessarily look for, and therefore distinguishes the individual who is liable to it. FRAILTY is another strong mode of imperfection which characterizes the fragility of man, but not of all men in the aame degree; it differs from weakness in respect to the object. A wealness lies more in the judgment or in the sentiment; frailty lies more in the moral featurea of an action. It is a weakness in a man to yield to the persuasions of any one against his better judgment; it is a frailty to yield to intemperance or illicit indulgences. FAILINGS and FOIBLES are the smallest degrees of imperfection to which the buman character is liable: we have all our failings in temper, and our foibles in our habits and our prepossesaions; and he, as Horace observes, is the best who has the fewest.

You live in a relgn of human infirmity where every one has imperfections.

Blaif.
The folly of ellowing ourselves to delay what we know cannot finally be escaped, is one of the general weaknesses which, to a greater or less degree, prevail in every miod.

JoHison.
There are circumstances which every men must know will prove the occasions of calling forth his latent frailtize.

Blair.
Never allow small failings to dwell on your attention so much as to deface the whole of an amiahle character.

Blaif.
I confess my foibls in regard to flattery; I am as fond of it as Voltaire can be, hut with this differenca, that I love it from a masterly hand.

Chesterfield.

## IMPERIOUS, LORDLY, DOMINEERING, overbearing.

All these epithets imply an unseemly exercise or affectation of power or auperiority. IMPERIOUS, from impero, to command, characterizes either the disposition to command without adequate authority, or to convey one's commands in an offensive manner: LORDLY, signifying like a lord, characterizes the manner of acting the lord: and DOMINEERING, from dominus, a lord, denotes the manner of ruling like a lord, or rather of attempting to rule; hence a person's tem-
per or his tone is denominated imperious, his air or deportment ia lordly, his tone is domineering. A woman of an imperious teomer commands in order to be obeyed: she commanda with an imperious tone in order to enforce obedience. A person assumes a lordly air in order to diaplay his own importance: be gives orders in a domineering tone in order to make others feel their inferiority. There ia always something offensive in imperiousness; there is frequently something ludicrous in that which is lordly; and a mixture of the ludicrous and offensive in that which is domineering.
Thy willing victim, Carthage, bursting loose From sll that pleading nature could oppose; From a whole city's tears, hy rigid faith Impsrious call'd, and honor's dire command.

Thomson.
Lords are loraliest in their wine. Mirton.
He who has snnk so far below himself as to have given up his assent to a domineering error is fit for nothing but to be trampled on. Soutr.

Thene terms are employed for such as are invested with some sort of power, or endowed with some sort of superiority, bo wever trifling; but OVERBEARING ie employed for men in the general relations of society, whether superiors or equals. A man of an imperious temper and some talent will frequently be so overbearing in the assemblies of his equals as to awe the rest into silence, and carry every measure of his own without contradiction.

I reflected within myself how much society would suffer if such insolent, overbearing characters ss Leontine were not held in restraint.

Cumberland.
IMPERTINENT, RUDE, SAUCY, IMPUDENT, INSOLENT.
IMPERTINENT, in Latin in and per tinens, nat belonging to one, signifies being or wanting to do what it does not belong to one to be or do. RUDE, in Latin rudis, rude, and raudus, a ragged stone, in the Greek paßjog, a rough stick, signifiea literally unpolished; and, in an extended sense, wanting all culture. SAUCY comes from sauce, and the Latin salsus, signifying literally salt; and, in an extended sense, stinging like salt. IMPUDENT, v. Assurance. INSOLENT, from the Latin in and solens, contrary to cus tom, signifies being or wanting to be con trary to custom.

Impertinent ls allied to rude, as respects one's general relations in society, without regard to station; it is allied to saucy, impudent, and insolent, as respects the conduct of inferiors. He who does not respect the laws of civil society in his interconrse with individuals, and wants to assume to himself what belongs to another, is impertinent: if he carry this impertinence so far as to commit any violent breach of decorum in his behavior, he is rude. Impertinence seems to spring from $m$ too high regard of one's self : rudeness from an ignorance of what is due to others. Impertinent, in comparison with the other terms, saucy, impudent, and insolent, is the most general and indefinite: whatever one does or says that is not compatible with our humble station is impertinent; saucy is a sharp kind of impertinence: impudent an unblushing kind of impertinence; insobence is an outrageous kind of impertinence, it runs counter to all established order: thus, the terms seem to rise in sense. A person may be impertinent in words or actions: he is sauey in words or looks: be is impudent or insolent in words, tones, gesture, looks, and every species of action.

It is publicly whispered as a piece of imperfingnt pride in me, that I have hitherto been saucily civil to everybody, as if I thought nobody good enough to quarrel with.

Lady M. W. Montague.
My house sliould no such rude disorders know, As from high drinking consequently flow.

Pomfret.
Whether he knew the thing or no,
His tongue eternally would go ;
For he had impudence at will.
Gay.
He claims the hull with lawless insolence, And having seiz'd his horns, accosts the prince.

Dryden.

## IMPERVIOUS, IMPASSABLE, INACCESsirle.

IMPERVIOUS, from the Latin in, per, and via, signifies not having a way through ; IMPASSABLE, not to be passed through; INACCESSIBLE, not to be approached. A woad is impervious when the trees, branches, and leaves are entangled to such a degree as to admit of noo passage at all: a river is impassable that is so deep that it cannot be forded : - rock of a monntain is inaccessible the anmit of which is not to be reached by
any path whatever. What is impervious is so for a permanency; what is impassable is commonly so only for a time: roads are frequently impassable in the winter that are passable in the summer, while a thicket is impervious during the whole of the year: impassable is likewise said only of that which is to be passed by living creatures, but impervious may be extended to inanimate objects; a wood may be impervious to the rays of the sun.
The monster, Cacus, more than half a beast, This hold, impervious to the sun, possess'd.

DRyden.
But lest the difficulty of passing back
Stay his return perhaps over this gulf, Impassable, impervious, let us try
Advent'rous work.
Milion.
At least our envious foe hath fail'd, who thought All like himself rebellions, by whose aid This inaccassibls high strength, the seat Of Delty Supreme, us dispossess'd, He trusted to have seiz'd.

Milton.
IMPLACABLE, UNRELENTING, RELENTLESS, INEXORABLE.
IMPLAOABLE, unappeasable, signifies not to be allayed nor softened. UNRELENTING or RELENTLESS, from the Latin lenio, to soften, or to make pliant, signifies not rendered soft. INEXORABLE, from oro, to pray, signifies not to be turned by prayers.

Inflexibility is the idea expressed in common by these terms, but they differ in the causes and circumstance with which it is attended. Animosities are implacable when no misery which we occasion can diminish their force, and no concessions on the part of the offender can lessen the spirit of revenge: the mind or character of a man is unrelenting when it is not to be turned from its purpose by a view of the pain which it inflicts: a man is inexorable who turns a deaf ear to every solicitation or entreaty that is made to induce him to lessen the rigor of his sentence. A man's angry passions render him implacable; it is not the magnitude of the offence, but the temper of the offended that is here in question ; by implacability he is rendered insensible to the misery he occasions, and to every satisfaction which the offender may offer him: fixedness of purpose renders a man unrelenting or relent. less; an unrelenting temper is not lesa
callous to the misery produced, than an implacable temper; but it is not grounded always on resentment for personal injuries, but sometimes on a certain principle of right and a sense of necessity: the inexarable man adheres to his rule, as the unrelenting man does to his purpose; the former is insensible to any workings of his heart which might shake his purpose, the latter turns a deaf ear to all the solicitations of others which would go to alter his decrees: savages are mostly implacable in their animosities; Titus Manlius Torquatus displayed an instance of unrelenting severity toward his son; Minos, Facus, and Rhadomanthus were the inexarable judges of hell.

Implacable as the enmity of the Mexicans was, they were so unacquainted with the science of war, that they knew not how to take the proper measures for the destruction of the Spaniards.

Robeatson.
These are the realms of unrelenting fate.
Dryden.
Implacable and unrelenting are said only of animate beings in whom is wanting an ordinary portion of the teuder affections: inexorable may be improperly applied to inanimate objects; justice and death are hoth represented as inexorable.
Acca, 'tis past, he swims before my sight, Inexorable death, and claims his right.

Dryden,

## tO IMPLANT, INGRAFT, INCULCATE, INSTIL, INFUSE.

To plant is properly to fix plants in the ground; to IMPLANT is, in the improper sense, to fix principles in the mind. Graft is to make one plant grow on the stock of another; to INGRAFT is to make particular principles flourish n the mind, and form a part of the character. Calco is in Latin to tread; and INCULCATE, to stamp into the mind. Stillo, in Latin, is literally to fall dropwise: instillo, to INSTIL, is, in the improper sense, to make sentiments, as it were, drop into the mind. Fundo, in Latin, is literally to pour in a stream: infundo, to INFUSE, is, in the improper sense, to pour principles or feelings into the mind.

To implant, ingraft, and inculcate, are said of abstract opinions, or rules of right and wrong; instil and infuse of
such principles as influence the heart, the affections, and the passions. It is the business of the parent in early life to implant sentiments of virtue in his child; it is the business of the teacher to ingraft them. Instil is a corresponding act with implant; we implant helief; we instil the feeling which is connected with this belief. It is not enough to have an abstract belief of a God implanted into the mind: we must likewise have a love, and a fear of him, and reverence for his holy name and Word instilled into the mind. To instil is a gradual process which is the natural work of education; to infuse is a more arbitrary and immediate act. Sentiments are instilled into the mind, not altogether by the personal efforts of any individual, but likewise by collateral endeavors; they are, however, infused at the express will and with the express endeavor of some person. Instil is applicable only to permanent sentiments; infuse may be said of any partial feeling: hence we speak of infusing a poison into the mind by means of insidious and mischievous publications; or infusing a jealousy by means of crafty insiauations, or infusing an ardor into the minds of soldiers by means of spirited addresses coupled with military successes.
With various seeds of art deep in the mind Implanted.

Thomson.
The reciprocal attraction in the minds of men is a principle ingrafted. in the very first formation of the soul by the author of onr nature.

Berkeley.
To preach practical sermons, as they are called, that is, sermons upon virtnes and vices, without inoulcating the great Scripture truths of redemption, grace, etc., which alone can enable and incite ns to forsake sin and follow after righteousness; what is it, but to put together the wheels and set the hands of a watch, forgettiog the spring which is to make them all go ?

Bishof Hoane.
The apostle often makes mention of sound doctrine in opposition to the extravagant and corrupt opinjons which false teachers, even in thoss days, instilled into the minds of their ignorant and unwary disciples.

Beveringe.
No sooner grows
The soft infusion prevalent and wide,
Than, all alive, at once their joy o'erflows
In music unconfin'd.
Thomson
to implicate, involve.
IMPLICATE, from plico, to fold, de notes to fold into a thing; and. IN

VOLVE, from volvo, to roll, signifies to roll into a thing: by which explanation we perceive, that to implicate marks something less entangled than to involve: for that which is folded may be folded only once, but that which is rolled is turned many times. In application, therefore, to human affairs, people are said to be implicated who have taken ever so small a share in a transaction; but they are involved only when they are deeply concerned : the former is likewise especially applied to criminal trensactions, the latter to those things which are in themselves troublesome: thus a man is implicated in the guilt of robbery who should stand by and see it done, without interfering for its prevention; he who is in debt in every direction is striotly said to be involved in debt.
He is much too dseply implisated to make tha presance or absence of thesa notes of the least consaquance to him.

Those who cultivate the msmory of our Revolution will taks care how they ara involved with persons who, under pretext of zeal toward the Revolution end constitution, frequently wander from their true principles.

Buake.

## IMPORTANOE, CONSEQUENOE, WHIGHT, MOMENT.

IMPORTANOE, from porto, to earry, signifies the carrying or bearing with, or in itself. CONSEQUENCE, from consequor, to follow, or result, signifies the following, or resulting from a thing. WEIGHT signifies the quantum that the thing weighs. MOMENT, from momentum, signifies the force that puts in motion.

Importance is what things bave in themselves; they may be of more or less importance, according to the value which is set upori them: this may be real or unreal; it may be estimated by the experience of their past utility, or from the presumption of their utility for the future: the idea of imporitance, therefore, enters into the meaning of the other terms more or less. ${ }^{\text {© }}$ Consequence is the importance of a thing from its consequences. This term, therefore, is peculiarly applicable to such things, the consequences of thich may be more immediately discerned elther from the neglect or the attention: it is of consequence for a letter to go off on a, certain day; for the
affairs of an individual may he more ot less affected by it; an bour's delay sometimes in the departure of a military expedition may be of such consequence as to determine the fate of a battle. The term weight implies a positively great degree of importance: it is that importance which a thing has intrinsically in itself, and which wakes it weigh in the mind: it is applied, therefore, to such thinge as offer themselves to deliberation; hence the counsels of a nation are always weighty, because they involve the interests of so many. Moment is that importance which a thing has from the power in itself to produce effects, or to determine interests: it is applicable, therefore, only to such things as are connected with our prosperity or happiness: when used without any adjunct, it implies a great degree of importance, but may be modified in various ways, as a thing of no moment, or small moment, or great moment; hut we cannot say with the same propriety, a thing of small weight, and still less a thing of great weight: it is a matter of no emall moment for every ona to choose that course of conduct which will stand the test of a death-bed reflection.
He that considars how soon he must close has Hife, wiil find nothing of so much importance as to closa it well. Joenson.
The corruption of our taste is not of equal con sequence with the depravation of our virtua.

Whaton.
Tha finest works of invention are of very little weight, when put in the balance with what reflnes and exalts tha rational mind. Spectator,

Whoever shall review his life, will find that the whole tenor of his conduct has been determined by some accideut of no apparent momient. Johnson.

TO IMPRINT, IMPRESS, ENGRAVE.
PRINT and PRESS are both derived from pressus, participle of primo, signifying in the literal sense to press, or to make a mark by pressing: to IMPRESS and IMPRINT are figuratively employed in the same sense. Things are impressed. on the mind so as to produce a convietion: they are imprinted on it so as to produce recollection. If the truths of Christianity be impressed on the mind, they will show themselves in a corresponding conduct: whatever is imprint ed on the mind in early life, or by any

## INACTIVE

particular circumstance, is not readily forgotten. ENGRAVE, from grave and the German graben, to dig, expresses more in the proper sense than either, and the same in its moral application; for we may truly say that if the truths of Christianity be engraven in the minds of youth, they can never he eradicated.

> Whence this disdain of life in ev'ry breast, But from a notion on their minds imprest That all who for their country die, are blest

JENYNS.
Such a strange, sacred, and Inviolahle majesty has God imprinted upon this faculty (the conscience), that it can never be deposed. Soutr.

Deep on his front engraven,
Deliberation sat, and public care. Miluton.

## TO IMPUGN, ATTACK.

These terms are employed synonymously only in regard to doctrines or opinions; in which case, to IMPUGN, from in and pugno, to fight against, signifies to call in question, or bring arguments against; to ATTACK (v. To attack) is to oppose with warmth. Sceptics imprugn every opinion, however selfevident or well-grounded they may be: infidels make the most indecent attacks upon the Bible, and all that is held sacred by the rest of the world. He who impugns may sometimes proceed insidiously and circuitously to undermine the faith of others: he who attacks always proceeds with more or less violence. To impugn is not necessarily taken in a bad sense; we may sometimes impugn absurd doctrines by a fair train of reasoning: to attack is always objectionable, either in the mode of the action, or its object, or in both; it is a mode of proceeding oftener employed in the cause of falsehood than truth: when there are no arguments wherewith to impugn a doctrine, it is easy to attack it with ridicule and scurrility.

> The creed of Athanasius, concerning that trnth which Arianism did so mightily impuggn, was both in the East and West churches accepted as a treasure of inestimable price. Hooser. In case of renewed attacke, our present creed would be a much better defence than any new one that would be made at the time it was wanted. HEy.

## INABILITY, DISABILITY.

INABILITY denotes the absence of ability in the most general and abstract fense. DISABILITY implies the ab-
sence of ability only in particular cases: the inability lies in the nature of the thing, and is irremediable; the disability lies in the circumstances, and may sometimes be removed: weakness, whether physical or mental, will occasion an inability to perform a task; there is a total inability in an infant to walk and act like an adult: a want of knowledge or of the requisite qualifications may be a disabili. $t y$; in this manner minority of age or an objection to take certain oaths may be u disability for filling a public office.

## It is not from inability to discover what they ougbt to do that men err in practice. Brair. <br> Want of age is a legal disability to contract a martiage. <br> Blackstone. <br> INACTIVE, inERT, LAET, SLOTHFUL, SLUGGISH.

A reluctance to hodily exertion is common to all these terms. INACTIVE is the most general and unqualified term of all; it expresses simply the want of a stimulus to exertion. INERT is something more positive, from the Latin iners or sine arte, without art or mind; it denotes a specific deficiency either in body or mind. LAZY (v. Idle). SLOTHFUL, from slow, that is, full of slowness; and SLUGGISH, from slug, that is, like a slug, drowsy and heavy, all rise upon one another to denote an expressly defective temperament of the body which directly impedes action.

To be inactive is to be indisposed to action; that is, to the performance of any office, to the doing any specific business: to be inert is somewhat more; it is to be indisposed to movement: to be lazy is to move with pain to one's self: to be slothful is never to move otherwise than slowly: to be sluggish is to move in a sleepy and heavy manner. A person may be inactive from a variety of incidental causes, as timidity, ignorance, modesty, and the like, which combine to make him averse to enter upon any business, or take any serious step; a person may be inert from temporary indisposition; but laziness, slothfulness, and sluggishness are inherent physical defects: laziness is, however, not altogether independent of the mind or the will; but siothfulness and sluggishness are purely the offispring of nature, or, which is the same thing
habit superinduced upon nature. A man of a mild character is frequently inactive.
Virtuc conceal'd withio our breast Is inactivity at leest.

SWIFT.
Hence the term inactive is applied to matter.

What lews are these ? instruct ns if you can ; There's one design'd for brutes, end one for men, Another guides inactive matter's course.

Jenyns.
Some diseases, particularly of the melancholy kind, are accompanied with a atrong degree of inertness; since they seem to deprive the frame of its ordinary powers to action, and to produce a certain degree of torpor; hence the term is properly applied to matter to express the highest degree of inactivity, which will not move without an external impuise.
Informer of the plenetery trein,
Without whose quickening glance their cumbrous orbs
Were brute, unlovely mess, inert ead dced.
Thomson.
Lazy people move as if their bodies were a burden to themselves; they are fond of rest, and particularly averse to be put in action; but they will sometimes move quickly, and perform much when once impelled to move.

The first canto fin Thomson's "Castle of Indolence") opens a scene of lasy lnxury that fills the imagination.

JOHNGON.
Slothful people never vary their pace; they have a physical impediment in themselves to quick motion: sluggish people are with difficulty brought into action; it is their nature to be in a state of stupor.
Falsely luxurions, will not man awake,
And, springing from the bed of sloth, enjoy
The cool, the fragrent, and the silent hour?
Thomson.
Conversation would become dull and vapid, if negligence were not sometimes ronsed, and slugggishness quickened, by due severity of reprehension.

Johnson.

## inADVERTENCY, inATTENTION, OVERSIGHT.

INADVERTENCY, from advert, to turn the mind to, is allied to INATTENTION ( $v$. Attentive), when the act of the mind is signified in general terms; and to OVERSIGHT when any particular instance of inadvertency occurs. Inadvertency never designates a kabit, but inat-
tention does; the former term, therefore, is unqualified by the reproachful sense which attaches to the latter: any ons may be guilty of inadvertencies, since the mind that is occupied with many subjects equally serious may be turned so steadily toward some that others may escape notice; but inattention, which designates a direct want of attention, is always a fault, and belongs only to the young, or such as are thoughtless by nature : since inadvertency is an occasional act, it must not be too often repeated, or it becomes inattention. An oversight is properly a species of inadvertency, which arises from looking over, or passing by, a thing: we pardon an inadvertency in another, since the consequences are never serious; we must be guarded against oversights in business, as their consequences may be serious.

## Ignorance or inadvertency will admit of some extenuation. Souts.

The expense of ettending (the Scottish Perlia. ment), the inattention of the age to any legal or regular system of government, bnt, above all, the exorbitant anthority of the nobles, made this privilege of so 11 ttle velue as to be almost neg. lected.

Robertson.
The ancient critics discover beanties which escape the observation of the vulgar, and very often find reasons for pallieting such little slips and oversights in the writings of emineat authors.

Admison.
INCAPABLE, INSUFFICLENT, INCOMPETENT, INADEQUATE.
INCAPABLE, that is, not baving ca. pacity (v. Ability) ; INSUFFICIENT, or not sufficient, or not having what is suffi. cient; INCOMPETENT, or not competent (v. Competent), are employed either for persons or things: the first in a general, the last two in a specific sense: INAD. EQUATE, or not adequate or equalled, is applied most generally to things.

When a man is said to be incapable, it characterizes his whole mind; if he be said to bave insufficiency and incompeten. cy, it respects the particular objects to which the power is applied : he may be insufficient or incompetent for certain things; but he may have a capacity fot other things: the term incapacity, there fore, implies a direct charge upon the understanding, which is not implied by in sufficiency and incompetency.

It ehlefly proceedeth from natural ineapacity and general indisposition.

Brown.
When God withdraws his hand, and lets nature sink into its original weakness and insufficiency, all a man's delights fail him.

Soutr.
Ineapable is applied sometimes, in colloquial discourse, to signify the absence of that which is bad; insufficient and incompetent alpays convey the idea of a deficiency in that which is, at least, desirable: it is an honor to a person to he in sapable of falsehood, or incapable of doing an ungenerous action; but to be insufficient and incompetent are, at all events, qualities not to he boasted of, although they may not be expressly disgraceful. These terms are likewise applicable to things, in which they preserve a similar distinction : ivfidelity is incapable of affording a man any comfort; when the means arc insufficient for obtaining the ends, it is madness to expect success; it is a gad condition of humanity when a man's resources are incompetent to supply him with the first necessaries of life.

[^70]Inadequate is relative in its signification, like insufficient and incompetent: but the relation is different. A thing is insufficient which does not suffice either for the wishes, the purposes, or necessities of any one, in particular or in general cases; thus, a quantity of materials may be insufficient for a particular building: incompetency is an insufficiency for general purposes, in things of the first neccssity; thus, an income may be incompetent to support a family: inadequacy is still more particular, for it denotes any deficiency which is measured hy comparison with the object to which it refers; thus, the strength of an animal may be inadequate to the labor which is required, or a reward may he inadequate to the service.

[^71]All the attainments possible in our present state are evidently inadequate to our capacitien of enjoyment.

Jounson
INCESSANTLY, UNCEASINGLY, UNIN-
TERRUPTEDLY, WITHOUT INTERMISSION.
INCESSANTLY and UNCEASINGLY are but variations from the same word, cease. UNINTERRUPTEDLY, v. To dis turb. INTERMISSION, v. To subside.

Continuity, but not duration, is denoted by these terms: incessantly is the most general and indefinite of all; it signifies without ceasing, but may be applied to things which admit of certain intervals: unceasingly is definite, and signifies never ceasing ; it cannot, therefore, be applied to what has any cessation. In familiar discourse, incessantly is an extravagant mode of speech, by which one means to denote the absence of those ordinary intervals which are to be expected; as when one says a person is incessantly talkiog; by which is understood that he does not allow himself the ordinary intervals of rest from talking: unceasingly, on the other hand, is more literally employed for a positive want of cessation; a noise is said to be unceasing which literally never ceases; or complaints are unceasing which are made without any pauses or intervals. Incessantly and unceasingly are said of things which act of themselves; uninterruptedly is said of that which depends upon other things : it rains incessantly, marks a continued operation of nature, independent of everything; but to be uninterruptedly happy, marks one's freedom from every foreign influence which is unfriendly to one's happiness. Incessantly and the other two words are employed either for persons or things; without intermission is, however, mostly employed for persons: things act and react incessantly upon one another; a man of a persevering temper goes on laboring without intermission, until he has effected his purpose.
Surfeat, misdiet, and unthrifty waste, Vaine feastes, and ydle superfluitie, All those this sence's fort assayle ineessantly.

Spencer
Impell'd, with steps unceasing, to pursue
Some fleeting good that mocks ine with the view Goldsmita
She draws a close, incumbent clond of death,
Uninterrupted by the living winds. THomson

For any one to be always in a laborious, hazardous posture of defence, without intermission, must needs be intulerahle.

SODTH.

## INCLINATION, TENDENCY, PROPENSITY, PRONENESS.

All these terms are employed to designate the state of the will toward an object: INOLINATION ( $v$. Attachment) denotes its first movement toward an object: TENDENCY (from to tend) is a continued inclination: PROPENSITY, from the Latin propensus and propendeo, to hang forward, denotes a still stronger leaning of the will; and PRONE, from the Latin pronus, downward, characterizes a habitual and fixed state of the will toward an object. The inclination expresses the leaning, but not the direction of that leaning; it may be to the right or to the left, upward or downward; consequently we may have an inclination to that which is good or bad, high or low; tendency does not specify any particular direction; but from the idea of pressing, which it conveys, it is appropriately applied to those things which degenerate or lead to what is bad; excessive strictoess in the treatment of children has a tendency to damp their spirit: propensity and proneness both designate a downward direction, and consequently refer only to that which is bad and low; a person has a propensity to drinking, and a proneness to lying.

Inclination is always at the command of the understanding; it is our duty, therefore, to suppress the first risings of any inclination to extravagance, intemperance, or any irregularity: as tendency refers to the thing rather than the person, it is our business to a void that which has a tendency to evil: the propensity will soon get the mastery of the best principles, and the firmest resolution; it is our duty, therefore, to seek all the aids which religion affords to suhdue every propensity: proneness to evil is inherent in our nature, which we derive from our first parents; it is the grace of God alone which can lift us up above this grovelling part of ourselves.

Partiality is properly the nnderstanding's judging according to the inclination of the will.

South.
The inclinations of men should frequently be thwarted.

Buhke.

Such is the propensity of our natare to vice, that stronger restraints than those of mere reason are necessary to be imposed on man. Blair.
Every commission of sin imprints upon the soul a further disposition and proneness to sin.

South
Every immoral act, in the direct tendency of it, is certainly a step downward.

SOHTH

## TO INCLOSE, INOLUDE.

From tbe Latin includo, and its participle inclusus, are derived INCLOSE and INCLUDE: the former to express the proper, and the latter the improper signification : a yard is inclosed by a wall; particular goods are ineluded in a reckoning: the kernel of a nut is inclosed in a shell; morality, as well as faith, is included in Christian perfection.
With whom she marched straight against her foes,
And then unawares besides the Severne did incloss.

Spencer.
The idea of being once present is included in the idea of its being past.

Grove
INCONSISTENT, INCONGRUOUS, INCOHERENT.
INCONSISTENT, from sisto, to place, marks the unfitness of being placed together. INCONGRUOUS, from congru, to suit, marks the unsuitableness of one thing to another. INCOHERENT, from haereo, to stick, marks the incapacity of two things to coalesce or be united to each other.

Inconsistency attaches either to the actions or sentiments of men; incongruity attaches to the modes and qualities of things ; incoherency to words or thoughts: things are made inconsistent by an act of the will; a man acts or thinks inconsistently, according to his own pleasure: incongruity depends upon the nature of the things; there is something very incongrowous in blending the solemn and decent service of the church with the extravagant rant of Mathodism: incoherence marks the want of coherence in that which ought to follow in a train; extem. porary effusions from the pulpit are often distinguished most by their incoherence.

[^72]Be but a person in credit with the multitude, he shall be able to make rambliag incoherent stuff pass for high rhetoric.

Souta.

## TO INCONVENIENCE, ANNOY, MOLEST.

To INCONVENIENCE is to make not convenient (v. Convenient). To ANNOY, from the Latin noceo, to hurt, is to do some hurt to. To MOLEST, from the Latin moles, a mass or weight, signifies to press with a weight.

We inconvenience in small matters, or by omitting such things as might be convenient ; we annoy or molest by doing that which is positively painful: we are inconvenienced by a person's absence; we are annoyed by his presence if he renders himself offensive: we are inconvenienced by what is temporary; we are annoyed by that which is either temporary or durable; we are molested hy that which is weighty and oppressive; we are inconvenienced simply in regard to our circumstances; we are annoyed mostly in regard to our corporeal feelings; we are molested mostly in regard to our minds: the removal of a seat or a book may inconvenience one who is engaged in business; the buzzing of a fly, or the stinging of a gnat, may annoy; the impertinent freedom, or the rude insults of ill-disposed persons, may molest.

I have often been tempted to inquire what happiness is to be gained, or what inconvenience to be avoided, by this stated recession from the town in the summer season.

Johnson.
Against the capitol I met a lion,
Who glar'd upon me, and went surly by, Without annoying me.

Sbakgreare.
See all with skill acquire their daily food, Produce their tender progeny, and feed
With care parental, while that care they need, In these lov'd offices completely blest,
No hopes beyond them, nor vain fears molest.
JENYNS.

## INCORPOREAL, UNBODIED, IMMATERI-

 AL, SPIRITUAL.INCORPOREAL, from corpus, a body, marks the quality of not belonging to the body, or having any properties in common with it; UNBODIED denotes the state of being without the body, or not inclosed in a body: a thing may therefore be incorporeal without being unbodied; but not vice versa: the soul of man is incorporreal, but not unbodied, during his natural life.

Of sense, whereby they hear, see, smell, touch taste, Tasting, concoct, digest, assimilate, And corporeal to incorporeal turn. MnTon. Th' unbodied spirit flies And lodges where it lights, in man or beast.

DRyDEN.
Incorporeal is always used in regard to living things, particularly by way of com. parison, with corporeal or human beings: hence we speak of incorporeal agency, or incorporeal agents, in reference to such beings as are supposed to act in this world without the help of the body; but IMMATERIAL is applied to inanimate objects; men are corporeal as men, spirits are incorporeal; the body is the material part of man, the soul his immaterial part: whatever external object acts upon the senses is material; but the action of the mind on itself, and its results, are all immaterial: the earth, sun, moon, etc., are termed material; but the impressions which they make on the mind, that is, our ideas of them, are immaterial.
Sense and perception must necessarily proceed from some incorporeal substance within us.

Bentley.
O thon great arbiter of life and death,
Nature's immortal, immaterial sun!
Thy call I follow to the land unknown. Yodno.
The incorporeal and immaterial have always a relative sense; the SPIRITUAL is that which is positive : God is a spiritual, not properly an incorporeal nor immaterial being: the angels are like. wise designated, in general, as the spir. itual inhabitants of heaven; although, when spoken of in regard to men, they may be denominated incorporeal.

## Thus incorporeal spirits to smallest forms

 Reduc'd their shapes immense.Militon.
Echo is a great argument of the spiritual essence of sounds, for if it were corporeal, the repercussion shoold be created by like instruments with the original sound.

Bacon.

## TO INCREASE, GROW.

INCREASE, from the Latin in and cresco, signifies to grow upon or grow to a thing, to become one with it. GROW, in Saxon growan, is very probably connected with the Latin crevi, perfect of cresco.

The idea of becoming larger is common to both these terms: but the former expresses the idea in an unqualified manner: and the latter annexes to this gen-

## INCREASE

eral idea also that of the mode or process by which this is effected. To increase is either a gradual or an instantaneous act ; to grow is a gradual procesa: a stream increases by the addition of other waters; it may come auddenly or in course of time, by means of gentle showers or the rushing in of other atreams; but if we say that the river or atream grows, it is supposed to grow by aome regular and continual process of receiving freah water, aa from the running iu of different rivulets or amaller streams. To increase is either a natural or an artificial process; to grow is always natural : money encreases, but does not grow, because it increases by artificial meana: corn may either increase or grow: in the former case we speak of it in the aense of becoming larger or increasing in bulk; in the latter case we conaider the mode of its increasing, namely, by the natural proceas of vegetation. On this ground we aay that a child grows, when we wish to denote the natural process by which hia body arrives at its proper size; but we may speak of his increasing in stature, in size, and the like. For this rcason likewige increase is used in a transitive as well as intransitive sense; but grow alwaya in an intransitive sense: we can increase a thing, though not properly grow a thing, because we can make it larger by whatever means we please; but when it grows it makes itself larger.
Then, as her strength with years increas'd, began
To pierce aloft in air the soaring swan.
Dhyden.
Some trees their birth to hounteous uature owe, For some without the pains of planting grow.
dhiden.
In their improper acceptation these words preserve the aame distinction: "trade increases" bespeaks the simple fact of its becoming larger; but "trade grows" implies that gradual increase which flows from the natural concurrence of circumstances. The affections which are awakened in infancy grow with one's growth; here is a natural and moral process combined. The fear of death sometimes increases as one grows old; the courage of a truly brave man increases with the aight of danger: bere is a moral procese which is both gradual
and immediate, but in both cases pro. duced by some foreign cauae.
The strawberry orows underneath the nettle, And wholesome berries thrive and ripen best Neighbor'd by fruit of baser quality:
And so the prince obscur'd his contemplation Under the veil of wildness; which no doubt
Grew, like a summer grass, fastest by night.
Sharbpeare.
Such lnnocent creatures are they, and so great strangers to the world, that they think this a likely method to increase the number of their admirers.

Addison.

## INCREASE, ADDITION, ACCESSION, aUGMENTATION.

INCREASE is here, as in the former article, the generic term ( $v$. To increase): there will alwaya be increase where there is AUGMENTATION, ADDITION, and ACCESSION, though not vice versa.

Addition is to increase as the meana to the end: the addition is the artificial mode of making two things into one; the increase is the reault: when the value of one figure is added to another, the aum is increased; hence a man'a treasures expericnce an increase by the addition of other parts to the main atock. Addition is an intentional mode of increasing; accession is an accidental mode: one thing is added to another, and thereby increased; but an accession takea place of itself; it ia the coming or joining of one thing to another ao as to increase the whole. A merchant increases his property by adding his gains in trade every year to the mass; but he receives an accession of property either by inheritance or any other contingency. In the aame manner a monarch increases his dominions by adding one territory to another, or by various accessions of territory which fall to his lot. When we apeak of an increase, we think of the whole and ita relative magnitude at different times; when we speak of an addition, we think only of the part and the agency by which this part is joined; when we apeak of an accession, we think only of the circumatance by which one thing becomes thus joined to another. Increase of happiness does not depend upon increase of wealth; the miser makes daily additions to the latter without making any to the former: sudden accessions of wealth are seldom attended with any good consequences, as they turn the thoughts too violently out of their aober channel, and bend them too
strongly on present possessions and goodfortune.

At will I crop the year's increase, My latter life is rest and peace.

Dryinen.
The ill state of health into which Tullla ia fallen is a very severe addeition to the many and great disquietudes that afflict my mind.

Melmoth's Letteas of Cicero.
There is nothing in my opinion more pleasing in religion than to consider that the soul is to , hhine forever with new accessions of glory.

Adpison.
Augmentation is a mode of increasing not merely in quantity or number, but also in value or in the essential ingredient of a thing; it is therefore applied for the most part to the increase of a man's estate, possessions, family, income, or whatever is desirable.

He who augments his aubstance, although he spends little, wastes away like a medicine applied to weak eyes. Riches not employed are of no use.

Sie W. Jonez'a Hitopadega.
It may also be applied to moral objects, as hopes, fears, joys, etc., with a like distinctioa.

Though fortune change, his constant eponse remains,
Augments his joys or mitigates his pains.
Pope.
Ambitions Turnus In the press appears, And aggravating crimes, augments their fears.

Dfyden.

## INDEBTED, OBLIGED.

INDEBTED is more binding and positive than OBLIGED: we are indebted to whoever confers an essential service: we are obliged to him who does us any service. A man is indebted to another for the preservation of his life; he is obliged to him for an ordinary act of civility : a debt, whether of legal or moral right, must in justice be paid; an obligation which is only moral, ought in reason to be returned. We may be indebted to things ; we are obliged to persoos only: we are indebted to Christianity, not only for a superior faith, but also for a superior spstem of morality; we ought to be obliged to our friends who admonish us of our faults with a friendly temper. A nation may be indebted to an individual, but men are obliged to each other only as individuals: the English nation is indebted to Alfred for the groundwork of its constitution; the little courtesies which pass between friends in their social intercourse with
each other lay them under obligations which it is equally agreeable to receive and to pay.

## A grateful mind

By owing owes not, hat still pays at once Indebted and discharg'd.

Milton.
We are each of us so civil and obliging, that neither thinks he is obliged.

## INDECENT, IMMODEST, INDELICATE.

INDECENT is the contrary of decent (v. Becoming), IMMODEST the contrary of modest (v. Modest), INDELICATE the contrary of delicate (v. Fine).

Indecency and immodesty violate the fundamental principles of morality: the former, bowever, io external matters, as dress, words, and looks; the latter in conduct and disposition, a person may be indecent for want of either knowing or thinking better; but a female cannot be immodest without radical corruption of principle. Indecency may be a partial, immodesty is a positive and entire breach of the moral law. Indecency belongs to both sexes; immodesty is peculiarly applicable to the misconduct of females.

The Dubistan contains more lngenuity and wit, more indecency and blasphemy, than I ever saw collected in one single volume. Sir W. Jones.
Immodest words admit of no defence,
For want of decency is want of sense.
Roecommon.
Indecency is less than immodesty, but more than indelicacy: they both respect the outward behavior; but the former springs from illicit or uncurbed desire; indelicacy from the want of education. It is a great indecency for a man to marry again very quickly after the death of his wife; but a still greater indecency for a woman to put such an affront on her deceased husband: it is a great indelicacy in auy one to break in upon the retirement of such as are in sorrow and mourning. It is indecent for females to expose their persons as many do whom we cannot call immodest women; it is indelicate for females to engage in masculine exercises.

Your papers wonld be chargeable with something worse than indelicacy, did you treat the detestable sin of uncleanness in the same manner as yon rally self-love.

Spectator

## INDIFFERENCE, INSENSIBILITY,

 APATHY.INDIFFERENCE signifies no differ ence; that is, having no difference of feet
ing for one thing more than another. IN. SENSIBILITY, from sense and able, signifies incapable of feeling. APATHY, from the Greek privative $a$ and $\pi a \theta$ os, feeling, implies without feeling.

Indifference is a partial state of the mind; insensibility and apathy are general states of the mind; he who has indifference is not to be awakened to feeling by some objects, though he may by others; but he who has not sensibility is incapable of feeling; and he who has apathy is without any feeling. Indifference is mostly a temporary state ; insensibility is either a temporary or a permanent state; apathy is always a permanent state: indifference is either acquired or accidental ; insensibility is either produced or natural ; apathy is natural. A person may be in a state of indifference about a thing the value of which be is not aware of, or acquire an indifference for that which be knows to be of comparatively little value: be may be in a state of insensibility from some lethargic torpor which bas seized his mind; or he may have a babitual insensibility arising either from the contractedness of his powers, or the physical bluntness of his understanding and deadness of his passions; his apathy is born with him, and forms a prominent feature in the constitution of his mind.

I conld never prevall with myself to exchange joy and sorrow for a state of constant, tasteless indifference.

Hoadey.
I look upon Isens not only as the most eloquent, hut the most happy of men; as I shall esteem yon the most insensible if you appear to alight his acquaintance.

Melmoth's Letters of Pliny.
To remain insensible of such provocations Is not constancy, bnt apathy.

Sovtr.
INDIFFERENT, UNCONCERNED, REGARDLESS.
INDIFFERENT ( $v$. Indifference) marks the want of inclination: UNCONCERNED, that is, having no concern ( $v$. Care), and REGARDLESS, that is, without regard (v. Care), mark the want of serious consideration. Irdifferent respects only the will, unconcerned either the will or the understanding, regardless the understanding only: we are indifferent about matters of minor consideration; we are unconcerned or regardless about serious patters that have remote consequences :
an author will seldom be indifferent about the success of his work; be ought not to be unconcerned about the influence which his writings may have on the public, or regardless of the estimation in which his own character as a man may be held. To be indifferent is sometimes an act of wisdom or virtue; to be unconcerned or re. gardless is mostly an act of folly or a wreach of duty.

As an author I am perfectly indifferent to the judgment of all except the few who are reat ly judicious.

Cowper
Not the most cruel of our conquering foes,
So unconcern'dly can relate our woes.
Denhay.
Regardless of my words, he no reply Returns.

Dryden

## INDIGNITY, INSULT.

INDIGNITY, from the Latin dignus, worthy, signifying unworthy treatment, respects the feeling and condition of the person offended; INSULT (v. Affront) respects the temper of the offending party. We measure the indignity in our own mind; it depends upon the consciousness we have of our own worth: we measure the insult by the disposition which is discovered in another to degrade us. Persons in high stations are peculiarly exposed to indignities: persons in cvery station may be exposed to insults. Indignities may, however, be offered to persons of all ranks; but in this case it always consists of more violence than a simple insult ; it would be an indignity to a person of any rank to be compelled to do any office which belongs only to a beast of burden.
The two caziques made Montezuma's officers prisoners, and treated them with great indignity.

Robertson.
Narvaez having learned that Cortez was now advanced with a small body of men, considered this as ant insult which merited immediate chastisement.

Robertson.

## INDISTINCT, CONFUSED.

INDISTINCT is negative; it marks simply the want of distinctness: CONFUSED is positive; it marks a positive degree of indistinctness. A thing may be indistinct without being confused; but it cannot be confused without being indistinct: two things may be indistinct, or not easily distinguished from each other; but many things, or parts of the same
things, are confused: two letters in a word may be indistinct; but the whole of a writing or many words are confused: sounds are indistinct which reach our ears only in part; but they are confused if they come in great numbers and out of all order. We see objects indistinctly when we cannot see all the features by which they would he distinguished from other objects: we see them confusedly when every part is so blended with the other that no one feature can be distinguished; by means of great distance objects become indistinct; from a defect in sight objects become more confused.

[^73]INDOLENT, v. Idle, lazy. SUPINE, in Latin supinus, from super, above, signifies lying on one's hack, or with one's face upward, which, as it is the action of a lazy or idle person, has been made to represent the qualities themselves. LISTLESS, without list, in German lust, desire, signifies without desire. CARELESS signifies without care or concern.

These terms represent a diseased or unnatural state of the mind, when its desires, which are the springs of action, are in a relaxed and torpid state, so as to prevent the necessary degree of exertion. Indolence has a more comprehensive meaning than supineness, and this signifies more than listlessness, or carelessness: indolence is a general indisposition of a person to exert either his mind or his body; supineness is a similar indisposition that shows itself on particular occasions: there is a corporeal as well as a mental cause for indolence; but supineness lies principally in the mind: corpulent and large-made people are apt to be indolent; but timid and gentle dispositions are apt to be supine.

[^74]Too indolent to learn what may be known, Or else too proud that ignorance to own.

Jenyma
With what nnequal tempers are we fram'd I One day the soul, supine with ease and fnlness Revels secure.

Roves.
The indolent and supine are not, how. ever, like the listless, expressly without desire: an indolent or supine man has desire enough to enjoy what is within his reach, although not always sufficient desire to surmount the aversion to labor in trying to obtain it; the listless man, on the contrary, is altogether without the desire, and is, in fact, in a state of moral torpor, which is, bowever, but a temporary or partial state arising from particular circumstances; after the mind has been wrought up to the highest pitch, it will sometimes sink into a state of relas. ation in which it ceases to have appar. ently any active principle within itself.

Sullen, methinks, and slow the morning breaks, As if tho snn were listless to appear. Dirdes.

Carelessness expresses less than any of the above; for though a man who is indolent, supine, and listless, is naturally careless, yet carclessness is properly applicable to such as heve no such positive disease of mind or body. Carelessness is rather an error of the understanding, or of the conduct, than the will; since the careless would care, be concerned for, or interested ahout things, if he could be brought to reflect on their importance, or if he did not for a time forget him. self.
Pert love with her by joint commission rules, Who by false arts and popular deceits, The careless, fond, unthinking mortal cheats.

Pompret.
INDUBITABLE, UNQUESTIONABLE, IN. disputable, UNDENIABLE, INCONtrovertible, irrefragable.
INDUBITABLE signifies admitting of no douht ( $v$. Doubt); UNQUESTIONABLE, admitting of no question (v. Doubt); INDISPUTABLE, admitting of no dispute (v. To controvert); UNDENIABLE, not to be denied (v. To deny, disown); INCONTROVERTIBLE, not to be controverted ( $v$. To controvert); IRREFRA. GABLE, from frango, to break, signifies not to be broken; destroyed, or done away. These terms are all opposed to uncer

## INFAMY

tainty; but they do not imply absolute certainty, for they all express the strong persuasion of a person's mind rather than the absolute nature of the thing: when a fact is supported by such evidence as admits of no kind of doubt, it is termed indubitable; when the truth of an assertion rests on the authority of a man whose character for integrity stands unimpeached, it is termed unquestionable authority; when a thing is believed to exist on the evidence of every man's senses, it is termed undeniable; when a sentiment has always been held as either true or false, without dispute, it is termed indisputable; when arguments have never been controverted, they are termed incontrovertible; and when they have never been satisfactorily answered, they are termed irrefragable.
A full or a thin house will indubitably express the sense of a majority. Hawkeswonth.
From the runquestionable documents and dictates of the law of nature, I shsll evince the obligation lying upon every man to show gratitude.

South,
Truth, knowing the indispulable clsim she has to all that is called resson, thinks it below her to ask that npon courtesy in which alee can plesd a property.

Sodta.
So undeniable is the truth of this (viz., the hardness of our duty), that the scene of virtue ia laid in our ustural sverseness to things excellent.

South.
Onr distinction mnst rest upon a stesdy sdhereace to the incontrovertible rules of virtue.

Blata.
There is none who wsiles so surely, snd upon snch irrefragable grounds of prudence, as he who is religioua.

South.

## INDULGENT, FOND.

INDULGENOE (v. To gratify) lies more in forbearing from the exercise of authority; FONDNESS ( $v$, Amorous) in the outward bebavior and endearments: they may both arise from an excess of kindness or love; but the former is of a less objectionable character tban the latter. Indulgence may be sometimes wrong; but fondness is seldom right: an indulgent parent is seldom a prudent parent; but a fond parent does not rise above a fool: all who have the care of young people should occasionally relax from the strictness of the disciplinarian, and show an indulgence where a suitable opportunity offers; a fond mother takes
away from the value of indulgences by an invariable compliance with the humors of her children.

He compares prosperity to the indulgence of a fond mother to s child, which often proves its ruin.

ADDISON.
However, when applied generally or abstractedly, they are both taken in a good sense.
God then thro' sll crestion gives, we find, Sufficient marks of sn indulgent mind.

JENTNE.
While, for awhile, his fond psterusl care
Feasts us with ev'ry joy our state can hear.
Jenyns.

## INEAMOUS, SCANDALOUS.

INFAMOUS, like infamy (v. Infamy), is applied to both persons and things; SCANDALOUS, only to things: a character is infamous, or a transaction is infamous; but a transaction only is scandalous. Infamous and scandalous are both said of that which is calculated to excite great displeasure in the minds of all who hear it, and to degrade the offenders in the general estimation; but the infamous seems to be tbat which produces greater publicity, and more general reprehension, than the scandalous; consequently is that which is more serious in its nature, and a greater violation of good morals. Some men of daring character render themselves infamous by their violence, their rapine, and their murders; the trick which was played upon the subscribers to the South Sea Company was a scandalous fraud.

There ls no crime more infamous than the violation of truth.

Johnson.
It is a very great, though sad and ecandalous truth, that rich men are esteemed and honored, while the ways by which they grow rich are abhorred.

Softe,
INFAMY, IGNOMINY, OPPROBRIUM.
INFAMY is the opposite to good fame; it consists in an evil report. IGNOMINY, from the privative in and nomen, a name, signifies an ill name, a stained name. OPPROBRIUM, a Latin word, compounded of $o p$ or $o b$ and probrum, signifies the highest degree of reproach or stain.

The idea of discredit or disgrace in the higbest possible degree is common to all these terms: but infamy is that which
attaches either to the person or to the thing; ignominy is thrown upon the person; and spprobrium is thrown upon the agent rather than the action. Infamy causes either the person or thing to be ill spoken of by all; abhorrence of both is expressed by every mouth, and the ill report spreads from mouth to mouth: ignominy causes the name and the person to be held in contempt; it becomes debased in the eyes of others: opprobrium causes the person to be spoken of in severe terms of reproach, and to be shunned as something polluted. The infamy of a traitorous proceeding is inoreased by the addition of ingratitude; the ignominy of a public punishment is inoreased by the wickedness of the offender; opprobrium sometimes falls upon the innocent, when circumstances seem to convict them of guilt.

The shars of infamy that is likely to fall to the lot of each individual in public acts is small indeed.

Burke.
When they saw that they submitted to the most ignominious and cruel deaths rather then retract their teatimony, or even be silent in matters, which they were to publish by their Savlour's especial command, there was no reason to doubt of the veracity of those facts which they releted.

ADDISON.
Nor he their outward only with the skins Of beasts, bnt Inward nakedness much more Opprobrious, with hiy rebe of righteousnees Arraying, cover'd from his fathor's sight.

Milton.

## INFLUENCE, AUTHORITY, ASCENDENCY, OR ASCENDANT, SWAY.

INFLUENCE, v. Credit. AUTHORITY, in Latin auctoritas, from auctor, the author or prime mover of a thing, signities that power which is vested in the prime mover of any business. ASCENDENCY, from ascend, signifies having the upper hand. SWAY, like our word swing and the German schweben, comes from the Hebrew $z a$, to move.

These terms imply power, under differont circoumstances: influence is altogeth3r unconnected with any right to direct; authority includes the idea of right necessarily; superiority of rank, talent, or property, personal attachment, and a variety of circumstances, give infucence; it commonly acts by persuasion, "and employs engaging manners, so as to determine in favor of what is proposed: su-
perior wisdom, age, office, and relation, give authority; it determines of itself, it requires no collateral aid: ascendency and sway are modes of influence, differing only in degree; they both imply an excessive and improper degree of influence over the mind, independent of reason: the former is, however, more gradual in its process, and consequently more confirmed in its nature; the latter may be only tempora. ry, but may be more violent. A person employs many arts, and for a length of time, to gain the ascendency; but he exerts a sway by a violent stretch of power. It is of great importance for those who have influence to conduct themselves consistently with their rank and station: men are apt to regard the warnings and admonitions of a true friend as an odious assumption of authority, while they voluntarily give themselves up to the ascendency which a valet or a mistress has gained over them, who, exert the most unwarrantable sway to serve their own interested and vicious purposes.

Ths influencs of France ea a repuhlic is equal to a wer.

Btrice.
Without the force of authority the power of soldiers grows pernicions to their master.

Temple,
By the asoendant he had in his understand. ing, end the dexterity of his nature, he conld persuade him very much.

Clarendon.
France, since her revolution, is under the sway of a sect, wbose leaders, at one stroks, have demolished the whole body of jurisprudence.

Butars.
Influence and ascendency are said likewise of things as well as persons: true religion will have an influence not only on the outward conduct of a man, but on the inward affections of his heart; and that man is truly happy in whose mind it has the ascendency over every other principle.

Religion hath so great an inftuence npon the felicity of man, that it ought to be upheld, not only out of dread of divine vengeance in another world, but out of regard to temporal prosperity.

Thlotson.
If you allow any passion, even though it be esteemed innocent, to acquirs an absolute ascendant, your inward peace will be impaired. Blaig.

## TO INFQRM, MAKE KNOWN, ACQUAINT, APPRISE.

The idea of bringing to the knowledge of one or more persons is common to all

## INFORM

these terms. INFORM, from the Latin informo, to fashion the mind, comprehends this general idea only, without the addition of any collateral idea; it is therefore the generic term, and the rest specific: to inform is to communicate what has lately bappened, or the contrary; but to MAKE KNOWN is to bring to light what has long been known and purposely concealed: to inform is to communicate directly or indirectly to one or many; to make known is mostly to communicate indirectly to many: one informs the public of one's intentions, by means of an advertisement in one's own name; one makes known a fact through a circuitons channel, and withont any name.
Oar ruin, by thee inform' $d$, I leari. Milton.
But fools, to talking ever prone,
Are sure to make their follies known. Gar.
To inform may be either a personal address or otherwise; to ACQUAINT and APPRISE are immediate and personal communications. One informs the government, or any public body, or one informs one's friends; one acquaints or apprises only one's friends, or particular individuals: one is informed of that which either concerns the informant, or the person informed; one acquaints a person with, or apprises him of, such things as peculiarly concern himself, but the latter in more specific circumstances than the former: one informs a correspondent by letter of the day on which he may expect to receive his order, or of one's own wishes with regard to an order; one acquaints a father with all the circumstances that respect his son's conduct: one apprises a friend of a bequest that has been made to him; one informs the magistrate of any irregularity that passes; one acquaints the master of a family with the misconduct of his servants: one apprises a person of the time when he will be obliged to appear.

The journey of my daughters to town was now resolved upon, Mr. Thornhill having kindly promised to inspect their conduct himself and inform us by letter of their behavior.

GoLdsmith.
If any man lives under a minister that doth not act according to the rules of the gospel, it is his own fault, in that he doth not acquaint the bishop with it.

BEVERIDOE.
You kuow, without my telling yon, with what neal I have recommended you to Czsar, although
you may not be apprised that I have frequeutly written to his upon that subject.

Melmoty's Letters of Creero.
Inform may be applied figuratively to things; the other terms to persons only in the proper sense.

Religion informs us that misery and sin were produced together.

Johnson

## TO INFORM, INSTRUCT, TEACH.

The communication of knowledge in general is the common idea by which these words are connected with each othor. INFORM is here, as in the preceding article (v. To inform, make known), the general tern; the other two are specific terms. To inform is the act of persons in all conditions ; to INSTRUCT and TEACH are the acts of superiors, either on one ground or another: one $i n$ forms by virtue of an accidental superiority or priority of knowledge; one instructs by virtue of superior knowledge or superior station; one teaches by virtue of superior knowledge, rather than of station: diplomatic agents inform their governments of tive political transactions in which they have been concerned; government instructs its different functionaries and officers in regard to their mode of proceeding; professors and preceptors teach those who attend public schools to learn. To inform is applicable to matters of general interest: we may inform ourselves or others on anything which is a subject of inquiry or curiosity; and the information serves either to amuse or to improve the mind : to instruct is applicable to matters of serious concern, or to that which is practically useful; a parent instructs his child in the course of conduct he should pursue: to teach respects matters of art and science; the learner depends upon the teacher for the formation of his mind, and the establishment of his principles.

While we only desire to have our ignorance informed, we are most delighted with the plain. est diction. JOHNSON.
Not Thracian Orpheus should transcend my lays, Nor Linus, crown'd with never-fading bays: Though each his heav'nly parent should inspire, The Muse inetruct the voice, and Phcebus tune the lyre.

Dryden.
He that teaches us anythidg which we knew not before is undonhtedly to be reverenced as a master.

Johnson,

To inform and to teach are employed for things as well as persons; to instruct only for persons: books and reading inform the mind; history or experience teaches mankind.
The long speeches rather confonnded than informed his understanding. Clarendon.

Nature is no sufficient teacher what we should do that we may attain unto life everlasting.

Ноокеа.

## INFORMANT, INFORMER.

These two epithets, from the verb to inform, have acquired by their application an important distinction. The INFORMANT being he who informs for the benefit of others, and the INFORMER to the molestation of others. What the informant communicates is for the benefit of the individual, and what the informer communicates is for the benefit of the whole. The informant is thanked for his civility in making the communication; the informer undergoes a great deal of odium, but is thanked by no one, not even by those who employ him. We may all be informants in our turn, if we know of anything of which another may be informed; but none are informers who do not inform against the transgressors of any law.
Aye (says onr artist's informant), but at the same time he declared you (Hogarth) were as good a portrait-painter as Vandyke.

## Pileington-

Every member of society feels and acknowledges the necessity of detecting crimes, yet scarce any degree of virtue or reputation is able to secure an informer from public hatred. JoHNsen.

## information, intelligence, noTICE, ADVICE.

INFORMATION (v. To inform) signifies the thing of which one is informed: INTELLIGENCE, from the Latin intelligo, to understand, signifies that by which one is made to mederstand: NOTICE, from the Latin notitia, is that which brings a circumstance to our knowledge: ADVICE ( $v$. Advice) signifies that which ls made known. These terms come very near to each other in signification, but differ in application: information is the most general and indefinite of all; the three others are but modes of information. Whatever is communicated to us is information, be it public or private, open or concealed; notice, intelligence, and
advice are mostly public, but particularly the former. Information and notice may be communicated by word of mouth or by writing; intelligence is mostly communicated by writing or printing; advices are mostly sent by letter: information is mostly an informal mode of communication; notice, intelligence, and advice are mostly formal communications. A servant gives bis master information, or one friend sends another information from the country; magistrates or officers give notice of such things as it concerns the public to know and to observe; spies give intelligence of all that passes under their notice; or intelligence is given in the public prints of all that passes worthy of notice: a military commander sends advice to his government of the operations which are going forward un. der his direction; or one merchant gives advice to another of the state of the market. Intelligence, as the first intimation of an interesting event, ought to be early ; advices, as entering into details, ought to be clear and particular; official advices often arrive to contradict non-official intelligence.
There, centring in a focus round and neat,
Let all your rays of information meet.
Cowpe亚.
My lion, whose Jaws are at all hours open to intelligence, informs me that there are a fen enormous weapons still in being. Stekle.

## At his years

Death gives short notice.
тномson.
As he was dictating to his hearers with great authority, there came in a gentleman from Garraway's, who told us that there were several letters from France Just come in, with advice that the king was in good health.

ADDISON.
Information and intelligence, when applied as characteristics of men, have a further distinction : the man of information is so denominated only on account of his knowledge; but a man of intelli. gence is so denominated on account of his understanding as well as experience and information. It is not possible to be intelligent without information; but we may be well informed without being remarkable for intelligence: a man of information may be an agreeable companion, and fitted to maintain conversation; but an intelligent man will be an instructive companion, and most fitted for conducting business.

I lamanted that any man possessing such a und of informution, with a benevolence of soul that comprehended all mankind, a temper most placid, and a heart most social, should suffer in the world's opinion by that obscurity, to which his ill fortune, not his disposition, had reduced him.

Cumberland.
If a man were pure intelligence, no ceremonies would be either necessary or proper; but when we reflect that he is composed of hody and soul, and that a great part of his knowledge comes througli the medium of his seoses, we cannot but allow that some accommodation to this compound condition of his nature is advisable in prescribing a form for the direction of his publie devotions.

Gadnt.

## TO INFRINGE, VIOLATE, TRANSGRESS.

INFRINGE, from frango, to break, signifies to break into. VIOLATE, from the Latin vis, force, signifies to break with force. TRANSGRESS, from trans and gredior, signifies to go beyond, or farther than we ought.

Civil and moral laws and rights are infringed by those who act in opposition to them: treaties and engagements are violated by those who do not hold them sacred : the bounds which are prescribed by the moral law are transgressed by those who are guilty of any excess. It is the business of government to see that the rights and privileges of individuals or particular hodies be not infringed; policy but too frequently runs counter to equity; where the particular interests of states are more regarded than the dictates of conscience, treaties and compacts are violated: the passions, when not kept under proper control, will ever hurry on meu to transgress the limits of right reason.

Women have natural and equitable clalms as well as men, and those claims are not to be capriciously superseded or infringed. Johnson.
No violatsd leagues wilh sharp remorse
Shall sting the conscious victor. Somerville.
Why hast thon, Satan, broke the bounds prescrib'd
To thy transgressions : Milton.

## INFRINOEMENT, INFRACTION.

INFRINGEMENT and INFRACTION, which are both derived from the Latin verb infringo or frango ( $v$. To infringe), are employed according to the different senses of the verb infringe: the former being applied to the rights of individuals, either in their domestic or public capacity; and the latter rather to national
transactions. Politeness, which teachen us what is due to every man in the small. est concerns, considers any unasked-for interference in the private affairs of another as an infringement. Equity, which enjoins on nations as well as individuals an attentive consideration to the interests of the whole, forbids the infraction of a treaty in any case.
We see with Orestes (or rather with Sophocles), that "it is fit that such gross infringements of the moral law (as parricide) should be punished with death."

Maceenzie.
No people can, without the infraction of the universal league of social beings, incite those practices in another dominion which they would themselves punish in their own.

Johngon.

## ingendity, wit.

INGENUITY, v. Ingenuous. WIT, from the German wissen, to know, signifies knowledge or understanding.
Both these terms imply acuteness of understanding, and differ mostly in its mode of displaying itself. Ingenuity comprehends invention; wit is the fruit of the imagination, which forms new and sudden conceptions of things. One is ingenious in matters either of art or science; one is witty only in matters of sentiment: things may, therefore, be ingen. ious, but not witty; or witty, but not ingenious; or both witty and ingenious. A mechanical invention, or any ordinary contrivance, is ingenious, but not witly: we say, an ingenious, not a witty solution of a difficulty ; a flash of wit, not a flash of ingenuity: a witty humor, a witty conversation; not an ingenious humor or conversation: on the other hand, a thought is ingenious, as it displays acuteness of intellect and aptness to the subject; it is witty, inasmuch as it contains point, and strikes on the understanding of others. Ingenuity is expressed by means of words, or shows itself in the act ; mechanical contrivances display ingenuity: wit can be only expressed by words; some men are happy in the display of their wit in conversation.

The people of Trapanal are esteemed the most ingenious of the island; they are the authors of many useful and ornamental inventions.

Brydone.
Wit consists chiefly in Joining things by distant and fanciful relations, which surprise os because thay are unexpected,

Kamiga,

Sometimes the word wit is applied to the operations of the intellect generally, which brings it still nearer in sense to ingenuity, but in this case it always implies a quick and sharp intellect as compared with ingenuity, which may be the result of long thought, or be employed on graver matters.
The more ingenious men are, the more apt they are to trouble themselves.

Temple.
When I broke loose from that great body of writers, who have employed their wit and parts In propagating vice and irreligion, I did not question but 1 should be treated as an odd kind of fellow.

AdDISON.

## LNGENUOUS, INGENIOUS.

Ir would not have been necessary to point out the distinction between these two words, if they had not been confounded in writing, as well as in speaking. INGENUOUS, in Latin ingenuus, and INGENIOUS, in Latin ingeniosus, are, either immediately or remotely, both derived from ingigno, to be inborn; but the former respects the freedom of the station and consequent nobleness of the character which is inborn: the latter respects the genius or mental powers which are inborn. Truth is coupled with freedom or nobility of birth; the ingenuous, therefore, bespeaks the inborn freedom, by asserting the noblest right, and following the noblest impulse, of human nature, namely, that of speaking the truth; genius is altogether a natural endowment, that is, born with ns, independent of external circumstances; the iongenious man, therefore, displays his powers as occasion may offer. We love the ingenuous character on account of the qualities of his heart; we admire the ingenious man on account of the endowments of his mind. One is ingenuous as a man, or ingenious as an author: a man confesses an action ingenuously; he defends it ingeniously.

Compare the ingenuous pliahleness to virtuous counsels which is in youth, to the conflimed obstinacy in an old sinner.

Souti.
Ingenious to their ruin, every age
Improves the arts and instruments of rage.
Wallea.
INHERENT, INBRED, INBORN, INNATE.
The INHERENT, from hereo, to stick, denotes a permanent quality or property, as opposed to that which is adventitious
and transitory. INBRED denotes that which is derived principally from habit or by a gradual process, as opposed to what is acquired by actual efforts. IN. BORN denotes that which is purely nat ural, in opposition to the artificial. Inherent is the most general in its sense; for what is inbred and inborn is naturally inherent; but all is not inbred and inborn which is inherent. Inanimate objects have inherent properties; but the inbred and inborn exist only in that which receives life ; solidity is an inherent, but not an inbred or inborn, property of mat. ter: a love of truth is an innate property of the buman mind; it is consequently inherent, inasmuch as nothing can totally destroy it. That which is in. bred is bred or nurtured in us from our birth; that which is inborn is simply born in us: a property may be inborn, but not inbred; it cannot, however, be inbred and not inborn. Habits, which are ingrafted into the natural disposition, are properly inbred. Propensities, on the other hand, which are totally independent of education or external circumstances, are properly inborn, as an inborn love of freedom; hence, likewise, the properties of animals are inbred in them, inasmuch as they are derived through the medium of the breed of which the parent partakes.
When my new mind had no infusion known, Thou gav'st so deep a tincture of thine own, That ever since I vainly try
To wash away th' inherent dye. Cowley.
But he, my inbred enemy, Forth issu'd, brandishing his fatal dart, Made to destroy; I fled, and cried out death !

Milton.
Inborn and INNATE, from the Latin natus, born, are precisely the same in meaning, yet they differ somewhat in application. Poetry and the grave style have adopted inborn; philosophy has adopted innate: genius is inborn in some men; nobleness is inborn in others: there is an inborn talent in some men to command, and an inborn fitness in others to obey. Mr. Locke and his followers are pleased to say there is no such thing as innate ideas: and if they only mean that there are no sensible impressions on the soul, until it is acted upon by external objects, they may be right: but if they mean to say that there are no inborn characters or powers in the soul, which
predispose it for the reception of certain impressions, they contradict the experience of the learned and the unlearned in all ages, who believe, and that from close observstion on themselves and others, thes man has, from bis birth, not only the general character which belongs to him in common with his species, but also those peculiar characteristics which distinguish individuals from their earliest mfancy: all these characters or charscteristics are, therefore, not supposed to be produced, but elicited, hy circumstances; and ideas, which are but the sensible forms that the soul assumes in its connection with the body, are, on that sccount, in vulgar language termed innate.
Despair, and secret shame, and conscious thought Of Inborn worth, his lab'ring soul oppress'd.

Dayaen.
Grant these inventions of the crafty priest, Yet snch inventlons never could snbsist, Unless some glimmerings of a future state Were with the mind coeval and innate.

Jeny ns.
INJURY, DAMAGE, HURT, HARM, MISCHIEF.
All these terms are employed to denote what is done to the disadvantage of any person or thing.

The term INJURY (v. Disadvantage) sometimes includes the idea of violence, or of an act done contrary to law or right, as to inflict or receive an injury, to redress injuries, etc.

It would be wronging him and you to condemn him withoat examination; if there be injury, there shall be redress.

Injury is often taken in the general sense of what makes a thing otherwise than it ought to be: the other terms are taken in that sense only, and denote modes of injury. DAMAGE, from damnum, loss, is that injary to a thing which occasions loss to a person or a diminution of value to a thing. HURT (v. Disadvantage) is the injury which destroys the soundness or integrity of things: the HARM ( $v$. Evil) is the smallest kind of injury, which may simply produce inconvenience or trouble: the MISCHIEF ( $v$. Evil) is a great injury, which more or less disturbs the order and consistency of things. Injury is applicable to all bodies indiecriminstely, physical and moral ; damage to physical bodies only ; lurt to
physical bodies properly, and to moral objects figuratively. Trade may suffer an injury, or a building may suffer an injury, from time or a variety of othet causes: a building, merchandise, and other things may suffer a damage if they are exposed to violence.
These rich and elaborate rooms deserve a far more lasting monnment to preserve them from the injury of time.

Howell.
There be sandry sorts of trusts, but that of a secret is one of the greatest: 1 trusted T. $\mathbf{P}$. with a weighty one, conjoring him that it should not take air and go abroad, which was not done according to the rales of friendship, but it went out of him the very next day. Though the inconvenience may be mine, yet the reproach is his, nor would I exchange my damage for his disgrace.

HOWELL
Hurt is applied to the animal body; a sprain, a cut, or bruise, are little hurts.
These arrows of yours, though they have hit me, they have not hurt me; they had no killing quality.

Howele.
It may be figuratively applied to other bodies which may suffer in a similar manner, as a $h u r t$ to one's good name.
No plough shall hurt the glebe, no pruning-look the vine.

Dryden.
Harm and mischief are as general in their spplication as injury, and comprehend what is physically as well as moral ly bad, hut they are more particularly applicable to what is done intentionally by the person: whence ready to do harm or mischief is a characteristic of the individual.
My son is as innocent as a child, I am sare he is, and never did harm to man. Goldsmith. Bat furious Dido, with dark thoughts involv'd, Shook at the mighty mischisf she resolv'd. Driden.
As applied to things, harm and mischief are that which naturally results from the object, when a thing is said to do harm or mischief, that implies that it is its property.
With harmless play amldst the bowls he pass'd. Dryden.
There were two persons, of the profession of the law, by whose several and distinct constitutions the errors and mischiefs of the Star-chamber were introdnced.

Clarendon.

## INJUSTICE, INJURY, WRONG.

INJUSTICE ( $v$. Justice), INJURY ( $v$. Disadvantage), and WRONG, signifying

## INSIGHT

the thing that is wrong, are all opposed to the right; but the injustice lies in the principle, the injury in the action that injures. There may, therefore, be injustice where there is no specific inujury; and, on the other hand, there may be injury where there is no injustice. When we think worse of a person than we ought to think, we do him an act of injustice; but we do not, in the strict sense of the word, do him an injury: on the other hand, if we say anything to the discredit of another, it will be an injury to his reputation if it be believed; but it may not be an injustice, if it be strictly conformable to truth, and that which one is compelled to say.

The violation of justice, or a breach of the rule of rigbt, constitutes the injustice; but the quantum of ill which falls on the person constitutes the injury. Sometimes a person is dispossessed of his property by fraud or violence; this is an act of injustice; but it is not an injury, if, in consequence of this act, he obtains friends who make it good to him beyond what he has lost: on the other hand, a person suffers very much through the inadvertency of another, which to him is a serious injury, although the offender has not been guilty of injustice.

A lie is properly a species of injustice, and a violation of the right of that person to whom the false speech is directed.

SodTi.
Lawsuits I'd shun with as mnch studious care As I would dens where hungry lions are; And rather put up injuries than be
A plagne to him who'd be a plague to me.
Pompnet.
A wrong partakes both of injustice and injury; it is, in fact, an injury done by one person to another in express violation of justice. The man who seduces a woman from the path of virtue does her the greatest of all wrongs. One repents of injustice, repairs injuries, and redresses trongs.

The hnmble man, when he receives a wrong, Refers revenge to whom it doth belong.

Walleb.

## INSIDE, INTERIOR.

The term INSIDE may be applied to bodies of any magnitude, small or large ; INTERIOR is peculiarly appropriate to bodies of great magnitude. We may speak of the inside of a nutshell, but not
of its interior: on the other hand, we speak of the interior of St. Paul's, or the interior of a palace. This difference of application is not altogether arbitrary: for inside literally signifies the side that is inward; but interior signifies the space which is more inward than the rest, which is enclosed in an enclosure: consequently cannot be applied to anything but a large space that is enclosed.
As for the inside of their nest, none bnt themselves were concerned in it, according to the inviolable laws established among those animals (the ants).

The gates are drawn back, and the interior. of the fane is discovered.

Cumberland.

## INSIDIOUS, TREACHEROUS.

INSIDIOUS, in Latin insidiosus, from insidia, stratagem or ambush, from insideo, to lie in wait or ambush, signifies as much as lying in wait. TREACHEROUS is changed from traitorous, and derived from trado, to betray, signifying in general the disposition to betray.

The insidious man is not so active as the treacherous man; the former only lies in wait to ensnare us when we are off our guard; the latter throws us off our guard by lulling us into a state of security, in order the more effectually to get us into his power : an enemy may he denominated insidious, but a friend is treacherous. He who is afraid of avowing his real sentiments on religion makes insidious attacks either on its ministers, its doctrines, or its ceremonies: he who is most in the confidence of another is capable of heing the most treacherous toward bim.

Freethinkers recommend themselves to warm and ingenvous minds by lively strokes of wit, and by arguments really strong against superstition, enthnsiasm, and priestcraft : but at the same time they insidiously throw the colors of these upon the fair face of true religion.

Lobd Lfttieton.
The world monst think him in the wrong, Would say he made a treach'rous nse Of wit, to flatter and seduce.

SWIFT.

## INSIGHT, INSPECTION.

The INSIGHT into a thing is what we receive: the INSPECTION is what we give: one gets a view into a thing by an insight; one takes a view over a thing by an inspection. An insight serves to increase our own knowldge ; inspection enables us to instruct or direct others. An

## INSIPID

inquisitive traveller tries to get an insight into the manners, cuatoma, laws, and government of the countrie which he visits; by inspection a master discovers the errors which are committed by his scholars, and aets them right.

Angels, both good and bad, have a full insight into the activity and force of natural canses.

Soute.
Something no doubt is designed; but what that is, I will not presume to determine from an inspection of meu's hearts.

South.

## TO INSINUATE, INGRATIATE.

INSINUATE ( $v$. To hint), and INGRA. TIATE, from gratus, grateful or acceptable, are employed to express an endeavor to gain favor; but they differ in the circumstances of the action. A person who insinuates adopts every art to steal into the good-will of another; but he who ingoratiates adopta unartificial meana to conciliate good-will. A peraon of insinuating manners wins upon another imperceptibly, even so as to convert dislike into attachment; a person with ingratiating manners procures good-will by a permanent intercourse. Insinuate and ingratiate differ in the motive, as well as the mode, of the action: the motive is, in both cases, aelf-interest; but the former is unlawful; and the latter allowable. In proportion as the object to be attained by another's favor ia base, so is it necessary to have recourse to insinuation; while the object to be attained is that which may be avowed, ingratiating will aerve the purpose. Low peraons insinuate themselves into the favor of their auperiora, in order to obtain an influence over them: it ia commendable in a young peraon to wish to ingratiate himaelf with those who are entitled to hia esteem and respect.

At the Isle of Rhe he insinuated himself into the very good grace of the Duke of Buckingham. Clahendon.
My resolution was now to ingratiate myself with men whose reputation was established.

Jobnson.
Insinuate may be used in the improper sense for unconscious agents; ingratiate is alwaya the act of a conscious agent. Water will insinuate itself into every body that is in the smallest degree porous; there are few persons of so much 'apathy
that it may not be possible, one way or another, to ingratiate one's aelf into their favor.

The same chargcter of despotism insinuated itself into every court of Europe.

BUREE.

## INSINUATION, REFLECTION.

These both imply peraonal remarka, or such remarks aa are directed toward an individual ; but the former is leas direct and more covert than the latter. An INSINUATION always deala in half worda; a REFLECTION is commonly open. They are both levelled at the individual with no good intent; but the insinuation is general, and may be employed to convey any unfavorable sentiment; the reflection is particular, and commonly passea between intimatea and persona in close connection. The insinuation respects the honor, the moral character, or the intellectual endowmenta, of the person: the reflection respects his particular conduct or feelings toward another. Envious people throw out insinuations to the disparagement of those whose merits they dare not openly queation ; when friends quarrel, they deal largely in reflections on the past.
The prejudiced admirers of the ancients are very angry at the least insinuution that they had any idea of our barbarous tragi-comedy.

Twinino.
The ill-natured man gives utterance to refiectione which a good-natured man stifles.

Addison.

## INSIPID, DULL, FLAT.

INSIPID, in Latin insipidus, from in and sapio, to taste, signifies without savor. DULL, v. Dull. FLAT, v. Flat.

A want of spirit in the moral senae is deaignated by these epithets, which borrow their figurative meaning from different properties in nature: the taste is referred to in the word insipid; the properties of colors are considered under the word dull; the property of surface is referred to by the word flat. As the want of flavor in any meat constitutes it insip$i d$, and renders it wortbless, so does the want of mind or character in a man render him equally insipid, and devoid of the distinguiahing characteristic of hia nature: as the beauty and perfection of colors consist in their brightnesa, the absence of this essential property, which

## INSNARE

constitutes dulness, renders them urinteresting objects to the eye; so the want of spirit in a moral composition, which constitutes its dulness, deprives it at the same time of that ingredient which should awaken attention: as in the natural world objects are either elevated or flat, so in the moral world the spirits are either raised or depressed, and such moral representations as are calculated to raise the spirits are termed spirited, while those which fail in this object are termed flat. An insipid writer is without sentiment of any kind or degree; a dull writer fails in vivacity and vigor of sentiment; a flat performance is wanting in the property of provoking mirth, which should be its peculiar ingredient.

To a covetous man all other thinga but wealth are insipid.

Souta.
But yet beware of councila when too full, Number makes long disputes and graveneas dull.

Deniam.
Tha senses ara disgusted with their old antertainments, and axisteoce turns flat and insipid.

Gaove.

## TO INSIST, PERSIST.

Boti thess terms being derived from the Latin sisto, to stand, express the idea of resting or keeping to a thing; but INSIST signifies to rest on a point, and PERSIST, from per, through or by, and sisto ( $v . T o$ continue), signifies to keep on with a thing, to carry it through. We insist on a matter by maintaining it; we pereist in a thing by continuing to do it: we insist by the force of authority or argnment; we persist by the mere act of the will. A person insists on that which he conceives to be his right: or he insists on that which he conceives to be right: but he persists in that which he has no will to give up. To insist is, therefore, an act of discretion; to persist is mostly an act of folly or caprice: the former is always taken in a good or indifferent sense; the latter mostly in a bad sense. A parent onght to insist on all matters that are of essential importance to his ohildren; a spoiled child persists in its follies from perversity of bumor.

[^75]So easy it is for every man living to err, and ao hard to wrest from any man'a month the plain acknowledgment of error that what hath once been inconsiderately defended, the same is commonly persisted in as long as wit, by whetting itself, is able to find out any ahift, be it never a alight, whereby to escape ont of the handa of a present contradiction.

Hooxer.

## TO INSNARE, ENTRAP, ENTANGLE, INvEIGLE.

The idea of getting any object artful. ly into one's power is common to all these terms: to INSNARE is to take in, or by means of a snare; to ENTRAP is to take in a trap, or by means of a trap; to EN. TANGLE is to take in a tangle, or by means of tangled thread; to INVEIGLE is to take by means of making blind, from the French aveugle, blind.

Insnare and entangle are used either in the natural or moral sense; entrap most. ly in the natural, sometimes in the fig. urative, inveigle only in the moral sense, In the natural sense birds are insnared by means of bird-lime, nooses, or what. ever else may deprive them of their lih erty: men and beasts are entrapped in whatever serves as a trap or an enclos. ure; they may be entrapped by being lured into a house or any place of con. finement; all creatures are entangled by nets, or that which confines the limbs and prevents them from moving forward.

Thia Lion (the literary lion) has a particular way of Imitating the aound of tha creature he would insnare.

Addison.
Aa one who long ln thickets and in brakes Entanglea, winds now this way and now that, Hie devioua conrse uncertain, seeking home, So I, designing other themes, and celled To adorn the Sofa with euloginm due, Have rambled wida.

Cowper.
Though the new-dawning year in its advanca With hope'a gay promise may entrap the mind, Let memory give ona retrospective glance.

Cumberland.
In the moral sense, men are said to be insnared by their own passions and the allurements of pleasure into a course of vice which deprives them of the use of their faculties, and makes them virtnally captives; tbey are entangled by their errors and imprudencies in difficulties which interfere with their moral freedom, and prevent them from acting. They are inveigled by the artifices of others, when thit consequences of their own actions are
ehut out from their view, and tney are made to walk like blind men.

Her flaxen haire, inenaring all beholders, She next permits to waive about her shoulders. Browne.
Some men weave their sophistry till their own reason is ontingled.

Johnson.
Why the inveigling of a woman before she is come to years of discretion should not be as criminal as the seducing her before she is ten years jid, I am at a loss to comprehend. ADdison.

INSOLVENCY, FAILURE, BANKRUPTCY.
INSOLVENCY, from insolvo, not to pay, aignifies the atate of not paying, or not being able to pay. FAILURE, $v$. Failure. BANKRUPTCY, from the two words banka rupta, signifies a broken bank.

All these terms are in particular use in the mercantile world, but are not excluded also from general application. Insolvency is a state; failure, an act flowing out of that atate; and bankruptcy an effect of that act. Insolvency is a condition of not being able to pay one's debts; failure is a cessation of business, from the want of means to carry it on; and bankruptcy is a legal surrender of all one's remaining goods into the hands of one's creditors, in consequence of a real or supposed insolvency. These terms are seldom confined to one peraon, or description of persona. As an incapacity to pay debta is very frequent among othera beaidea men of business, insolvency is aaid of any such persons; a gentleman may die in a state of insolvency who does not leave effects sufficient to cover all demands. Although failure is here apecifically taken for a failure in business, yet there may be a failure in one particular undertaking without any direct insolvency: a failure may likewise only imply a temporary failure in payment, or it may imply an entire failure of the concern. As a bankruptcy is a legal transaction, which entirely dissolves the firm under which any business is conducted, it necessarily implies a failure in the full extent of the term; yet it does not necessarily imply an insolvency; for some men may, in consequence of a temporary fail. ure, be led to commit an act of bankrupt$c y$, who are afterward enabled to give a full dividend to all their creditora.

By an act of insolvency all persons who ars in too low a way of dealing to be hankrupts, or not in a mercantile state of life, are discharged from all suts and imprisonments, by delivering np all their estate and effects.

Blacestong
The greater the whole quantity of trade, the greater of conrse must be the positive number of failures, while the aggregate success is still in the same proportion.

BOREE.
That bankruptcy, the very apprehension of which is one of the cruses assigned for the fall of the monarchy, was the capital nn which the French repnblic opened her traffic with the world.

Bunex.

## INSPECTION, SUPERINTENDENCY, OVERSIGHT.

The office of looking into the conduct of others is expressed by the first two terma; but INSPECTION comprehends little more than the preservation of good order; SUPERINTENDENCE includes the arrangement of the whole. The monitor of a scbool has the inspection of the conduct of his school-fellowa, but the master has the superintendence of the school. The officers of an army inspect the men, to see that they observe all the rulea that have been laid down to them; a general or superior officer has the superintendence of any military operation. Fidelity is peculiarly wanted in an inspector, judgmens and experience in a superintendent. Inspection is aaid of things as well as persons; OVERSIGHT only of persons: one has the inspection of books in order to ascertain their accuracy; one has the oversight of persons to prevent irregular. ity: there is an inspector of the customs, and an overseer of the poor.
This author proposes that there should be ex-
aminers appointed to inspect the genius of ev-
ery particular boy.
BUDGELL. ery particular boy.
When female minds are embittered by age or solitude, their malignity is generally exerted in a spiteful euperintendencs of trifles. JoHnson.
So great was his care, that he trusted no man without his immediate oversight; yet he acted all things with common conncil and consent, snch was his wariness and prudence. Clarendon.

## instant, moment.

INSTANT, from insto, to stand over, aignifiea tbe point of time that atands over us, or, as it were, over our heads. MOMENT, from the Latin momentum, aignifies properly movement, but is here taken for the amall particle of time in which any movement ia made.

Instant is always taken for the time present; moment is taken generally for either past, present, or future. A dutiful child comes the instant he is called; a prudent person embraces the favorable moment. When they are both taken for the present time, instant expresses a much shorter space than moment; when we desire a person to do a thing this instant, it requires haste: if we desire him to do it this moment, it only admits of no delay. Instantaneous relief, is necessary on some occasions to preserve life; a moment's thought will furnish a ready wit with a suitable reply.

Some circumstances of misery are so powerfully ridiculous, that neither kindness nor duty can withstand them; they force the friend, the dependent, or the child, to give way to instanfancous motions of merriment.

Jornson.
I can casily ovcrlook any present momentary sorrow, when I reflect that it is in my power to be happy a thousand years hence. Bereelex.

## TO INSTITUTE, ESTABLISH, FOUND, ERECT.

To INSTITUTE, in Latin institutus, participle of instituo, from in and statuo, to place or appoint, signifying to dispose or fix for a specific end, is to form according to a certain plan; to ESTABLISH ( $v$. To $f x$ ) is to fix in a certain position what has been formed; to FOUND ( $v$. To found) is to lay the foundation of anything; to ERECT (v. To build) is to make erect. Laws, communities, and particular orders, are instituted; schools, colleges, and various societies, are established: in the former case something new is supposed to be framed; in the latter case it is supposed only to have a certain situation assigned to it. The order of the Jesuits was instituted by Ignatius de Loyola; schools werc established by Alfred the Great, in various parts of his dominions. The act of instituting comprehends design and method; that of establishing includes the idea of authority. The Inquisition was instituted in the time of Ferdinand; the Church of England is estabished by authority. To institute is always the immediate act of some agent; to establish is sometimes the effect of circumstances. Men of public spirit institute that which is for the public good; a communication or trade between certain places becomes established in course of
time. An institution is properly of a public nature, but establishments are as often private: there are charitable and literary institutions, but domestic establishments.

The leap-years were fixed to their ane times according to Julius Cæsar's institution.

Prideaux.
The French have outdone us in these particnlars hy the establishment of a society for the invention of proper inscriptions (for their medals).

ADDISON.
To found is a species of instituting which borrows its figurative meaning from the nature of buildings, and is applicable to that which is formed after the manner of a building; a public school is founded when its pecuniary resources are formed into a fund or foundation. To erect is a species of founding, for it expresses, in fact, a leading particular in the act of founding: nothing can be founded without being erected; although some things may be erected without being expressly founded in the natural sense; a house is both founded and erected; a monument is erected but not found$e d$; so in the figurative sense, a college is founded and consequently erected: but a tribunal is erected, not founded.

[^76]
## INSTRUMENT, TOOL.

INSTRUMENT, in Latin instrumentum, from instruo, signifies the thing by which an effect is produced. TOOL comes probably from toil, signifying the thing with which one toils. These terms arc both employed to express the means of producing an end; they differ principally in this, that the former is used mostly in a good sense, the latter only in a bad sense, for persons. Individuals in high stations are often the instruments in bringing about great changes in nations; spies and informers are the worthless tools of government.

[^77]
## INSURRECTION, SEDITION, REBELLION,

## REVOLT.

INSURRECTION, from surgo, to rise up, signifies rising up against any power that is. SEDITION, in Latin seditio, compounded of se and itio, signifies a going apart, that is, the people going apart from the government. REBELLION, in Latin rebellio, from rebello, signifies turning upon or against, in a hostile manner, that to which one has been before bound. REVOLT, in French révolter, is most probably compounded of re and volter, from volvo, to roll, sigaifying to roll or turn back from, to turn against that to which one has been bound.

The term insurrection is general ; it is used in a good or bad sense, according to the nature of the power against which one rises up: sedition and rebellion are more specific; they are always taken in the bad sense of unallowed opposition to lawful authority. There may be an insurrection against isurped power, which is always justifiable; but sedition and rebellion are levelled against power universally acknowledged to be legitimate. Insurrection is always open ; it is a rising up of many in a mass; but it does not imply any concerted, or any specifically active measure: a united spirit of opposition, as the moving cause, is all that is comprehended in the meaning of the term : sedition is either secret or open, according to circumstances; in popular governments it will be open and determined; in monarchical governments it is secretly organized: rebellion is the consummation of sedition; the scheme of opposition which has been digested in secrecy breaks out into open hostilities, and becomes rebellion. Insurr ections may be made by nations against a foreign dominion, or by subjects against their government: sedition and rebellion are carried on by subjects only against their government.

[^78]Came like itself, in base and abject routs, You, reverend father, and these noble lords, Had not been here to dress the ugly forms Of base and bloody insurrection. Shakspeare

Revolt, like rebellion, signifies originally a warring or turning against the pow. er to which one has been subject; but revolt is mostly taken either in an indif. ferent or a good sense for resisting a foreign dominion which has been imposed by force of arms.

He was greatly strengthened, and the enemy as much enfeebled by daily revolts. RALEIGH.

Rebel and revolt may be figuratively applied to the powers of the mind when opposed to each other: the will rebels against the reason.

Onr self-love is ever ready to revolt from our better judgment, and join the enemy witbin.

Steele.
Thus conscience pleads her cause within the breast,
Though long rebelled against, not yet suppress'd.
Cowper.
INTELLECT, GENIUS, TALENT.
INTELIEETT, in Latin intellectus, from intelligo, to understand, signifies the gift of understanding, as opposed to mere in. stinct or impulse. GENIUS, in Latin genius, from gigno, to be born, signifies that which is peculiarly born with us. TALENT, v. Faculty.

Intellect is here the generic term, and includes in its meaning that of the two other terms; there cannot be genius and talent without intellect, but there may be intellect without any express genius or tal. ent. Intellect is the intellectual power improved and exalted by cultivation and exercise; in this sense we speak of a man of intellect, or a work that displays great intellect; genius is the particular bent of the intellect which is born with a man, as a genius for poetry, painting, music, etc.; talent is a particular mode of intellect which qualifies its possessor to do some things better than others, as a talent for learning languages, a tatent for the stage, etc.

There was a select set, supposed to be distinguished by superiority of intellects, who always passed the evening together.

Johnson.
Thomson thinks in a peculiar train, and always thinks as a man of genius.

Jorxson

It ie commonly thionght that the sagacity of these fathers (the Jesuits) in discovering the tat ont of a young student has not a little contributed to the figure which their order has made in the world.

Budgell.

## INTENT, INTENSE.

INTENT and INTENSE are both derived from the verb to intend, signifying to stretch toward a point, or to a great degree: the former is said only of the person or mind; the latter qualifies things in general: a person is intent when his mind is on the stretch toward sn ohject; his application is intense when his mind is for a continuance elosely fixed on certain ohjects; cold is intense when it seems to be wound up to its highest pitch.

There is an evil spirit continually actlve and tutent to seduce.

Sodth.
Mutual favors naturally beget an intenze affection in generous minds.

Spectator.

## to in'tercede, interpose, mediate, INTERFERE, INTERMEDDLE.

INTERCEDE signifies literally going between; - INTERPOSE, placing one's self between; MEDIATE, coming in the middle; INTERFERE, setting one's self batween; and INTERMEDDLE, meddling or mixing among.

One intercedes between parties that are unequal; one interposes hetween parties that are equal : one intercedes in favor of that party which is threatened with punishment; one interposes between parties that threaten each other with evil: we intercede with the parent in faver of the child who has offended, in order to obtain pardon for him; one interposes between two friends who are disputing to prevent them from going to extremities. One intercedes by means of persuasion; it is an act of courtesy or kindness in the interceded party to comply; one interposes by an exercise of authority; it is a matter of propriety or necessity in the parties to conform. The favorite of a monarch intercedes in hehalf of some criminal, that his punishment may be mitigated; the magistrates interpase, with their authority to prevent the broils of the disorderly from coming to serious acts of violence.

[^79]Those few you see escap'd the storm, and fear, Unless you interpoee, a shipwreck here.

Daidex
To intercede and interpose are employ. ed on the highest and lowest occasions; to mediate is never employed hat in matters of the greatest moment. As earthly offenders, we require the intercession of a fellow-mortal ; as offenders against the God of heaven, we require the indercession of a Divine Being: without the timely in terposition of a superior, trifling disputes may grow into bloody quarrels; withont the interppsition of Divine Providence, we cannot conceive of anything important as taking place: to settle the affairs of nations, mediators may afford a salutary assistance; to bring about the redemption of a lost world, the Son of God condescended to be Mediator.

It is generally better (in negotiating) to deal by speech than by letter, and by the mediation of a third than by a man's self.

Bacon.
All these acts are performed for the good of others; but interfere and inter. meddle are of a different description: one may interfere for the good of others, or to gratify one's self; one never intermeddles but for selfish purposes: the first three terms are thercfore always used in a good sense; the fourth in a good or had sense, according to circumstances; the last always in a bad sense.

Religion interferes not with any rational pleasure. SodTh.
The sight intermeddles not with that which affects the smell. Sodra.

## INTERCHANGE, EXCHANGE, RECIPROCITY.

INTERCHANGE is a frequent and mutual exchange (v. Change); EXCHANGE consists of one act only; an interchange consists of many acts: an interchange is used only in the moral sense; exchange is used mostly in the proper sense: an interchange of civilities keeps alive goodwill; an exchange of commodities is a convenient mode of trade.

Kindness is preserved by a constant interchange of pleasures.

Johnson.
The whole course of nature is a great exchange. Sodth.
Interchange is an act; RECIPROCITY is an abstract property: hy an interchange

## INTEREST

of sentiment, friendships are engendered; the reciprooity of good services is what renders them doubly acceptable to those who do them, and to those whe receive them.

That la the bappiest conversation where there fs no competition, no vanity, but a calm, quiet interohange of sentiment.

Joimaon.
The services of the poor, and the protection of the rich, become rsciprocally necessary.

Blaim.
INTERCOURSE, COMMUNICATION, CONNECTION, COMMERCE.
INTERCOURSE, in Latin intercursus, signifies literally a running between. COMMUNICATION, v. To communicate. CONNECTION, $\cdot v$. To connect. COMMERCE, from com and merces, merchandise, signifies literally an exchange of merchandlse; and generally an interchange.

Intercourse and commerce subsist only between persons; communication and connection between persons and things. An intercourse with persons may be carried on in various forms; either by an interchange of civilities, which is a friend. ly intercourss; an exchange of commodities, which is a commercial intercourse; or an exchange of words, which is a verbal and partial intercourse: a communication, in this sense, is a species of intercourse; namely, that which conslsts in the communication of one's thoughts to another, which may subsist between man and man, or between man and his Maker.

## The world is maintalned by interoourse.

 South.How happy la an intellectual being, who, by prayer and meditation, opens this commonication between Giod and his own soult Andison.

A connection consists of a permanent intercourse; since one who has a regular intercourss for purposes of trade with another is said to have a connection with him, or to stand in connection with him. There may therefore be a partial interconrse or communication where there is no connection, nothing to bind or link the parties to each other: but there'cannot be a connection which is not kept up by continual intercourse.

A very material part of our happlness or mlsery, arises from the ponnections we have with those around uft.

Bratr,

The commerce is a species of general but close intercourse; it may consist either of frequent meeting and regular co-operation, or in cohabitation: in this sense we speak of the commerce of men one with another, or the commerce of man and wife, of parents and children, and the like.

I ahould venture to call politeness benevolence in trifles, or the preference of others to ourselvea, in little, daily, and hourly occurrencea in the commeros of life.

Chathak.
As it respects things, communication is said of places in the proper sense; connection is used for things in the proper or improper sense: there is said to be a communication between two rooms when there is a passage open from one to the other; one house has a connection with another when there is a common passage or thoroughfare to them: a communica. tion is kept up between two countries by means of regular or irregular conveyances; a connection subsists between two towns when the inhabitants trade with each other, intermarry, and the like.

I auggested the probability of a aubterraneous communication between thia and the flume Freddo.

Beypone.
Providence, in lts economy, regards the whole syatem of time and thinga together, so that we cannot discover the beautiful connections between incidents which lie widely separated in time.

ADDison.

## INTEREST, CONCERN.

The INTEREST (from the Latin interesse, to be among, or have a part or a share in a thing) is more comprehensive than CONCERN ( $v$. Affair). We have an interest in whatever touches or comes near to our feelings or our external circumstances; we have a concern in that which demands our attention. Interest is that which is agreeable; it consists of either profit, advantage, gain, or amusement; it binds us to an object, and makes us think' of it: concern, on the other hand, is something involuntary or painful ; we have a concern in that which we are obliged to look to, which we are bound to from the fear of losing or of suffering. It is the interest of every man to cultivate a religious temper; it is the concern of all to be on their guard againat temptation:

Their interest no priest nor sorcerer Forgets.

Dembam.
And could the marble rocks but know,
They'd strive to find some secret way unknown, Maugre the senaeless nature of the atone,
Their pity and concern to show. Pompeet.

## INTERMEDIATE, INTERVENING.

INTERMEDIATE signifies being in the midst, between two objects; INTERVENING signifies coming between: the former is applicable to space and time; the latter either to time or circumstances. The intermediate time between the commencement and the termination of a truce is occupied with preparations for the renewal of hostilities; intervening circumstances sometimes change the views of the belligerent parties, and dispose their minds to peace.
A right opinion is that which connects truth by the ehortest train of intermediate propositions.

Jornson.
Hardly wonld any transient gleam of intervening joy be able to force its way through the clouds, if the successive scenes of distress through which we are to pass were laid before our view.

Blair.

## INTERVAL, RESPITE.

INTERVAL, in Latin intervallum, signifies literally the space between the stakes which formed a Roman intrenchment; and, by an extended application, it signifies any space. RESPITE is probably contracted from respirit, a breathing again.

Every respite requires an interval; but there are many intervals where there is no respite. The term interval respects time only; respite includes the idea of ceasing from action for a time; intervals of ease are a respite to one who is oppressed witb labor; the interval which is sometimes granted to a criminal before his execution is in the properest sense a respite.

[^80]of the moon is obstructed by the interven. tion of the clouds; the life of an individ. ual is preserved by the interposition of a superior: human life is so full of contingencies, that when we have formed our projects we can never say what may intervene to prevent their execution; when a man is engaged in an unequal combat, he bas no chance of escaping but by the timely interposition of one who is able to rescue him.

Reflect also on the calamitona intervention of picture-cleaners (to originals). BAHEY.
Death ready stands to interpase his dart.
Milton.
INTOXICATION, DRUNKENNESS, INFAT. UATION.
INTOXICATION, from the Latin toxicum, a poison, signifies the state of being imbued with a poison. DRUNKENNESS signifies the state of baving drunk overmuch. INFATUATION, from fatuus, foolish, signifies making foolish, or the state of being made foolish.

Intoxication and drunkenness are used either in the proper or the improper sense; infatuation in the improper sense only; intoxication is a general state; drunkenness a particular state : intoxication may be produced by various causes; drunken. ness is produced only by an immoderate indulgence in some intoxicating liquor: a person may be intoxicated by the smell of strong liquors, or by vapors which produce a similar effect; he becomes drunken by the drinking of wine or other spirits. In the improper sense, a deprivation of one's reasoning faculties is the common idea in the signification of all these terms: intoxication and drunkenness spring from the intemperate state of the feelings; infatuation springs from the ascendency of the passions over the reasoning pow. ers : a person is intoxicated with success, drunk with joy, and infatuated by an ex. cess of vanity, or an impetuosity of char. acter.
This plan of empire was not taken np in the first intoxication of unexpected snccess.

Burke.
Passion is the drunkenness of the mind.
South.
A sure destrnction impends over those infatrated princes who, in the conflict with this new snd unheard-of power, proceed ss if they were engaged in a war that bore a resemblance to their former contesta.

Bpexf
intrinsic, real, gendine, native.
INTRINSIC, in Latin intrinsecus, signifies on the inside, that is, lyiog in the thing itself. REAL, from the Latin res, signifies belonging to the very thiag. GENUINE, in Latin genuinus, from geno or gigno, to bring forth, signifies actually brought forth, or springing out of a thing. NATIVE, in Latin nations, and natus, born, signifies actually born, or arising from a thing.

The value of a thing is either intrinsic or real: but the intrinsic value is said in regard to its extrinsic value; the real value in regard to the artificial : the intrinsic value of a book is that which it will fetch when sold in a regular way, in opposition to the extrinsic value, as being the gift of a friend, a particular edition, or a particular type: the real value of a book, in the proper sense, lies in the fineness of the paper, and the costliness of its bindiag; and, in the improper sense, it lies in the excellence of its contents, in opposition to the artificial value which it acquires in the minds of bibliomaniacs from being a scarce edition.

Men, however distinguished by external accidents or intrinsio qualities, have all the same wants, the same pains, and, as far as the senses are consulted, the same pleasurea. Johnson.

You liave settled, by an economy as perverted as the policy, two establishments of government, one real, the other fictitious.

Burke.
The worth of a man is either genuine or native: the genuine worth of a man lies in the excellence of his moral character, as opposed to his adventitious worth, which he acquires from the possession of wealth, power, and dignity: his native worth is that which is inborn in him, and natural, in opposition to the meretricious and borrowed worth which he may derive from his situation, his talent, or his efforts to please.
His genuine and less guilty wealth t' explore, Search not his bottom, but survey his shore.

Denhan.
How lovely does the human mind appear in its native purity.

Earl of Chatham.

## TO INTRODUCE, PRESENT.

To INTRODUCE, from the Latin introduco, signifies literally to bring within or into any place; to PRESENT (v. 10 give) signifies to bring into the presence of. As
they respect persons, the former passes between equals, the latter only among persons of rank and power: one literary man is introduced to another by means of a common friend; he is presented at court by means of a nobleman.

On each side of the gate was a lesser entrance, through which the persons either of goda or men were introduced.

Potter.
The good old man leaped from his throne, and after he had embraced him, presented him to his daughter, which caused a general acclamation.

Addzon.
As these terms respect things, we say that subjects are introduced in the course of conversation; men's particular views upou certain subjects are presented to the notice of others through the medium of publication.

> The endeavers of freethinkers tend only to introduce slavery and error among men.

> Benkeler.

Now every leaf, and every meving breath,
Presents a foe, and every fee a death. Denhan.

## TO INTRUDE, OBTRUDE.

To INTRUDE is to thrust one's self into a place; to OBTRUDE is to thrust one's self in the way. It is intrusion to go into any society unasked and undesired; it is obtruding to put one's self in the way of another by joining the company aod taking a part in the conversation without invitation or conseat.

An intruder is unwelcome because his company is not at all desired, but an obtruder may be no further unwelcome than as be occasions an interruption or disturbance.
Where mouldering abbey walls overhang tho glade,
And oaks coeval spread a mournful shade, The screaming nations, hovering in mid-air, Loudly resent the stranger's freedom there; And seem to warn him never to repeat
His bold intruaion on their dark retreat.
Comper.
Artists are semetimes ready to talk to an incidental inquirer as they do te one another, and to make their knowledge ridiculoua by injudicious obtrusion.

Jounson.
In the moral application they preserve the same distinction. Thougbts intrude sometimes on the mind which we wish to banish; unpleasant thoughts obtrudo themselves to the exclusion or interruption of those we wish to retain.

The intrusion of scruples, and the recollection of better notions, will not suffer some to live contented with their own conduct.

Jounson.
'You gain at least, what is no small advantage, security from those troublesome ard wearisome discontents which are always obtruding them. selves upon a mind vacant, unemployed, and undetermined.

JOENGON.

## INTRUDER, INTERLOPER.

An INTRUDER (v. To intrude) thrusts aimself in : an INTERLOPER, from the German laufen, to run, runs in between and takes his station. The intruder, therefore, is only for a short space of time, and in an unimportant degree; but the interloper abridges another of his essential rights and for a permanency. A man is an intruder who is an unbidden guest at the table of another; he is an interloper when he joins any society in such manner as to obtain its privileges, without sharing its burdens. Intruders are always offensive in the domestic circle: interlopers in trade are always regarded with an evil eje.

I would not have you to offer it to the doctor, as eminent physicians do not love intruders. Jognson.
Some proposed to vest the trade to America in exclusive companies, which interest wonld render the most vigilant guardians of the Spanish conmerce, against the encroachments of interlopers.

Rosertson.

## INVALID, PATIENT.

INVALID, in Latin invalidus, signifies literally one not strong or in good health; PATIENT, from the Latin patiens, suffering, signifies one suffering under disease. Invalid is a general, and patient a particular term; a person may be an invalid without being a patient: he may be a patient without being an invalid. An invalid is so denominated from his wanting his ordinary sbare of health and strength; but the patient is one who is laboring under some bodily suffering. Old soldiers are called invalids, who are no longer able to bear the fatigues of warfare: but they are not necessarily patients. He who is under the surgeon's hands for any wound is a patient, but not necessarily an invalid.

## INVASION, INCURSION, IRRUPTION, inROAD:

The idea of making a forcible entrance into a foreign territory is common to all
these terms. INVASION, from vado, ts go, expresses mucely this general idea, without any particular qualification: INCURSION, from curro, to run, signifies a hasty and sudden invasion: IRRUPTION, from rumpo, to break, signifies a particularly violent invasion; INROAD, from in and $\% o a d$, signifying the making a road or way for one's self, implies the going farther into a country and making a longer stay than by an incursion. Invasion is said of that which passes in distant lands; Alexander invaded India ; Hannibal croseed the Alps, and made an invasion into Italy: incursion is said of neighboring States; the borderers on each side the Tweed used to make frequent incursions into England or Scotland.

Xerses invaded their territory (as some say) with screnteen hundred thousand men.

Potter.
They frequently made incursions into countries which they spoiled and depopulated, and if their force was great enough, drove out the inhabitants and compelled them to seek new seats.

Potter.
Invasion is the act of a regular army ; it is a systematic military movement: irruption and inroad are the irregular movements of bodies of men; the former is applied particularly to uncultivated nations, and the latter, like incursion, to neighboring states:' the Goths and Vandals made irruptions into Europe; the Scotch and English used to make inroads upon each other.
The nations of the Ausonian shore
Shall hear the dreadful rumor from afar
Of arm'd invasion, and embrace the war.
Dayden.
The study of ancient literature was interrupted in Europe by the irruption of the Northern nations.

Jonnsen.
From Scotland we lave had, in former times, some alarms and invoads into the northern parts of this kingdom.

Bacon.
These words preserve the same distinction in their figurative application. Invade signifies a hostile attack, and may be applied to physical objects.
Far off we hear the waves, which surly sound, Invade the rocks; the rocks their groas.s rebound.

Dhyden.
Or to spiritual objects; as to invads one's peace of mind, privileges, etc.

Encouraged with snccess, he invades tha province of philusophy.

Dhtrem.

Inroad denotes the progress of what is bad into any body; as the inroads of disease into the constitution, into the mind.

Rest and labor equally perceive their reign of short duration and uncertain tenure, and their empire liable to inroads from those who are alika enemies to both.

Johngon.
Incursion and irruption are applied to what either ruds or breaks into.

Sins of daily incursion, or such as human frailty la unavoidably liable to.

South.
I refrain too suddenly
To utter what will come at last too soon, Lest evil tidings, with ton audden an irruption, Hitting thy aged ear, ahould pierce too deep.

Milton.'

## to invent, feign, frame, fabriCATE, FORGE.

All these terms are employed to express the production of something out of the mind, by means of its own efforts. To INVENT ( $v$. To contrive) is the general term ; the other terms imply modes of invention under different circumstances. To invent, as distinguished from the rest, is busied in creating new forms, either by means of the imagination or the reflective powers; it forms combinations either purely spiritual, or those which are mechanical and physical: the poet invents imagery; the philosopher invents mathematical problems or mechanical instruments.

Pythagoras invented the forty-zeventh propoaition of the first hook of Euclid.

Batelet.
Invent is used for the production of new forms to real objects, or for the creation of unreal objects; to FEIGN ( $v$. To feign ) is used for the creation of unreal objects, or such as have no existence but in the mind: a play or a story is invented from what passes in the world; Mohammed's religion consists of nothing but inventions: the heathen poets feigned all the tales and fables which constitute the mythology or history of iheir deities. To FRAME, that is, to make according to a frame, is a species of invention which consists in the disposition as well as the combination of objects. Thespis was the inventor of tragady: Psalmanazar framed an entirely new language, which he pretended to be spoken on the island of Formosa; Solon
framed a new set of laws for the city of Athens.

If acrimony, slander, and ahase
Giva it a charge to blacken and traduce,
Though Butler's wit, Pope's numbers, Prior's ease,
With all that fancy can invent to please, Adorn the polish'd periods as they fall, One madrigal of theirs is worth them all.

Cowperir
Their savage eyes turn'd to a modest gaze
By the sweet power of music ; therefore the poet Did feign that Orpheus drew trees, stones, and floods.

Shakapeare.
Nature hath fram'd atrange fellows in her time.
Shaispeare
To invent, feign, and frame are all occasionally employed in the ordinary concerns of life, and in a bad sense; fabri. cate is seldom and forge never used any otherwise. Invent is employed as to that which is the fruit of one's own mind, and mostly contrary to the truth ; to feign is emploged as to that which is noreal; to frame is employed as to that which requires deliberation and arrangement; to fabricate and forge are enployed as to that which is absolutely false, and requiring more or less exercise of the $i n$. ventive power. A person invents a lie, and feigns sorrow; invents an excuse, and feigns an attachment. A story is invented, inasmuch as it is new, and not before conceived by others, or occasioned by the suggestions of others; it is framed, inasmuch as it required to be duly disposed in all its parts, so as to be consistent; it is fabricated; inasmuch as it runs in direct opposition to actual circumstances, and therefore has required the skill and labor of a workman; it is farged, inasmuch as it seems by its ulter falsehood and extravagance to have caused as much severe action in the brain as what is produced by the fire in a furnace or forge.
None can be aupposed so utterly regardless $o_{1}$ their own happiness as to expire in torment, and hazard their eteroity, to support any fables and inventions of their own, or any forgeries of their predecessors who had presided in the sams church.

Adilson.
Not more affrnnted by avowed neglect
Than ty the mere dissembler'a feignod respect.,
Cowrem.

[^81]By their advice and her own wicked wit, She there devis'd a wondrous worke to framo. Spenser.
As chemists gold from hrass by fire would draw, Pretexts are into treason forg'd by law.

Dheifam.
TO INVEST, ENDUE, OR ENDOW.
To INVEST, from vestio, signifies to clothe in anything. ENDUE or ENDOW, from the Latin induo, signifies to put on angthing. One is invested with that which is external: one is endued with that which is internal. We invest a person with an office or a dignity: a person is endued with good qualities. To invest is a real external action; but to endue may be merely fictitious or mental. The king is invested with supreme authority; a lover endues his mistress with every earthly perfection. Endow is but a variation of endue, and yet it seems to have acquired a distinct office: we may say that a person is endued or endowed with a good understanding; but as an act of the imagination endow is not to be substituted for endue: for we do not say that it endows but endues things with properties.

A strict and efficaclous constitution, indeed, which invests the Church with no power at all, but where men will be so civil as to obey it!

South.
As in the natural body, the eye does not speak, nor the tongue see; so neither in the spiritial, is every one enduod also with the gift and spirit of government.

Sulder

## INVIDIOUB, ENVIOUS.

INVIDIOUS, in Latin invidiosus, from invidia and invideo, not to look at, signifies looking at with an evil eye: ENVIOUS is literally only a variation of in. vidious. Invidious, in its common acceptation, signifies causing ill-will; envious signifies having ill-will. A task is invidious that puts one in the way of giving offence; a look is envious that is full of envy. Invidious qualifies the thing; envious qualifies the temper of the mind. It is invidious for one author to be judge against another who has written on the same subject: a man is envious when the prospect of another's happiness gives him pain.
For I must speak what wisdom would conceal, And truths invidious to the great reveal.

Pope.

They that desire to excel in too many matten out of levity and vainglory, are ever onvious.

Bacon.

INVINCIBLE, UNCONQUERABLE, INSUPERABLE, INSURMOUNTABLE.
INVINCIBLE signifies not to be van. quished ( $v$. To conquer): UNCONQUER. ABLE, not to be conquered : INSUPER. ABLE, not to be overcome: INSUR MOUNTABLE, not to be surmounted. Persons or things are in the strict sense invincible which can withstand all force; but as in this sense nothing created car be termed invincible, the term is em. ployed to express strongly whatever can withstand human force in general: on this ground the Spaniards termed their Armada invincible. The qualities of the mind are termed unconquerable when they are not to be gained over or brought under the control of one's own reason, or the judgment of another: hence obstinacy is with propriety denominated unconquerable which will yield to no foreign influence. The particular disposition of the mind or turn of thinking is termed insuperable, inasmuch as it baffles our resolution or wishes to have it altered; an aversion is insuperable which no reasoning or endeavor on our own part can overcome. Things are denominated insurmountable, inasmuch as they baffle one's skill or efforts to get over them, or put them out of one's way: an obstacle is insurmountable which in the nature of things is irremovable. Some people have an insuperable antipathy to certain animals; some persons are of so modest and timid a character, that the necessity of addressing strangers is with them an insuperable objection to using any endeavors for their own advancement; the difficulties which Columbus had to encounter in his discovery of the New World, would have appeared insurmountable to any mind less determined and persevering.

The Americans believed at flrst, that while cherished by the parental beams of the sun, the Spaniards werc invincibls. Robebtson.

The mind of an ungrateful person is unconquerabla by that which conquers all things else, even by love itself.

South.
To tbis literary word (metaphysics) I have an insupsrable aversion.

Beatter.

It is a melaucholy refiection, that while one if
plegued with acquaintance at the corner of every street, real friends should be separated from each other by insurmountable hars. Gisaon.

## INWARD, INTERNAL, INNER, INTERIOR.

INWARD significs toward the inside, that is, not absolutely within: INTERNAL signities positively within: INNER, as the comparative of inward, signifies tnore inward; and INTERIOR, as the comparative of internal, signifies more internal. Inward is employed more frequently to express a state than to qualify an object; internal to qualify the objects: a thing is said to be turned inward which forms a part of the inside: it is said to be internal as one of its characteristics; inward, as denoting the position, is indefinite; anything that is in in the smallest degree is inward; thus what we take in the mouth is inward in distinction from that which may be applied to the lips: but that is properly internal which lies in the very frame and system of the body; inner, which rises in degree on inward, is applicable to such bodies as admit of specific degrees of enclosure: thus the inner shell of a nut is that which is enclosed in the inward: so likewise interior is applicable to that which is capacious, and has many involutions, as the interior coat of the intestines.
If we accurately observe the inword movings and actings of the heart, we shall find that temptatiou wins upon it by very small gradations.

Soणth.
It is not probable that the sons of Assculapins could be ignorant of anything which had at tbat time been discovered with respect to intemal medicine.

James.
And now against th' gate
Of th' inner court, their growing force they bring.

Deneam.
Spain has not been inattentive to the interior government of her colonies.

Robertson.

## IRRATIONAL, FOOLISH, ABSURD, PREPOSTEROUS.

IRRATIONAL, compounded of $i r$, or $n$ and ratio, signifies contrary to reason, and is employed to express the want of the faculty itself, or a deficiency in the exercise of this faculty. FOOLISH ( $v$. Folly) signifies the perversion of this faculty. ABSURD, from surdus, deaf, signifies that to which one would turn a deaf ear. PREPOSTEROUS, from prae,
before, and posi, behind, signifies literally that side foremost which ought to be behind, which is unnatural and contrary to common-sense.

Irrational is not so strong a term as foolish: it is applicable more frequently to the thing than to the person, to the principle than to the practice; foolish, on the contrary, is commonly applicable to the person as well as the thing; to the practice rather than the principle. Scepticism is the most irrational thing that exists ; the human mind is formed to believe but not to doubt: he is of all men most foolish who stakes his eternal salvation on his own fancied superiority of intelligence and illumination. Foolish, absurd, and preposterous rise in degree: a violation of common-sense is implied by them all, but they vary according to the degree of violence which is done to the understanding: foolish is applied to anything, however trivial, which in the small. est degree offends our understandings: the conduct of children is therefore often foolish, but not absurd and preposterous, which are said only of serious things that are opposed to our judgments: it is absurd for a man to persuade another to do that which he in like circumstances would object to do himself; it is prepos. terous for a man to expose himself to the ridicule of others, and then be angry with those who will not treat him re. spectfully.
The schemes of freethinkers are altogether irrational, and require the most extravagant credulity to embrace them.

Addison.
The same well-meaning gentleman took occasion at another time to bring together such of his friends as were addicted to a foolish habitual custom of swearing, in order to show them the absurdity of the practice. ADDIson.
But grant that those can conquer, these can cheat,
'Tis phrase absurd to call a villain great. Pope.
By a proposterous desire of things in themselves indifferent, men forego the enjoyment of that happiness which those things are instrumental to obtain.

Bebfeley.
IRREGULAR, DISORDERLY, INORDI-
NATE, INTEMPERATE.
IRREGULAR, that is literally not reg. ular, marks merely the abstnce of a good quality ; DISORDERLY, that is literally out of order, marks the presence of a positively bad quality. What is irregular
nay be so from the nature of the thing; what is disorderly is rendered so by some external circumastance. Things are planted irregularly for want of design: the best troops are apt to be disorderly in a long march. Irregular and disorderly are taken in a moral as well as a natural sense: INORDINATE, which 'signifies also put out of order, is employed only in the moral sense. What is irregular is contrary to the rule that is established, or ought to be; what is disorderly is cont trary to the order that has existed; what is inordinate is contrary to the order that is prescribed; what is INTEMPERATE is contrary to the temper or spirit that ought to be eocouraged. Our habits will be irregular which are not conformable to the laws of social society; our practices will be disorderly when we follow the blind impulse of passion; our desires will be inordinate when they are not under the control of reason guided by religion; our indulgences will be intemperate when we consult nothing but our appetites. Young people are apt to contract irregular habits if not placed under the care of discreet and sober people, and made to conform to the regulations of domestic life: children are naturally prone to become disorderly, if nat perpetually under the eye of a master: it is the lot of human beings in all ages and stations to have inordinate desires, which require a constant check so as to prevent intemperate conduct of any kind.
In youth there is a certain irregularity and agitation by no means unbecoming.

Melifoth's Lettens of Pliny.
The minds of bad men are disorderly.
Blatr.
Inordinate passions are the great disturbers of life.

Blalf.
Persuade but the covetous man not to deify bis money, the intemperute man to alandon his revels, and I dare undertake all their giant-jike objections shall vanish.

Sodth.

## irreligious, profane, impious.

As epithets to designate the character of the person, they seem to rise in degree: IRRELIGIOUS is negative; PROFANE and IMPIOUS are positive; the latter being much atronger than the former. All men who are not positively actuated by principles of religion are irreligious; profanity and impiety are,
however, of a still more heinous nature; they consist not in the mere absence of regard for religion, but in a positive contempt of it and open outrage against its laws; the profane man treats what is sacred as if it were profane; what a believer holds in reverence, and utters with awe, is pronounced with an air of iadifference or levity, and as a matter of common discourse, by a profane man; he knows no difference between sacred and profane, but as the former may be converted into a source of scandal toward others; the impious man is directly opposed to the pious man; the former is filled with defiance and rebellion against his Maker, as the latter is with love and fear.

An offlcer of the army in Roman Catholic countries would be afraid to pass for an ivraligions man if lee should be seen to go to bed without offering up his devotions.

Adison.
Fly, ye profane; if not, draw near with awe.
Young.
When applied to things, the term irreligious seems to be somewhat more positively opposed to religion: an irreligious book is not merely one in which there is no religion, but that also which is detrimental to religion, such as sceptical or licentious writings: the epithet profane in this case is not always a term of reproach, but is employed to distinguish what is temporal from that which is expressly spiritual in its nature; the hietory of nations is profane, as distinguished from the sacred history coatain. ed in the Bible: the writings of the heathens are altogether profane as distinguished from the moral writings of Christians, or the believers in Divine Revelation. On the other hand, when we speak of a profane sentiment, or a profane joke, profane lips, and the like, the sense is personal and reproachful; impious is never applied but to what is personal, and in the very worst sense; an impious tbought, an impious wish, or an impious vow are the fruits of an im . pious mind.

In his reasonings for the most part he is flimsy and falise, in his political writings factious, in what he calls his philosophical ones, irreligious and sceptical in the highest degree. Blair.

Nothing is profane that serveth to holy thingis.
Raleiof

Love's great divinity rashly malntains Weak impious war with an immortal God.

Cexberland.

## J.

## to Jangle, Jar, Wrangle.

A verbal contention is expressed by all these terms, but with various modifications: JANGLE seems to be an onomatopœja, for it conveys by its own discordant sound an idea of the discordance which accompanies this kind of war of words; JAR and war sre, in all proba: bility, but variations of each other, as also jangle and WRANGLE. There is in jaingling more of cross-questlons and perverse replies than direct differences of opinion; those jangle who are out of humor with each other; there is more of discordant feeling snd opposition of opinion in jarring: those who have no good-will to each other will be sure to jar when they come in collision; and those who indulge themselves in jarring will soon conivert affectlon into ill-will. Married people may destroy the good-hu* mor' of the company by jangling, but they destroy their domestic peace and felicity by jarring. To wrangle is technicslly what to jangle is morally: those who dispute by a verbal opposition only are said to. wrangle; and the disputers who engage in this scholastic exercise are termed wranglers; most disputations amount to little more than wrangling.
Where the Judicatories of the Chureh were near an equality of the men on both sides, there were perpetual janglings on both sides. Buanet.
There is nojar or contest between the different gifts of the Spirit.

Soute.
Peace, factious monster! born to vex the State, With worangling talents form'd for foul debate.

Pope.

## JEALOUSY, ENVY, SUSPICION.

JEALOUSY, in French jalousie, Latin relotypia, Greek $\zeta_{\eta}$ 入orvata, compounded of $\xi \eta \lambda o g$ and $\tau v \pi \tau \omega$, to strike or fill, signifies properly filled with a burning desire. ENVY, in French envie, Latin invidia, from invideo, compounded of in, privative, and video, to see, signifies not looking at, or looking st in a contrary direction.

We are jealous of whst is our own; we are cnvious of what is another's. Jealousy fears to lose what it has; envy is pained at seeing another have that which it wants for itself. Princes are jealous of their authority; subjects are jealous of their rights: courtiers are envious of those in favor; women are en. vious of superior beauty.

Every man is more jealous of his natural than his moral qualities.

Hawregworth.
A woman does not onvy a man for flghting courage, nor a man a woman for beauty.

Conlume.
The jealous man has an object of desire, something to get and something to retain ; be does not look beyond the ob. ject that interferes with bis enjoyment; a jealous husband may therefore be appeased by the declaration of his wife's snimosity against the object of his jeal. ousy. The envious man sickens at the sight of enjoyment; he is easy only in the misery of others: all endeavors, therefore, to satisfy an envious man are fruit. less. Jealousy is a noble or an ignoble passion, according to the object; in the former case it is emulation sharpened by fear; in the latter case it is greediness stimulated by fear; envy is always a base passion, having the worst passions in its train.
'Tis doing wrong ereates such doubts as these, Renders us jealous, and destroys our peace.

Waller.
The envious man is in pain upon all occasions which should give him pleasure.

ADDISON.
Jealous is applicable to bodies of men as well as individuals; envious to the in. dividuals only. Nations are jealous of any interference on the part of any other power in their commerce, government, or territory; individuals are envious of the rank, wealth, and honors of each other.
While the people are so joalous of the clergy's ambition, I do not see any other method left them to reform the world, than by using all honest arts to make themselves acceptahle to the laity.

Hooker.
SUSPICION, from sus or sub, under; and specio, to look, i.e., to look from under one's eyelids out of fear of being seen to look, denotes an apprehension of injury, and, like jealonsy, implies a fear of another's intentions; bit suspicion has more of distrust in it than jealousy: tha
jealous man doubts neither the integrity nor sincerity of his opponent; the suspicious man is altogether fearful of the intentions of another: the jealous man is jealous only of him who he thinks wishes for the same thing as he does, and may rob him of it: the suspicious man is suspicious or fearful that be may suffer something from another. Jealousy properly exists between equals or those who have a common object of desire; but suspicion is directed toward any one who has the power as well as the will to hurt; rival lovers are jealous of each other, but one person is suspicious of another's honesty, or parties entering into a treaty may be suspicious of each otber's good faith. Jeal. ousy cannot subsist between a king and his people in any other than in the anomalous and unhappy case of power being the object sought for on both sides; a king may then be jealous of his prerogative when he fears that it will be infringed by his people; and the people will be jealous of tbeir rights when they fear that they will be invaded by the crown. According to this distinction, jealousy is erroneously substituted in the place of suspicion.
The obstinacy in Essex, In refusing to treat with the king, proceeded only from his jeclousy (suspicion), that when the king had got him into his hands he would take revenge upon him.

Clarendon.
Jealousy is alone concerned in not losing what one wishes for; suspicion is afraid of suffering some positive evil.

Thoogh wisdom wake, suspicion sleeps At wisdom's gate, and to simplicity Resigns her charge : while goodness thinks no ill Where no ill seems. Milton.

## TO JEST, JOKE, MAKE GAME, SPORT.

JEST is in all probability abridged from gesticulate, because the ancient mimics used much gesticulation in breaking their jests on the company. JOKE, in Latin jocus, comes in all probability from the Hebrew tsechek, to laugh. To MAKE GAME siguifies here to make the subject of game or play (v. Play). To SPORT signifies here to sport with, or convert into a subject of amusement.

One jests in order to make others laugh; one jokes in order to please one's self. The jest is directed at the object; the
joke is practised with the person or on the person. One atternpts to make a thing laughable or ridiculous by jesting about it, or treating it in a jesting manner; one attempts to excite good-bumor in others, or indulge it in one's self by joking with then. Jests are therefore seldom harmless : jokes are frequently allow. able. The most serious subject may be degraded by being turned into a jest; but melancholy or dejection of the mind may be conveniently dispelled by a joke. Court fools and buffoons used formerly to break their jests upon every subject by which they thought to entertain their employers: those who know how to joke with good-nature and discretion may contribute to the mirth of the company: to make game of is applicable only to persons: to make a sport of or sport with, is applied to objects in general, whether persons or things; both are employed, like $j e s t$, in the bad sense of treating a thing more lightly than it deserves.
But those who aim at ridicule, Should fix upon some certain rule,
Which fuirly hints they are in jest. Swift.
How fond are men of rule and place,
Who court it from the mean and base,
They love the cellar's vulgar joles,
And lose their hours in ale and smoke. Gar.
When Samson's eyes were ont, of a public magistrate he was made a public sport. - Soutr.

## JOURNEY, TRAVEL, VOYAGE.

JOURNEY, from the French journée, a day's work, and Latin diurnus, daily, signifies the course that is taken in the space of a day, or in general any comparatively short passage from one place to another. TRAVEL, from the French travailler, to labor, signifies such a course or passage as requires labor, and causes fatigue; in general any long course. VOYAGE is most probably changed from the Latin via, a way, and originally signified any course or passage to a distance, but is now confined to passages by sea.

We take journeys in different counties in England; we make a voyage to the Indies, and travel over the continent. Journeys are taken for domestic business; travels are made for amusement or information: voyages are made by captains or merchants for purposes of commerce. Wo estimate journeys by the
day, as one or two days' journey: wa estimate travels and voyages by the months and years that are employed. The Israelites ara said to have journeyed in the wilderness forty years, because they went but short distances at a time. It is a part of polite education for young men of fortune to travel into those countries of Europe which comprehend the grand tour, as it is termed. A voyage round the world, which was at first a formidable undertaking, is now become familiar to the mind by its frequency.

To Paradise, the happy seat of man, His journey's end, and our begiming woe.

Milton.
Cease mourners; ceasc complaint, and weep no more.
Your lost friends are not dead, but gone before, Advanc'd a stage or two upon that road
Which you must travel in the steps they trode. Cumberlland.
Calm and serene, he secs approaching death, As the safe port. th' peaceful silent shore,
Where he may rest, life's tedious voyage o'er.
Jenyns.

## JOY, GLADNLASA, MIRTH.

The happy condition of the soul is designated by all these terms; but JOY, from the Latio jocundus, pleasant, and GLADNESS ( $v$. Glad) lie more internally; MIRTH ( $v$. Festivity) is the more immediate result of external circumstances. What creates joy and gladness is of a permanent nature ; that which creates mirth is temporary: joy is the most vivid sensation in the soul; gladness is the same in quality, but inferior in degree : joy is awakened in the mind by the most important events in life; giadness springs up in the mind on ordinary occasions: the return of the prodigal son awakened joy in the heart of his father; a man feels gladness at being relieved from some distress or trouble: public events of a gratifying nature produce universal joy; relief from either sickness or want brings gladness to an oppressed heart; he who is absorbed in his private distresses is ill prepared to partake of the mirth with which he is surrounded at the festive board. Joy is depicted on the countenance, or expresses itself by various demonstrations: gladness is a more tranquil feeling, which is enjoyed in secret, and seeks no outward expression : mirth displays itself in laughter, siuging, and noise.

His thoughts triumphant, heav'n alone employs And hope anticipates his future joys. JENYNA
Nonc of the pocts have observed so well as Milton those secret overflowings of gladness, which diffuse themsclves through the mind of the be. holder upon surveying the gay scenes of nature,

ADDISON,
Th' unwieldy elephant,
To make them mirth, ns'd all his might.
Miltox.

## JUDGE, UMPIRE, ARBITER, ARBItrator.

JUDGE, in Latin judico and judex, from jus, right, signifies one pronouncing ths law, or determining right. UMPIRE is most probably a corruption from empire, signifying one who has authority. ARBITER and ARBITRATOR, from arbitror, to think, signify one who decides.

Judge is the generic term, the others are only species of the judge. The judge determines in all matters disputed or undisputed; be pronounces what is law now as well as what will be law for the future; the umpire and arbiter are only judges in particular cases that admit of dispute: there may be judges in literature, in arts, and civil matters; umpires and arbiters are only judges in private matters. The judge pronounces, in matters of dispute, according to a written law or a prescribed rule; the umpire decides in all matters of contest; and the arbiter or arbitrator in all matters of litigation, according to his own judgment. The judge acts under the appointment of government; the umpire and arbitrator are appointed by individuals: the former is chosen for his skill; he adjudges tha palm to the victor according to the merits of the case: the latter is chosen for his impartiality; he consults the interests of both by equalizing their claims. The office of judge is one of the most honorable; an umpire is of use in deciding contested merits, as the umpire at the games of the Greeks; in poatry and the gravs style, the term may be applied to higher objects.
Palæmon shall be juage how Ill you rhyme. Drydem.
To pray'r repentance, and obedience dne, Mine ear shall not he slow, mine eye not shat, And I will place within them as a guide, My umpire conscience.

Miltox.
1 am not out of the reach of people pho ohlige me to act as their judge or their urbitrator.

Melyocin's Letters of Plinis

The office of an arbiter, althougb not so elevated as a judge in its literal sense, has often the important duty of a Christian peace-maker; and as the determinations of an arbiter are controlled by no exterual circumstances, the term is applied to monarchs, and even to the Creator as the sovereign Arbiter of the world.

## Yeu once have known me,

 Twixt warring monarchs and contending states, The glorious arbiter.LEWis.

## JUDGMENT, DISCRETION, PRUDENCE.

These terms are all employed to express the various modes of practical wisdom, whioh serve to regulate the conduct of men in ordinary life. JUDGMENT is that faculty which enables a person to distinguish right and wrong in general: DISCRETION and PRUDENCE serve the same purpose in particular cases. Judgment is conclusive; it decides by positive inference; it enables a person to discover the truth : discretion is intuitive ( $v$. Discernment); it discerns or perceives what is in all probability right. Judgment acts by a fixed rule; it admits of no question or variation; discretion acts according to circumstances, and is its own rule. Judgment determines in the choice of what is good: discretion sometimes only guards against error or direct mistakes; it chooses what is nearest to the truth. Judgment requires knowledge and actual experience; discretion requires reflection and consideration: a general exercises his judgment in the disposition of his army, and in the mode of attack; while he is following the rules of military art he exercises his discretion in the choice of officers for different posts, in the treatment of his men, in his negotiations with the enemy, and various other measures which depend upon contingencies.

[^82]things, as well as the consequences which may follow from them; it determines according to the real propriety of anything, as well as the ultimate adrantages which it may produce: prudence looks only to the good or evil which may result from things; it is, therefore, but a mode or accompaniment of discretion: we must have prudence when we have discretion, but we may have prudence where there is no occasion for diseretion. Those who have the conduct or direction of others require discretion; those who have the management of their own concerns require prudence. For want of discretion the master of a school, or the general of an army, may lose his authority: for want of prudence the merchant may involve himself in ruin; or the man of fortune may he brought to beggary.

> As to forms of human institution, they were added by the bishops and gevernors of the Church according to their wisdom and discretion.

Bingham.
The ignorance in which we are left concerning goad and evil is not such as to snpersede prudence in conduct.

Blair.
As epithets, judicious is applied to things oftener than to persons; discreet is applied to persons rather than to things; prudent is applied to both: a remark, or a military movement is $j u d i$ cious; it displays the judgment of the individual from whom they emanate; a matron is discreet who, by dint of years, experience; and long reflection, is enabled to determine on what is befitting the case; a person is prudent who does not inconsiderately expose himself to danger; a measure is prudent that guards against the chances of evil. Connsels will be injudicions which are given by those who are ignorant of the subject : it is dangerous to intrust a secret to one who is indiscreet: the impetuosity of youth naturally impels them to be imprudent; an imprudent marriage is seldom followed by prudent conduct in the parties that have involved themselves in it.
Sa bold, yet so judiciously you đare, That your least praise is te be regalar.

Dhydes
To elder years, to be discreet and grave ; Then to old age maturity she gave. Denaak
The monarch rose preventing all reply,
Prudent, lest from his resolvtion rais'd Others amone the chiefs might offer.

M14T0

## JUSTICE, EQUITY.

JUSTICE, from jus, right, is founded on the laws of society: EQUITY, from cequitos, fairness, rightness, and equality, is founded on the laws of nature. Justice ip a written or prescribed lsw, to which one is bound to conform sod make it the rule of one's decisions: equity is a law in uur hearts; it conforms to no rule but to circumstances, and decides by the consciousness of right and wrong. The proper objeet of justice is to secure property; the proper objeet of equity is to secure the rights of humsnity. Justice is exclusive, it sssigns' to every one his own ; it preserves the subsisting inequality between men: equity is communiestive; it seeks to equalize the condition of men by a fair distribution. Justice forbids us doing wrong to any one; and requires us to repair the wrongs we have done to oth ers: equity forbids us doing to others what we would not have them do to us; it requires us to do to others what in similar oircumstances we would expect from them,
They who supplicate for mercy from others can never hope for justice through themselves. . Bunke.
Ev'ry rule of equity demands That vice and virtue from the Almighty's hands Should due rewards and punishments receive.

JElifns.

## JUSTNESS, CORRECTNESS.

JUSTNESS, from jus, law (v. Justice), is the conformity to established principle: CORRECTNESS, from rectus, right or straight ( $v$. Correct), is the conformity to a certain mark or line: the former is used in the moral or improper sense only; the latter is used in the proper or improper seose. We estimate the vaiue of remarks by their justness, that is, their accordanee to certain admitted principles. Correctness of outline is of the first importance in drawing ; correctness of dates enhances the value of a history. It has been justly. observed by the morslists of sntiquity that money is the root of all evil; partisans seldom state correctly what they see and hear.

Few men, possessed of the most perfect sight, can describe visnal objects with more spirit and Itatinesa than Mr. Blacklock, tha poet bornd blind.

Buake.

I do not mean tha popular aloquence which cannot be tolarated at the bar, but that correctness of style and elegance of method which at once pleases and persuades the hearer.

SIM W. Jones.

## K.

## TO KEEP, PRESEIVE, SAVE.

The idea of having in one's possession: is common to all these terms; whieh is, however, the simple mesning of KEEP (v. To hold, keep): to PRESERVE, from pre and servo, to keep, that is, to keep from mischief, signifies to keep with csre, and free from sll injury; to SAVE, from safe, is to keep laid up in a safe place, and free from destruction. Things are kept at all times, and under all, circum. stanees; they are preserved in circum. stances of peculiar difficulty and danger; they are saved in the moment in which they are threatened with destruction: things are kept at pleasure; they are preserved by an exertion of power; they are saved by the use of extraordinsry means: the shepherd keeps his floek by simply watching over them; children are sometimes wonderfully preserved in the midst of the greatest dangers; things sre frequently saved in the midst of fire, by the exertions of those present.

We are resolved to keep an established chnrch, an established moriarchy, an established aristocracy, and an estahlished democracy, each in the degree in which it exists, and no greater.

Bunke.
A war to preserve uational independencs, property, and liberty, from certain, universal havoc, is a war just and necessary.

Sav'd from the general fate, but two remain, And ahi those hapless two were sav'd in vain.

> Pope.

TO KEEP, OBSERVE, FULTIL.
These terms are synonymous in the moral sense of abiding by, and carrying into execution what is prescribed or set before one for his rule of conduct: to KEEP ( $v$. To hold, keep) is simply to have by one in such manner that it shall not depart; to OBSERVE, in Latio abservo, compounded of ob and servo, signifying to keep in one's view, to fix one's atten. tion, is to keep with a steady attention;
to FULFIL (v. To accomplish) is to keep to the end or to the full intent. A day is either kept or observed: yet the former is not only a more familiar term, but it likewise implies a much less solcmn act than the latter; one must add, therefore, the mode in which it is kept, by saying that it is kept holy, kept sacred, or kept as a day of pleasure; the term observe, however, implies always that it is kept religiously: we may keep, but we do not observe a birthday; we keep or observe the Sabbath.

Wednesdays and Fridays were the days kept in the Greek Church for nore solemu fasts.

Wheatlex.
The Apostles and primitive Christians continned to observe the same hours of prayer with the Jews.

Whicatlex.
To keep marks simply a perseverance or continuance in a thing; a man keeps his word if he do not depart from it: to observe marks fidelity and consideration; we observe a rule when we are careful to be guided by it: to fulfil marks the perfection and consummation of that which one has kept; we fulfil a promise by acting in strict conformity to it.

It is a great $\sin$ to swear unto a $\sin$,
But greater sin to keep a sinful oath.
Shakspeare.
He was so strict In the observation of his word and promise as a commander, that he conld not be persuaded to stay in the West when he found it not in his power to perform the agreement he had made with Dorchester.

Clarendon.
You might have seen this poor child arrived at an age to fulfil all your hopea, and then you might have lost him.

Grat.

## KEEPING, CUSTODY.

KEEPING (v. To keep, hold) is, as before, the general term. CDSTODY, in Latin custodia and custos, in all probability from cura, care, because care is particnlarly required in keeping: the first of these terms is, as before, the most general in its signification; the latter is more frequent in its use. The keeping amounts to little more than having purposely in one's possession ; but mustody is a particular kind of keeping, for the purpose of preventing an escape: inanimate objects may be in onc's keeping; but a prisoner , or that which is in danger of getting away, is placed in custody: a person has in his keeping that which he values as the property of an absent friend; the
officers of justice get into their cusso $d y$ those who have offended against the laws, or such property as has been stolen.

Life and all its enjoyments would be acarce worth the keeping, if we were under a perpetual dread of losing them.

SPECTATOR.
Prior was auffered to live in his own house un. der the custody of a messenger, until he was examined before a committee of the l'rivy Council Jouneon

## TO KILL, MURDER, ASSASEINATE, SLAY;

 OR SLAUGHTER.KILL, in Saxon cyelan, Dutch kelan, is probably connected with the Low German killen, to torment, the Icelandish quella, to stifle, and our quell. MORDER, in German mord, etc., is connected with the Latin mors, death. ASSASSINATE signifies to kell after the man. ner of an assassin; which word probably comes from the Levant, where a prince of the Arsacides or assassins, who was called the old man of the mountains, lived in a castle between Antioch and Damascus, and brought up young men to lie in wait for passengers. SLAY or SLAUGHTER, in German schtagen, etc., comes probably from liegen, to lie, signifying to lay low.

To kill is the general and indefinite term, signifying simply to take away life; to murder is to kill with open violence and injustice; to assassinate is to murder by surprise, or by means of lying in wait; to slay is to kill in battle: to kill is applicable to men, animals, and also vegetables; to murder and assassinate to men only; to slay mostly to men, but sometimes to animals; to slaughter only to animals in the proper sense, but it may be applied to men in the improper sense, when they are killed like brites, either as to the numbers or to the manner of killing them.

[^83]
## KIND, SPECIES, SORT.

KIND, like the German kind, a child, comes from the Gothic keinan, Saxon cennan, to beget, which answers to the Latin gigno, whence genus, and the Greek revas, a kind. SPECLES, in Latin species, from specio, to behold, signifies literally the form or appearance, and in an extended sense that which comes under a particular form. SORT, in Latin sors, a lot, signifies that which constitutes a particular lot or parcel.

Kind and species are both employed in their proper sense; sort has been diverted from its original meaning by colloquial use: kind is properly employed for animate objects, particularly for mankind, and improperly for moral objects; species is a term used by philosophers, classing things according to their cxternal or internal properties. Kind, as a term in valgar use, has a less definite meaning than species, which serves to form the groundwork of science: we discriminate things in a loose or general manner by saying that they are of the aninal or vegetable kind; of the canine or feline kind; but we discriminate them precisely if we say that they are a species of the arbutus, of the pomegranate, of the dog, the horse, and the like. By the same rule we may speak of a species of madness, a species of ferer, and the like; because diseases have been brought under a systematic arrangement: but on the other hand, we should speak of a kind of language, a kind of feeling, a kind of influence; and in similar cases where a general resemblance is to be expressed.

An ungrateful person is a kind of thoroughfare or common sewer for the good things of the world to pass into.

SouTh.
If the French sloould succeed in what they propose, and establish a democracy in a country circumstanced like Frunce, they will establish a very had government, a very bad species of tyranny.

Bunke.
Sort may be used for either kind or species; it does not necessarily imply any affinity, or common property in the objects, but simple assemblage, produced, as it 'were, by sars, chance: hence we speak of such sort of folks or people; such sort of practices; different sorts of grain; the various sorts of merchandises: and in similar cases where things are sort-
ed or brought together, rather at the op tion of the person, than according to tha nature of the thing.
The French made and recorded a sort of instltute, and digest of anarchy, called the rights of man.

BuREE.

## KINDRED, RELATIONSHIP, AFFINITY, CONSANGUINITY.

The idea of a state in which persons are placed with regard to each other is common to all these terms, which differ principally in the nature of this state. KINDRED signifies that of being of the same kin or kind (v. Kind). RELATIONSHIP signifies that of holding a nearer relation than others (v. To connect). AFFINITY (v. Afinity) signifies that of being affined or coming close to each other's boundaries. CONSANGUINITY, from sanguis, the blood, sigdifies that of having the same blood.

The kindred is the most general state bere expressed : it may embrace all mankind, or refer to particular families or communities; it depends upon possessing the common property of humanity: the philanthropist claims kindred with all who are unfortunate, when it is in his power to relieve them. Relationship is a state less general than kindred, but more extended than either affinity or consanguinity; it applies to particular families only, but it applies to all of the same family, whether remotely or distantly related. Affinity denotes a close relationship, whether of an artificial or a natural kind: there is an affinity between the husband and the wife in consequence of the marriage tie; and there is an affinity between those who descend from the same parents or relations in a direct line. Consanguinity is, strictly speaking, this latter species of descent; and the term is mostly employed in all questions of law respecting descent and inheritance.
Though separated from my kindred by little more than half a century of miles, I know as little of their concerns as if oceans and continents were between us.

Cowpel,
The wisdom of our Creator hath linked us by the ties of natural affection; first, to our families and children; next, to our brothers, rela tions, a hid friends.

Blackstone.
Cons.rnguinity, or relation by hlood, and afinity, or relation by marriage, are canonical disabilities (tọ contract a marriage).

Byackptons

TO KNOW, BE ACQUAINTED WITH.
To KNOW is a general term; to BE ACQUAINTED WITH is particular ( $v$. Acquaintance). We may know things or persons in various ways; we may know them by name only; or we may know their internal properties or characters; or we may simply know their figure; we may know them by report; or we may know them by a direct intercourse: one is acquainted with either a person or a thing, only in a direct manner, and by an immediate intercourse in one's own person. We know a man to be good or bad, virtuous or vicious, by being a witness to his actions; we become acquaintad with him by frequently being in his company.

Is there no temp'rate region can be known, Between their frigid and our torrid zone? Could we not wake from that lethargic dream, But to be restless in a worse extreme?

Deneam.
But how shall I express my anguish for my little boy, who becane acquainted with sorrow as soon as he was capable of reffection.

Melmoth's Letters of Cicero.

## KNOWLEDGE, SCIENCE, LEARNING, ERUDITION.

KNOWLEDGE signifies the thing kiown. SCIENCE, in Latin scientia, from scio, to know, has the same original meaning. LEARNING, from learn, signifies the thing learned. ERUDITION, in Latin erruditio, comes from erndio, to bring out of a state of rudeness or ignorance, that is, the bringing into a state of perfection.

Knowledge is a general term which simply implies the thing known: science, learning, and erudition are modes of knowledge qualified by some collateral idea: science is a systematic species of knowledge which consists of rule and order; learning is that species of knowladge which one derives from schools, or through the medium of personal instruction; erudition is scholastic knowledge ohtained by profound research: knowledge admits of every possible degree, and is expressly opposed to ignorance; science, learning, and crudition are positively high degrees of knoioledge.

The attainment of knouledge is of itsolf a oleasure indenendent of the many

Extrinsic advantages which it brings to every individual, according to the station of life in which he is placed; the pursuits of science have a peculiar interest for men of a peculiar turn. Learning is less dependent on the genius than on the will of the individual ; men of moderato talents have overcome the deficiencies of naturc, by labor and persevcrance, and have acquired such stores of learning as have raised them to a respectable station in the republic of letters. Profound erm dition is obtained but by few; a reten. tive memory, a patient industry, and deep penetration, are requisites for one who aspires to the title of an erudito man. Knowledge, in the unqualified and universal sense, is not always a good; we may have a knowledge of evil as well as good: science is good as far as it is founded upon experience; learning is more generally and practically useful to the morals of men than science: erudition is always good, as it is a profound knowh edge of what is worth knowing.

Can knowledge have no bound, hut must advance
So far, to make us wish for ignorance ?

Deniam.

O sacred poesy, thou spirit of Roman arts,
The sonl of science, and the queen of souls.

## B. Jongon.

As learning advanced, new words were adopted into our language, but 1 think with little improvement of the art of translation. Jounson.

Two of the French clergy with whom I passed my evenings were men of deep erudition.

Borex

## L.

to labor, take pains or trouble, USE ENDEAVOR.
LABOR, in Latin labor, comes, in all probability, from labo, to falter or faint, because labor causes faintness. To TAKE PAINS is to expose one's self to pains; and to TARE the TROUBLE is to impose trouble on one's self. ENDEAVOR (v. To endeavor).

The first three terms suppose the necessity for a painful exertion; but to cabor expresses more than to take pains, and this more than to trouble. to usa
mdeavom excludes every idea of pain or incoavenisace: great difficulties must be conquered; great perfection or correctness requires pains; a concern to please will give trouble; but we use endeavors wherever any object is to be obtained or any duty to be perfonmed. To labor is either a corporeal or a mental action; to take pains is principally an effort of the mind or the attention: to take trouble is an effort either of the body or mind: a taithful minister of the Gospel labors to instil Christian principles into the minds of his audience, and to heal all the breaches which the angry passions make between them: when a child is properly sensible of the value of improvement, he will take the utnost pains to profit by the instruction of the master: he who is too indolent to take the trouble to make his wishes known to those 'who would comply with them, cannot expect others to trouble themselves with inquiring into his necessities: a good name is of such value to every man that he ought to use his best endeavors to preserve it nublemished.

Thay (the Jews) ware fain to take pains to rid themselves of their happiness ; and it cost them labor and violance to become miserahle.

Sootr.
A good conacience hath always enough to reward ltsclf, though the auccess fall not out according to the merit of the endeavor. Howell.

## LABYRINTH, MAZE.

Intricact is common to both the objocts expressed by these terms; but the term LABYRINTH has it to a much greater extent than MAZE: the labyrinth, from the Greek $\lambda a \beta v \rho \iota \nu \theta$ os, was a work of antiquity which surpassed the maze in the same proportion as the ancients surpassed the moderns in all other works of art; it was constructed on so prodigious a scals, aud with so many windings, that when a person was once gotered, he could not find his way out without the assistance of a clue or thread. Maze, probably from the Saxon mase, a gulf, is a modern term for a similar structure on a smaller scale, which is frequently made by way of ornament in large gardens. From the proper meaning of the two words we may easily see the ground of their metaphorical apoli-
cation: political and polemical discus sions are compared to a labyrinth; because the mind that is once entangled in them is unable to extricate itself by any efforts of its own: on the other hand, that perplexity and confusion into which the mind is thrown by unexpected or inexplicable events, is termed a maze; because, for the time, it is bereft of its power to pursue its ordinary functions of recollection and combination.

From tha alow mistress of the school, Experienon And her asslstant, pausing, pale Distrust, Purchase a dear-bought clne to leid his youth Through serpentine obliquities of human life, And the dark labyrinth of human hearts.

Young.
To meaaur'd notes while they advance, He in wild maze ahall lead the dance.

Cumberland.
LAND, COUNTRY.
LAND, in German land, etc., connected with lean and line, signifies an open, even space, and refers strictly to the earth. COUNTRY, in French contrée, from con and terra, signifies lands adjoining so as to form one portion. The term land, therefore, in its proper sense, excludes the idea of habitation; the term country excludes that of the earth, or the parts of which it is composed: hence we speak of the land; as rich or poor, according to what it yields: of a conentry, as rich or poor, according to what its inhabitants possess: so, in like manner, we say, the land is ploughed or prepared for receiving the grain; or a man's land, for the ground which he possesses or occupies: but the country is cultivated; the country is under a good government; or a man's country is dear to him.

Rous'd hy the prince of air, the whirlwinds sweep The surge, and plunge his father in the deep, Then full against the Cornish lande they roar, And two rich ahipwrecks bless the lucky shore.

Pope.
We love our country as the seat of religion, liberty, and laws.

Blatr.
In an extended application, however, these words may be put for one another: the word land may sometimes be put for any portion of land that is under a government, as the land of liberty; and country may be put for any spot of earth or line of country, together with thad which is uoon it ; as a rich comentru.

You are still in the land of the living, and have all the means that can be desired, whereby to prevent your falling into condemnation

Beveaidge.
The rich country from thence to Portici, covored with noble houses and gardeas, appearing only a continuation of the city.

Baynone.

## LANGUAGE, TONGUE, SPEECH, IDIOM, DIALECT.

LANGUAGE, from the Latin lingua, a TONGUE, signifies, like the word tongue, that which is spoken by the tongue. SPEECH is the act of speaking, or the word spoken. IDIOM, in Latin idioma, Greek $\iota \delta \iota \omega \mu a$, from $\iota \delta \iota o s$, proprias, proper, or peculiar, signifies a peculiar mode of speaking. DIALECT, in Latin dialeclica, Greek $\delta_{\iota a} \lambda_{\varepsilon \kappa т \iota к \eta \text {, from }} \delta_{\iota a \lambda \varepsilon \gamma о \mu a t, ~}^{\text {, }}$ to speak in a distinct manner, signifies a distinct mode of speech.

All these terms mark the manner of expressing our thoughts, but under different circumstances. Language is the most general term in its meaning and application; it conveys the general idea without any modification, and is applied to other ${ }^{1}$ modes of expression, besides that of words, and to other objects besides persons; the language of the eyes frequently supplies the place of that of the tongue; the deaf and dumb use the language of signs; birds and beasts are supposed to have thcir peculiar language: tongue, speech, and the other terms, are applicable only to human beings. Language is either written or spoken ; but a tongue is conceived of mostly as something to be spoken: whence we speak of ore's mother tongue.
Nor do they trust their tongue alone, But speak a language of their own.

SWIFT.
What if we could discourse with people of an the nations upon the earth in their own mother tongue ? Unless we know Jesus Christ, also, re shonld he lost forever. Beveridge.
Speech is an abstract term, implying either the power of uttering articulate sounds; as when we speak of the gift of speech, which is denied to those who are dumb: or the words themselves which are spoken; as when we speak of the parts of speech: or the particular mode of expressing one's self; as tbat a man is known by his speech. Idiom and dialect are not properly a language, but the properties of language: idiom is the pe-
culiar construction and turn of a last guage, which distinguishes it altogether from others; it is that which enters into the composition of the language, and cannot be separated from it.
When speech is employed only as the vehicle of falsebood, every man must disunite himself from others.

Johnsom.
The lenguage of this great poet is sometime obscared by old words, transpositions, aad foreign idioms.

Adnison.
A dialect is that which is engrafted on a language by the inhabitants of particu. lar parts of a country, and admitted by its writers and learned men to form an incidental part of the language; as the dialects which ariginated with the Ionians, the Athenians, the Aolians, and were afterward amalgamated into the Greek tongue. Whence the word dialect may be extended in its application to denote any peculiar manner of speech adopted by any community.

Every art has its dialect, unconth and ungrateful to all whom castom has not reconciled to its sound.

JOHNsion.

## LARGE, WIDE; BROAD.

LARGE ( $v$. Great) is applied in a general way to express every dimension; it implies not only abundance in solid matter, but also freedom in the space, or extent of a plane superficies. WIDE, in German weit, is most probably connected with the French vide and the Latin viduus, empty, signifying properly an empty or open space unencumbered by any obstructions. BROAD, in German breit, probably comes from the noun bret, a board; because it is the peculiar property of a board, that is to say, it is the width of what is particularly long. Many things are large, but not wide; as a large town, a large circle, a large ball, a largs nut: other things are both large and wide; as a large field, or a wide field: a large house, or a wide house: but the field is said to be large from the quantity of ground it contains; it is said to bs wide both from its figure and the extent of its space in the cross directions; in like manner, a house is large from its ex. tent in all directions; it is said to bs wide from the extent which it runs in front: some things are said to be wide which are not denominated large; thut
is, elther such things as hsve less bulk and quantity then extent of plane surfsce; as ell-wide cloth, a wide opening, a wide entrance, and the like; or such as have an extent of spsce only one way; as a wide road, s wide psth, a wide pssssge, and the like. What is broad is in sense, snd mostly in spplication, wide, but not vice versa: s ribbon is broad; s ledge is broad; s ditch is broad; a plank is broad; the brim of a hat is broad; or the border of anything is brood: on the other hsnd, a mouth is wide, but not broad; apertures in general are wide, but not broad. Large is opposed to small : wide to close; broad to narrow. In the moral application, we speak of largeness in regard to liberality; wide and broad only in the figurstive sense of spsce or size: as a wide difference; or a broad line of distinction.

Shall griaf contract the largeness of that heart, In which nor fear nor anger has a part?

Wallen.
Wide was the wound
But uuddenly with flesh fll'd up and heal'd.
Milton.
The wider a man's comforts extend, the broader is the mark which he apreads to the arrows of misfortune.

Blair.

## LARGELY, COPIOUSLY, FULLY.

LARGELY ( $v$. Great) is here tsken in the moral sense, snd, if the derivation given of it be true, in the most proper sense. COPIOUSLY comes from the Latin copia, plenty, signifying in s plentiful degree. FULLY signifies in a full degree; to the full extent, as fsr as it can resch.

Qusntity is the ides expressed in common by all these terms; but largely has always a reference to the freadom of the will in the sgent; copiously quslifies actions that are done by inanimste objects; fully qualifies the actions of s rstionsl agent, but it denotes a degree or extent which csnnot be surpassed. A person desls largely in things, or he drinks large draughts; rivers sre copiously supplied in rainy seasons; a person is fully satIsfied, or fully prepsred. A bountiful Providence has distributed his gifts largely among his creatures: blood flows copiously from a deep wound when it is first made: when a msn is not fully conrinced of his qwa insufficiency, he is not
prepared to listen to the counsel of oth ers.
There ia one vary faulty method of drawing up the laws, that is, when the case is largely set forth in the preamble.
bicon.
The youths with wios the coplous goblets crown'd,
And pleas'd diapense the flowing bowls aronnd.
Pope.
Every word (in the Bible) in so weighty that it ought to be carefnlly considered by all that desire fully to underatand the aenge. Baveaidge.

## LAST, LATEST, FINAL, ULTIMATE.

LAST and LATEST, both from late, in German letze, is connected with the Greek入otr $\theta$ os and $\lambda_{\varepsilon ı \pi} \omega$, to lesve, signifying left or remsining. FINAL, v. Final. ULTIMATE comes from uitimus, the last.

Last and uldimate respect the order of succession: latest respects the order of time; final respects the completion of sn object. What is last or ultimate is succeeded by nothing else: whst is latest is succeeded at no grest interval of time; what is final requires to be succeeded by nothing else. The last is opposed to the first; the ultimate is distinguished from thst which immediately precedes it; the latest is opposed to the earliest; the final is opposed to the introductory or beginning. A person's last words are those by which one is guided; his ultimate object is sometimes remote or concealed from the view; a conscientious man remains firm to his principles to his latest breath; the final determinstion of difficult matters requires caution. Jealous people strive not to be the last in anything; the latest intelligence which a man gets of his country is acceptsble to one who is in distsnt quarters of the globe; it requires resolution to tske a final leave of those whom one holds near and dear.

The snpreme Autbar of our being has bo formed the soul of man that nothing but himself can be its last, adequate, and proper happiness. Adnigon.
Our first parent transgressed the gracious law which was given him as the condition of life, and thereby involved himself and all his children to the latest generations in guilt, misery, and ruin.

BidOULPH.
Final canses lie more bare and open to our observation, as there are often a greater variety that belong to the same effect.

Apnison.
The ultimate end of man ia the enjoyment of God, beyond which he cannot form a wish.

Ggovz

## LAUGHABLE

LASTLY, AT LAST, AT LENGTH.
LASTLY, like last (v. Last), respects the order of succession : AT LAST or AT LENGTH refer to what has preceded. When a sermon is divided into many heads, the term lastly comprehends the last division. When an affair is settled after much difficulty, it is said to be at last settled; and if it be settled after a protracted continuance, it is said to se gettled at length.

Lastly, opportunitiea do sometimes offer in whieh a man may wickedly make his fortune without fear of temporai damage. In such casea What restraint do they lie undar who have no regard beyond the grave?

ADDiaon.
At laat being satisfled they had nothing to fear, they brought out all thair corn avery day.

Adpison.
A neighboring king had made war upon this femals repnblic several yeara with various auccess, and at length ovarthrew them in a vary great battla.

ADMIGON.

## LAUDABLE, PRAISEWORTHY, COMMENDABLE.

LAUDABLE, from the Latin laudo, to praise; is in sense literally PRAISEWQRTHY', that is, worthy of praise, or to be praised ( $v$. To praise). COMMENDA. BLE slgnifies satitled to commendation.

Laudable is used in a general application; praiseworthy and commendable are applied to lndividuals: things are laudable in themselves; they are praiseworthy or commendable in, this or that person. That which is laudable is entitled to encouragement and general approbation; an honest endeavor to be useful to ons's family or one's self is at all times laudable $e_{i}$ and will insure the support of all good people. What is praisezorthy obtains the respect of all men: as all have temptations to do that which is wrong, the performance of one's duty is in all cases praiseworthy; but particularly so in those cases where it opposes one's interests and interfercs with one's pleasures. What is commendable is not equally important with the former two; it entitles a person only to a temporary or partial expression of good-will and approbation; the performance of those minor and particular duties which belong to children and subordinate persons is in the proper sense commendable.

Nothing is more laudable than an inqniry af ten, truth.
Ridicule is generaily made use of to laugh men out of virtue and good-sense, by attacking everything praiaeworthy in human life. Andison.
Edmund Waller was born to a very fair estate by the parsimony or frugality of a wise father and mother, and he thonght it so commendable an advantage that he resolved to improve it, with his intmost care.

Cliatendon.

## TO LAUGH AT, RIDICULE.

LAUGH, through the medium of the Saxon hlahan, old German lahan, Greek $\gamma^{2} \lambda a \omega$, comes from the Hebrew lahak, with no variation in the meaning. RIDICULE, from the Latin rideo, has the same original meaning.

Both these verbs are used here in the improper sense for laughter, blended with more or less of contempt: but the former displays itself by the natural expression of laugher: the latter shows itself by a verbal expression: the former is produced by a feeling of mirth, on observing the real or supposed weakness of another; the latter is produced by a strong sense of the absurd or irrational in an-other:- the former is more immediately directed to the person who has excited the feeling; the latter is more commonly produced by things than by persons. We laugh at a person to his face; but wo ridicule his notions by writiog or in the course of conversation: we laugh at the individual ; we ridicule that which la maintained by him.
Men laugh at one anotber's coat. Swifr.
It is easy for a man who sits idle at home and has nobody to please but himself, to ridicule or censure the common practices of mankind.

Jenyna.
LAUGHABLE, LUDICROUS, RIDICULOUS, COMICAL, OR COMIC, DROLL.
LAUGHABLE signifies exciting, or fit to excite laughter. LUDICROUS, in Latin ludicer or ludicrus, from ludus, a game, signifies belongiog to a game or eport. RIDICULOUS, exciting, or fit to excite ridicule.

Either the direct action of laughter or a corresponding sentiment is included in the signification of all these terms: they differ principally in the cause which produces the feeling; the laughable consists of objects in general, whether personal or otherwise; the lidicrous and ridiow
bous have reference more or less to that which is personal. What is laughable may excite simple merriment independeutly of all personal reference, uoless we admit what Mr. Hobbes, and after him Addison, have maintained of all laughter, that it springs from pride. But without entering into this nice question, I am inelined to distinguiah between the laugh able which arises from the reflection of what is to our own advantage or pleasure, and that which arisea from reflecting on what is to the disadvantage of another. The tricks of a monkey, or the humorous stories of wit, are laughable from the nature of the things themselves, without any apparent allusion, however remote, to any individual but the one whose senses or mind ia gratified. The ludicrons and ridiculous are, however, species of the laughable which arise al together from reflecting on that which ia to the disadvantage of another; but the ludicrous has in it less to the disadvantage of another than the ridiculous. It is possible, therefore, for a person to he in a ludicrous situation without any kind of moral demerit, or the slightest depreciation of his moral character; since that which renders his situation ludicrous is altogether independent of himself; or it becomes ludierous only in the eyes of incompetent judges. "Lret an ambassador," says Mr. Pope, "speak the hest sense in the world, and deport himself in the most graceful manner before a prince, yet if the tail of his shirt happen, as I have known it happen to a very wise man, to hang out behind, more people will laugh at that than attend to the other." This ia the ludicrous. The same can seldom be said of the ridiculous; for as this springs from positive moral causes, it reflects on the person to whom it attaches in a lesa questionable shape, and produces positive disgrace. Persons very rarely appear ridiculous without being really so; and he who is really ridiculous justly excites contempt.
They'll not show their teeth in way of smile, Though Nestor swear the jest be laughable.

Shakspeare.
The action of the theatre, thongh modern states esteem It hnt ludicronis unless it be satirical and hiting, was carefully watched by the ancients that it might inprove mankind in virtue. Bacon.

Infolies paupertas has nothing in it more in-
tolerable than this, that it renders men ridicu lous.

South.
DROLL and COMICAL are in the proper sense applied to things which cause laughter, as when we speak of a droll story, or a comical incident, or a COMIC song. They may be applied to the person; but not 80 as to reflect disadvantageously on the individual, as in the former terms.

A comic sabject loves a humble verse, Thyestes scorns a low and comic style.

Roscomyon.
In the Augustine age ftself, uotwithstanding the censare of Horace, they preferred the low huffoonery and drollery of Plautus to the delicacy of Terence.

Wabton.

## LAWFUL, LEGAL, LEGITMMATE, LICIT.

LAWFUL, from law, LEGAL or LE. GITIMATE, from the Latin lex, all signify , in the proper sense, helonging to law. They differ, therefore, according to the sense of the word law; lawful respects the law in general, defined or undefined; legal respects only the law of the land which is defined ; and legitimate respects the laws or rules of science as well as civil matters in general. LICIT, from the Latin licet, to be allowed, is used only to characterize the moral quality of actions; the laufful properly implies conformable to or enjoined by law; the legal what is in the form or after the manner of law, or hinding hy law: it is not lawful to coin money with the king's stamp; a marriage was formerly not legal in England which was not solemnized according to the rites of the Established Church: men's passions impel them to do many things which are unlawful or illicit; their ignorance leads them into many things which are illegal or illegitimate. As a good citizen and a true Christian, every man will be anxious to avoid everything which is unlanoful: it is the businesa of the lawyer to define what is legal or illegal: it is the business of the critic to define what is legitimate verse in poetry; it is the business of the linguist to define the legitimate use of words: it is the business of the moralist to point out what is illicit.

According to this spiritusl doctor of politices, if his majesty does not owe his crown to the choice of his people, he is no lawful king.

Bugle

Swift's mental powers declined till (1741) it was found necessary that legul guardians should be appointed to his person and fortune. Jounson.

Upon the whole, I bave sent this my offspring into the world in as decent a dress as I was able; a legitimate one I am sure it is.

Moone.
The King of Prussia charged some of the offlcers, his prisoners, with maintaining an illicit correspondence.

Smollett.

## to lay or take hold of, catch, SEIzE, SNATCH, GRASP, GRIPE.

To LAY or TAKE HOLD OF is here the generic expression; it denotes simply getting into one's possession, which is the common idea in the signification of all these terms, which differ in regard to the motion in which the action is performed. To CATCH is to lay hold of with an effort. To SEIZE is to lay hold of with violence. To SNATCH is to lay hold of by a sudden effort. One is said to lay hold of that on which one placis his hand; he takes hold of that which he secures in bis hand. We lay hold of anything when we see it falling; we take hold of anything when we wish to lift it up; we catch what attempts to escape; we seize it when it makes resistance; we snatch that which we are particularly afraid of not getting otherwise. A person who is fainting lays hold of the first thing which comes in his way; a sick person or one that wants support takes hold of another's arm in walking; various artifices are employed to catch animals; the wild beasts of the forest seize their prey the moment they come within their reach; it is the rude sport of a school-boy to snatch out of the hand of another that which be is not willing to let go.

Sometimes it happens that a corn slips out of their paws, when they (the ants) are climbing up; they take hold of it again when they can find it, otherwise they look for another.

ADDison.
One great genius often catches the flame from another.

Addison.
Furious he said, and tow'rd the Grecian crew, Weiz'd by the crest) th' unhappy warrior drew.

Pope.
The hungry harpies fly,
They snatch the meat, defling all they find.
Dryden.
To lay hold of is to get in the possession. To GRASP and to GRIPE signify to have or keep in the possession; an eagerness to keep or not to let go is expressed by that of grasping; a fearful
anxiety of losing and an earnest desire of keeping is expressed by the act of griping. When a famished man lays hold of food he grasps it, from a convulsive kind of fear lest it should leave him: when a miser lays hold of money, he gripes it from the love he bears to it, and the fear he has that it will be taken from him.

Like a miser midst his store,
Who graspe and grasps till be can hold no more.

Detiden.
They grips their oaks; and every panting breast Is rais'd by turns with hope, by turns with fear depress'd.

Dryden.

## TO LEAD, CONDUCT, GUIDE.

LEAD, in Saxon leden, Low German leiden, is connected with the old German leit, a way, siguifying to put in the way, or help in one's way. CONDUCT, Latin conductus, participle of conduco or con or cum with, and duco, to lead, signifies to bring with one. GUIDE, in French guider, Saxon witan or wisan, German, etc., weisen, to show, signifies to show the way.

All these terms are employed to denote the influence which a person has over the movements or actions of some person. To lead is an unqualified action: one leads by helping a person onward in any manner, as to lead a child by the hand, or to lead a person through a wood by going before him. To conduct and guide are different modes of leading, the former by virtue of one's office or authority, the latter by one's knowledge or power; as to conduct an army, or to conduct a person into the presence of another; to guide a traveller in an unknown country. These words may therefore be applied to the same objects: a general leads an army, inasmuch as he goes before it into the field; he conducts an army, iaasmuch as he directs its operations; the stable-boy leads the horses to water; the coachman guides the horses in a carriage.

The shepherd's going bcfore the sheep, and leading them to pure waters and verdant pastures, is a very striking and beantiful representation of God's preventing grace and continual help.

Shepherd.
We waited some time in expectation of the next worthy who came in with a great retinue of historians whose names I could not learn, most of them being natives of Carthage. The person thus conducted, who was Hannibal, seemed much disturbed.

Addyion.

His ouide, as faithful from that day As Hesperus, that leads the sun his way. Fairfax.
Conduct and guide may also be applied in this souse to inanimate objects; as the pilot conducts the vessel into the port, the steersman guides a vessel by the help of the rudder.

When smooth old ocean and each storm's asleep, Then ignorance muy plough the watery deep, But when the demon of the tempest rave,
Skill must conduct the vessel through the wave. Gilaingez.
No more-but hasten to thy tasks at home, There guide the spindle and direct the loom.

Pope.
In the moral application of these terms, persons may lead or guide other persons, but they conduct things; as to lead a person into a course of life; to guide him in a course of reading or study; to conduct a lawsuit, or any particular business. To lead weing a matter of purely personal influence, may be either for the benefit or injury of the person led.
Can knowledge have no bound, but must advance So far to make us wish for ignorance?
And rather in the dark to grope our way
Thun led by a fulse guide to err by day.
Denham.
To conduct, supposing judgment and managerment, and to guide, supposing superior iotelligence, are always taken in the good sense, unless otherwise qualificd.
He so conducted the affairs of the kingdon, that he made the reign of a very weak prince most happy to the English. Load Lytifeton.
Imoinda. Oh! this separation
Has made you deurer, if it can be so, Than you were ever to me; you appear Like a kind star to my benighted step To guide me on my way to happiness.

Southern.
Things as well as persons may lead, conduct, and guide, with a similar distinction. Whatever serves as a motive of action, or as a course and passage to a place or an object, leads.
Our schemes of thought in infancy are lost in those of youth; these too take a different turn in manhood, till old age often leads us back into our former infancy.

Spectator
Whatever influences our cooduct rightly, conducts.

She imbibed in childhoed those principles whicb in middle life preserved her untainted from the profligacy of ene husband and the fanaticism of another; and after her deliverance from both,
conducted her to the close of a long life in the uniform exercise of every virtne whicb became her sex, her rank, her Christian profession.

Whitazer.
Whatever serves as a rule or guide, guides.
The brules are ouided by instinct, and know no sorrow.

Sterle.
As persons may sometimes be false grides, so things may furnish a false rule.
He now entirely disposed of all the graces of the king, In conferring all the fuvors and all the offices of three kingdems without a rival : in the dispensing whereof he was guided more by the rules of appetite than of judgment.

Clarendon.

## LEAN, MEAGRE.

LEAN is in all probability coonected with line, laok, and long, signifying that which is simply long without any other dimensioo. MEAGRE, in Latin macer, Greek $\mu$ кк $\rho o s$, small.

Lean denotes want of fat; meagre want of flesh: what is lean is not always meagre; but nothing can be meagre without being lean. Brutes as well as men are lean, but men only are said to be meagre: leanness is frequently connected with the temperament; meagreness is the consequence of starvation and disease. There are some animals by nature inclined to be lean; a meagre, pale visage is to be seen perpetually in the haunts of vice and porerty.

The sixth age shifts
Into the lean and slippered pantaloen,
With spectacles on nose and peuch on side.
Shaksfeari-
So thin, so ghastly meagre, and so wan,
So bare of flesh, he scarce resembled man.
Dayden.
TO LEAN, INCLINE, BEND.
LEAN, in Saxon hlyian, Danish, etc., läne, is derived from the same root as the Latin clino, or the Greek $\kappa \lambda \iota \nu \omega$, and are connected with the word lie, lay. INCLINE is immediately derived from the Latin. BEND, v. To bend.

In the proper seose, lean and incline are both said of the position of bodies; bend is said of the shape of bodies: that which leans rests on one side, or in a sideward direction ; that which inclines, leans or turns ooly in a slight degree: that which bends forms a curvature; it does not all lean the same way: a house leans
when the foundation gives way; a tree may grow so as to incline to the right or the left, or a road may incline this or that way; a tree or a road bends when it turns out of the straight course. In the improper sense, the judgment leans, the will inclines, tbe will or conduct bends, in consequence of some outward action. A person leans to this or that side of a question which he favors; be inclines, or is inclined, to this or that mode of conduct; he bends to the will of another. It is the duty of a judge to lean to the side of mercy as far as is consistent with justice: whoever inclines too readily to listen to the tales of distress which are continually told to excite compassion will find himself in general deceived; an unbending temper is the bane of domestic felicity.

Like you a courtier born and bred,
Kings lean'd their ear to what I said. Gay.
Say what you want; the Latins you shall find, Not forc'd to goodness, but by will inelin'd.

Dryden.
And as on corn when western gnsts descend,
Before the blast the lofty harvest bend. Pope.

## TO LEAVE, QUIT, RELINQUISH.

LEAVE, in Saxon leafve, in old German laube, Latin linquo, Greek $\lambda \varepsilon \iota \pi \omega$, signifies either to leave or be wanting, because one is wanting in the place which one leaves. QUIT, in French quitter, from the Latin quietus, rest, signifies to rest or remain, to give up the hold of. RELINQUISH, v.Io abandon.

We leave that to which we may intend to return; we quit that to which we return no more: we may leave a place voluntarily or otherwise; but we relinquish it unwillingly. We leave persons or things; we quit and relinquish things only. I leave one person in order to speak to another; I leave my house for a short time; I quit it not to return to it.

Leave and quit may be used in the improper as well as the proper sense. It is the privilege of the true Christian to be able to leave all the enjoyments of this life, not only with composure, but with satisfaction; dogs have sometimes evinced their fidelity, even to the remains of their masters, by not quitting the spot where they are laid; prejndices, particutarly in matters of religion, acquire so deep a root in the mind that they cannot
be made to relinquish their hold by the most persuasive eloquence and forcible reasoning.
Why leave we not the fatal Trojan shore, And measure back the seas we cross'd before?

Pope.
The sacred wrestler, till a blessing giv'n,
Quits not his hold, but, halting, conquers heav'n.
Walleb.
To descend voluntarily from the supreme to a subordinate station, and to relinguiah tbe possession of power, in order to attain the enjoyment of happiness, seems to be an effort too great for the human mind.

Robeatson.

## TO LEAVE, TAKE LEAVE, BID FAREWELL, OR ADIEU.

LEAVE is here general as before ( 0 . To leave); it expresses simply the idea of separating one's self from an object, whether for a time or otherwise: to TAKE LEAVE and BID FAREWELL linply a separation for a perpetuity.

To leave is an unqualified action; it is applied to objects of indifference, or otherwise, but supposes in general no exercise of one's feelings. We leave persons as convenience requires; we leave them on the road, in the field, in the house, or wherever circumstances direct; we leave them with or without speaking; but to take leave is a parting ceremony between friends, on their parting for a considerable time; to bid farevell, or ADIED, is a still more solemn ceremony, when the parting is expected to be final. When applied to things, we leave such as we do not wish to meddle with; we take leave of those things which were agreeable to us, but which we find it prudent to give up; and we bid farewell to those for which we still retain a great attachment. It is better to leave a question nodecided, than to attempt to decide it by altercation or violence; it is greater virtue in a man to take leave of his vices, than to let them take leave of him; when a man engages in schemes of ambition, he must bid adien to all the enjoyments of domes: tic life.

Self alone, in nature rooted fast, Attends us first and leaves us last.

Swift.
Now I am to take leare of my readers, I am uader greater anxiety than I have known for the work of any day since I undertook this province.

Stefle.
Anticipate the awful moment of your bidding the world an eterval farevoell.

Blait.

## LEAVE, LIBEIRTY, PEIEMIBSION, LICENSE.

LEAVE has here the sense of freedom granted, becauae what is left to itaelf is left free. LIBERTY is also taken for liberty granted. PERMISSION signifies the act of permitting $(v$. To allow $)$, or the thing permitted. LICENSE, in Latin licentia, from licet, to be lawful, aignifiea the atate of being permitted by law or authority.
Leave and liberty may aometimes be taken as well aa given; permission and license is never to be taken, but must alwaye be granted, and that in an especial manmer-the former by express worda, the latter by some acknowledged and mostly legal form. Leave is employed only on familiar occasions; liberty ia given in more important mattera: the maeter gives leave to his servant to go out for his pleasure ; a gentleman gives his friends the liberty of ahooting on bis grounda: leave ia taken in indifferent matters, particularly as it respects leave of abaence; liberty is taken by a greater, and in general an unauthorized, stretch of 'one's' powera, and is, therefore,' an infringement on the rigbta of another. What ia done without the leave may be done wlthout the knowledge, though not contrary to the will of another; but lib. erties which are taken withont offering an apology are always calculated to give offence. Leave reapects only particular and private matters ; liberty respects general or particular mattera, public or private; as liberty of speech, liberty of the press, and the like.
1 must have leave to be grateful to any one Who serves me, let him be ever so obnoxions to any party.

Pope.
I am for the full liberty of diversion (for children) as mach as you can be.

Locke.
Leave and permission are both the acts of private individuals in apecial cases. The permission is a more formal and lesa familiar act than leave; the permission is ofted an act of courtesy passing between equals and friends; the leave is properly aaid of what paasea from auperiors to inferiors: a person obtains"leave of abaence. The license is always general, or resting on some general authority; as the licenses given by government, and poctic
licenses. Whenever applied to individus ala it carries with it the idea of a special authority; as a license given by a landlord to the tenant to asaign his lease.

And that they know well
That gave me public leave to speak of him.
Shakspeare,
The repeated permissions you give me of dealing freely with you, will, I hope, excuse what I have done.

Pope.
Leaving the wits the spacious air,
With license to build castles there.
Swift.

## LEAVINGS, REMAINS.

LEAVINGS are the conaequence of a voluntary act : they signify what is left : REMAINS are what follow in the course of thinga; they are what remains; the former is therefore taken in the bad senae to signify what has been left as worthless; the latter is never taken in thia bad aenee. When many persons of good taate have the liberty of chooaing, it ia fair to expect that the leavings will be worth little or nothing, after all have made their choice. By the remains of beanty which are discoverable in the face of a female, we may be enabled to eatimate what her personal gifta were.
Scale, fins, and bones, the leavings of the feast.' Somerville.
So midnight tapers waste their last remains.
Somervile

## TO LET, LEAVE, SUFFER.

The removal of hinderance or constraint on the actions of others, is implied by all these terms; but LET, like the German lassen, to leave, connected with the Latin laxcus, and our word loose, is a less formal action than LEAVE ( $v$. To leave), and this than SUFFER, from the Latin suffero, to bear with, signifying not to put a stop to. I let a person pass in the road by getting out of his way: I leave a person to decide on a matter according to his own discretion, by decliuing to interfere; I suffer a person to go his ows way, over whom I am expected to exercise a control. It is in general most prudent to let things take their own course: in the education of youth, the greatest art lies in leaving them to follow the natural bent of their minda and turn of the disposition, and at the same time not suffering them to do anything preja-
dicial to their eharacter or future interests.

Then to invoke
The goddess, and let in the fatal horse, We all conseot.

Denfam.
This crime 1 could not leave unpunished.
Denham,
If Pope had suffered his heart to be alienated from her, he could have found nothing that might flll her place.

Johnaon.

## LETTER, EPISTLE.

According to the origin of these words, LETTER, ia Latio literce, signifies any document composed of written letters; and EPISTLE, in Greek $\varepsilon \pi \iota \sigma \tau 0 \lambda \eta$, from $\varepsilon \pi เ \sigma \tau \varepsilon \lambda \lambda \omega$, to sead, signifies a letter seat or addressed to any one; consequeatly the former is the generic, the latter the specific term. Letter is a term altogether familiar; it may be used for whatever is written by oae friend to another in domestic life, or for the public documents of this description, which have emanated from the pen of writers, as the letters of Madame de Sévigné, the letters of Pope or of Swift; and eveu those which were writtea by the ancieats, as the letters of Cicero, Pliny, and Seneca; but in strict propriety those are eatitled epistles, as a term most adapted to whatever has reccived the sanction of ages, and by the same rule, likewise, whatever is peculiarly solemn in its contents has acquired the same epithet, as the epistles of St. Paul, St. Peter, St. John, St. Jude; and by an analogous rule, whatever poetry is written ia the epistolary form is denominated an epistle rather than a letter, whether of ancieat or modern date, as the epistles of Horace, or the epistles of Boileau; and, fiaally, whatever is addressed by way of dedication is denominated a dedicatory epistle. Ease aad a frieadly familiarity should characterize the letter: ventiment and iastruction are always coaveyed by an epistle.

Epistles or (according to the word in use) familiar letters may be called the larum-bells of love; 1 hope this will prove so to you, and have the power to awaken you out of that silence wherein you have slept so long.

Howell.

## LETTERS, LITERATURE, LEARNING.

LETTERS and LITERATURE sigaify knowledge, derived through the medium of written letter or books, that is, infor-
mation: LEARNING (v. Knowledge) is confined to that which is communicated, that is, scholastic knowledge. The term mea of letters, or the republic of letters, compreheads all who devote themselves to the cultivation of their minds: litera$r y$ societies have for their object the diffusion of general information: learned societies propose to themselves the high. er object of extendiag the bounds of science, and increasing the sum of human knowledge. Men of letters have a passport for admittance iato the bighest circles; literary men can always fiad resources for themselves in their own society: learned men, or men of learning, are more the objects of respect and admiration than of imitation.

To the greater part of mankind the duties of life are inconsistent with much study; and the hours which they wonld spend upon lettars must be stolen from their occupations and families.

Johnson.
He that recalls the attention of mankind to any part of learning which time has left behind it. may be truly aaid to advance the litsrature of his own age.

Jobnson.

## TO LIE, LAY.

By a vulgar error these verbs have been so confounded as to deserve some notice. To LIE is neuter, and designates a state: to LAY is active, and denotes an action on an object; it is properly to cause to lie: a thing lies on the table; some one lays it on the table; he lies with his fathers; they laid him. with his fathers. In the same manner, when used idiomatically, we say, a thing lies by us uatil we briug it into use; we lay it by for some future purpose: we lie dowa in order to repose ourselves; we lay money down by way of deposit: the disorder lies ia the constitutioa; we lay a burden upon our friends.

Anta bite off all the buds before they lay it up, and therefore the corn that has lain in their nests will produce nothing.

Aduison.
The Church admits none to holy orders without laying upon them the highest obligations imaginable. Beyeridoe.

## IIFELESS, DEAD, INANIMATE.

LIFELESS and DEAD suppose the absence of life where it has once been; IN. ANIMATE supposes its absence where it has never been; a person is said to be lifeless or dead from whom life has de-
parted; the material world consists of objects which are by nature inanimate. Lifeless is negative: it signifies aimply without life, or the vital spark : dead is positive; it denotes an actual and perfect change in the object. We may speak of a lifeless corpse, when speaking of a body which sinks from a state of animation into that of inanimation; we speak of dead bodies to designate such as have andergone an entire change. A person, therefore, in whom animation is suapended, is, for the time being, lifeless, in appearance at least, although we should not aay dead.

Nor can hls lifeleas nostril please With the once ravishing smell.

Cowley.
How dead the vegetahle kingdom lies!
Thomson.
We may in some sort be said to have a society even with the inanimate world. Boake.

In the moral acceptation, lifeless and inanimate denote the want of that life or animation which is requisite or proper; dead implies the total want of moral feeling which ought to exist.

He was a lifeless preacher. Burnet.
And are you sure that old age wili come with ail those circomstances inviting repentance. it may be, and is very likely to be, to life, what winter is to the year, a time of chillness and numbness, and of deadness of the faculties for repentance.

Beveridge.

## to lift, heave, hoist.

LIFT, in German lüften, Swedish, etc., lyften, to raise in the air, from luft, in Scotch lift, air. HEAVE, in Saxon hea vian, German heben, etc., comes from the absolute particle $h a$, signifying high, because to heave is to set up on high. HOIST, in French hausser, low German hissen, is a variation from the same source as heave.

The idea of making high is common to all these words, but they differ in the objects and the circumstances of the action; we lift with or without an effort: we heave and hoist always with an effort; we lift a child up to let him aee anything more distinctly; workmen heave the stones or beams which are used in a building; sailors hoist the long-boat into the water. To lift and hoist are transitive verbs; they require an agent and an abject; heave is intransitive, it may have
an inanimate object for an agent: a per son lifts his hand to his head; when whales are killed, they are hoisted into vessels: the bosom heaves when it is oppreased with sorrow, the waves of the sea heave when they are agitated by the wind.
What god so daring in your aid to move, Or lift his hand against the force of Jove? Pops.
Mnrm'ring they move, as when Old Ocean roars, And heaves hage surges to the trembling shores.

Pore
The reef eawrapt, th' inserted knitties tied,
To hoiat the shorten'd sail again they tried.
Falconer.
to Lift, raise, erect, mlevate, EXALT.
The idea of making a thing higher than it was before is common to these verbs. To LIFT (v. Io lift) is to take up from a given spot by a direct application of force. To RAISE, that is to cause to rise; to ERECT, from the Latin erectum, supine of erigo, and the Greek oof $\gamma \omega$, to extend; to ELEVATE, from elevatus, participle of elevo, or $e$, above, and levo, to lift or raise, signify to make bigher by a variety of meana, but not necessarily by moving the object from the spot where it rests. We lift a atool with our hands, we raise a stool by giving it longer legs; we ereet a monument by hcaping one atone upon another; a mountain is elevated so many feet above the surface of the sea. Whatever is to be carried is lifted; whatever is to be situated higher is to be raised; whatever is to be constructed above other objects is to be erected; and when the perpendicular height is to be described, it ia said to be elevated. A ladder is lifted upon the aboulders: a standard ladder is raised against a wall; a scaffolding is erected; a pillar is elevated above the bouses.
Now rosy morn ascends the court of Jove,
Lifts ap her light, and opens day above. Popz
The great crater of Ftna itself is ruised to an enormons height above the lower regions of the mountain.

Brydone.
From their assistance, happier wails expect,
Which, wand'ring long, at last thon shalt erect.
Driden.
We took notice of several of those meteors, called falling stars, which still appeared to be as much elevaterl above $\mu \mathrm{s}$ as when we see from the plaip.


Lift and raise may sometimes be applied to the same objects: a stone may either be lifted or raised, but lift is the more ordinary term; so when raise and erect are applied to the same objects, raise is the more familiar expression. Elevate is most usual in scientific langusge. All these terms, except erect, have likewise a moral application; EXALT, from altus, high, has no other. In this case lift is seldom used in a good sense; to raise is used in a good or an indifferent sense; to elevate is mostly, and exalt always,' used in the hest sense. A person is seldom lifted up for any good purpose, or from any merit in himself; it is commonly to suit the ends of party that people are lifted into notice, or lifted into office; a person may be raised for his merits, or raise himself by his industry, in both which cases he is entitled to esteem; so likewise one may be lifted up hy pride, or raised in one's mind or estimation; one is elevated by circumstances, but still more so by one's character and moral qualities; one is rarely exalted but by means of superior endowments.

Our buccesses have been great, and our hearts have been much lifted up by them, so that we have reason to bamble ourselvea. Attenaury.
Rais'd in his mind-the Trolan hero stood, And long'd to break from out his ambient elond. Daynen.
Prudence operates on life in the aame manner us rules on composition; it produces vigilance rather than elevation. Jornson.
A creature of a more exatled kind
Was wanting yet, and then was man design'd.
Drioen.

## LIGHTNESS, LEVITY, FLIGHTINESS, VOLATILITY, GIDDINESS.

LIGBTNESS, from light, signifies the shstract quality. LEVITY, in Latin levic tas, from levis, light, signifies the same. VOLATILITY, in Latio volatilitas, from volo, to fly, signifies flitting, or ready to fly swiftly on. FLIGHTINESS, from flighty and $f y$, signifies a readiness to fly. GIDDINESS is from giddy, in Saxon gidig.

Lightness and giddiness are taken either in the natural or metaphorical seose; the rest only in the moral sense; lightmess is said of the outward carriage, or the inward temper; levity is said only of the outward carriage: a light-minded man treats everything lightly, be it ever so se-
rious; the lightness of his mind is evident by the lightness of his motions. Lightness is common to both sexes; levity is peculiarly striking in females; and in respect to them, they are both exceptionable qualities in the highest degree: when a woman has lightness' of mind, she verges very near toward direct vice; when there is levity in her conduct, she exposes herself to the imputation of criminality. Volatil ity, flightiness, and giddiness are degrees of lightness which rise in signification on one another ; volatility being more than lightness, and the others more than volatility: lightness and volatility are defects as they relate to age; those only who ought to be serious or grave are ssid to be light or volatile. When we treat that as light which is weighty, when we suffer nothing to sink into the mind, or make any impression, this is a defective lightness of character; when the spirits are of a buoyant nature, and the thoughts. fly from one object to snother, without resting on any for a moment, this lightress becomes volatility: a light-minded person sets care at a distance; a volatile person catches pleasure from every passitng object. Flightiness and giddiness are the defects of youth; they bespeak that entire want of command over the feelings and snimal spirits which is inseparable from a state of cbildhood; a flighty child, bowever, only fails from a want of attention; but a giddy child, like one whose head is in the natural sense 'giddy, is unable to collect itself so as to have any consciousness of what passes; a flighty person makes mistakes; a giddy person commits extravagances.
Innocence gives a lightness to the spirits, ill imitated and ill supplied by that forced levity of the vicious.

Blate.
If we see people dancing, even in wooden shoes, and a fiddle always at their heels, we are soon convinced of the volatile spirita of those merry slaves.

Somerville.
Remembering many fightineases in her writing, I know not how to behave myself to her. Richardgon.
The giddy volgar, as their fancies guide,
With noise, say nothing, and in parts divide.
Dayden.
LIKENESS, RESFMBLANCE, SIMHARITY, OR SIMILITUDE.
LIKENESS denotes the quality of being alike (v. Equal). RESEMBLANOE,
from resemble, compounded of re and sem$b l e$, in French sembler, Latin simulo, signifies putting on the form of another thing. SIMILARITY, in Latin similaritas, from similis, in Greck o $\mu a \lambda$ os, like, from the Hebrew semel, an image, denotes the abstract property of likeness.

Likeness is the most general, and at the same time the most familiar; term of the three; It respects either external or internal properties: resemblance respects only the external properties: similarity respects the circumstances or properties: we speak of a likeness between two persons; of a resemblance in the cast of the eye, a resemblance in the form or figure; of a similarity in age and disposition. Likeness is said only of that which is actual; resemblance may be said of that which is apparent: a likeness consists of something'specific; a resemblance may be only partial and contingent. A thing is said to be, but not to appear, like another ; it may, however, have the shadow of a resemblance: whatever things are alike are alike in their esseutial properties; but they may resemble each other in a partial degree, or in certain particulars, but are otherwise esscntially different. We are most like the Divine Being in the act of doing good; there is nothing existing in nature whioh bas not'certain points of resemblance with something else.
With friendly hand I hold the glass, To all promisc'ous as they pass: Should folly there her likeness view, Ifret not that the mirror's true.

Moore.
So, faint resemblanoo! on the marble tomb The well-dissemblod lover stooping stands,
Forever silent, and fomever sad.
Thomson.
Similarity, or SIMILITUDE, which is a higher term, is in the moral application, in regard to likeness, what resemblance is in the physical sense: what is alike has the same nature ; what is similar has certain features of similarity: in this sense feelings are alike, sentiments are alike, persons are alike; but cases are similar, circumstances are similar, conditions are similar. Likeness excludes the idea of difference; similarity includes only the idea of casual likeness.

Rochefoucault frequently makes use of the an-tithesis-a mode of speaking the most tiresome of any, by the similarity of the periods.

Warton.

As it addeth deformity to an ape to be so like a man, so the similitude of superstition to religlon makes it the more deformed. bacon.

## LIKENESS, PICTURD, IMAGE, EFFIGY.

In the former article LIKENESS is considered as an abstract term, but in connection with the words picture and image it signifies the representation of likeness.'. PICTURE, in Latin pichura, from pingo, to paint, signifies the thing painted. IMAGE, in Latin imago, contracted from imatago, comes from imitor, to imitate, signifying an imitation. EF. FIGY, in Latin effigies, from effingo, signifies that which is formed after another thing.

Likeness and picture, as terms of art, are both applied to painting; but the term likeness refers us to the object of the art, namely, to get the likeness; and the picture to the mode of the art, namely, by painting; whence in familiar language an artist is said to take likenesses, who takes or paints the portraits of persons; or in general terms an artist may be said to be happy in taking a likeness, who can represent on paper the likeness of any object, but particularly that of persons. In other connections the word picture is most usually employed in regard to works of art, as to sketch a picture, to finish a picture, and the like.


#### Abstract

Hayley, whose love for me seems to be truly that of a brother, has given me his picture drawn by Romney about fifteen years ago-an admirable liksiness.

\section*{Cowpea.}


As a likeness may be given by other means besides that of painting, it may be taken for any likeness conveyed; as parents may be said to stamp or impress a likeness on their children. Picture may be figuratively taken for whatever serves as a picture, as a picture of happiness. Image, as appears from its derivation, signifies nothing more than likeness, but has been usually applied to such likenesses as are taken, or intended to represent spiritual objects, whether on paper or in wood or stone, such as the graven images which were the objects of idolatrous worship: it has, bowever, been extended in its application to any likeness of one object represented by another; as children are sometimes the image of their par ents.

## LIQUID

God, Moses first, then Davld, did inspire To compose antheins for his heavenly quire ; To th' one the style of friend he did impart, On th' other stamp'd the likensss of his heart.

Denham.
Or else the comie muse
Holds to the world a picture of itself.
Thomson.
The mind of man is an image, not only of God's spirituality, but of his inflnity. South.

A likeness and a picture contain actual likenesses of the things which they are intended to represent; but an effigy may be only an arbitrary likeness, as where a human figure is made to stand for the figure of any particular man without any likcness of the iodividual. This term is applied to the rude or fictitious pictures of persons in books, and also to the figures of persons on tombstones or on coins, which contain but few traces of likeness.

I have read somewhere that one of the popes refused to accept an edition of a saint's works, which were presented to him, becanse the saint, in his efflgies before the book, was drawn without a beard.

Addibon.
Or to the still ruder representations of individuals who are held up to public odium by the populace.
Tile people of Turvey have burned him in effgy.
Cowpea.

## LIMIT, FXTENT.

LIMIT is a more specific and definite term than EXTENT: by the former we are directed to the point where anything ends; by the latter we are led to no particular point, but to the whole space included: limits are in their nature something finite; extent is either finite or infinite: we therefore speak of that which exceeds the limits, or comes within the limits; and of that which comprehends the extent, or is according to the extent: a plenipotentiary or minister must not exceed the limits of his instruction ; when we think of the immense extent of this globe, and that it is among the smallest of an infinite number of worlds, the miod is lost in admiratiou and amazement: it does not fall within the limits of a periodical work to enter into historical details; a complete bistory of any country is a work of great extent.

[^84]It is observable that, either hy nature or habit,
our faculties are fitted to images of a certain on tent. JOHNSOX

## TO LINGER, TARRY, LOITER, LAG, SAUNTER.

LINGER, from longer, signifies to make the time long in doing a thing. TARRY, from tardus, slow, is to be slow. LOITER may probably come from lentus, slow. LAG, from lie, signifies to lie back. SAUNTER, from sancta terra, the Holy Land; because, in the time of the Crusades, many idle persons were going back ward and forward: hence idle, planless going comes to be so denominated.

Suspension of action or slow movement enters into the meaning of all these terms: to linger is to stop altogether, or to move but slowly forward; to tarry is properly to suspend one's movement: the former proceeds from reluctance to leave the spot on which we stand; the latter from motives of discretion : he will naturally linger who is going to leave the place of his nativity for an indefinite period; those who have much business to transact will be led to tarry long in a place: to loiter is to move slowly and reluctantly; but, from a bad cause, a child loiters who is unwilling to go to school: to lag is to move slower than others, to stop while they are going on; this is seldom done for a good purpose; those who lag have generally some sinister and private end to answer: to saunter is altogether the act of an idler; those who have no object in moving either backward or forward will saunter if they move at all.
'Tis long since I, for my celestial wife, Loath'd by the gods, have dragg'd a ling'ring life.

Driden.
Rapid wits loiter, or faint, and saffer themselves to be surpass'd by the even and regular perseverance of slower understandings.

Johnson.

> I shall not lag behind, nor err

The way, thon leading.
Milion.
Herod having tarried only seven days at Roma for the despatch of his business, returned to his ships at Brundusinm.

Paideaux.
She walks all the morning sauntering about the shop, with her arms through her pocketholes.

JOBNBON.

## LIQUID, LIQUOR, JUICE, HUMOR.

LIQUID (v. Fluid) is the generic term : LIQUOR, which is but a variation from
the same Latin verb, liquesco, whence liq. uid is derived, is a liquid which is made to be drunk: JUICE, in French $j u s$, is a liquid that issues from hodies: and HUMOR, in Latin humor, prohably from the Greek $\rho \in v \mu \alpha$ and $\rho \varepsilon \omega$, to flow or pour out, is a species of liquid which flows in bodies, and forms a constituent part of them. All natural bodies consist of liquids or solids, or a combination of hoth: liquor serves to quench the thirst as food satisfics the hunger; the juices of bodies are frequently their richest parts; and the humors are commonly the most important parts; the former of these two belong peculiarly to vegetable, and the latter to animal bodies: water is the simplest of all liquids; wine is the most inviting of all liquors; the orange produces the most agreesble juice; the humors of hoth men and brutes are most liable to corruption.

## How the bee Sits oa the bloom, extracting liquid sweets :

 BILTON.They who Minerva from Jove's head derive, Might make old Homer's skull the muse's hive, And from his brain that Helicon distil, Whose racy liquor did his offspring fill.

Denham.
Give me to drain the cocoa's milky bowl, Aad from the palm to draw its freshening wine, Mare bonateons far than all the frantic juics Which Bacchns pours.

Thomson.
Is Brutus sick, and is it physical To walk unbraced, and suck np the humors Of the dank morning ?

Shanspeare.

## list, roll, Catalogue, register.

LIST, in French liste, and German liste, comes from the German leiste, a last, signifying in general any long and narrow body. ROLL signifies in general anything rolled up, particularly paper with its written contents. CATALOGUE, in Latin cataloges, Greek karadoyos, from ката入єyш, to write down, signifies a written enumeration. REGISTER, from the verh rego, to govern, signifies what is done or inserted by order of government, or for the purposes of order.

A collection of objects brought into some kind of order is the common idea included in the signification of these terms. The contents and disposition of a list is the most simple; it consists of little more than names arranged under one another in a long narrow line, as a
list of words, a list of plants and flowers, a list of voters, a list of visits, a list of desths, of births, of marriages : roll, which is figuratively put for the contents of a roll, is a list rolled up for convenience, as a long roll of saints : catalogue involves more details than a simple list; it specifies not only names, but dates, qualities, and circumstances. A list of books contains their titles; a catalogue of books contains an enumeration of their size, price, number of volumes, edition, etc.: a roll of saints simply specifies their names; a catalogue of saints enters into particulars of their ages, deaths, etc.: a register contains more than eitber; for it contains events, with dates, actors, etc., in all matters of public interest.

After I had read over the list of the persons elected into the Jiers Etat, oothing which they afterward did could appear astonishing. Buaez.
lt appears from the ancient rolls of Parliament, and from the manner of choosing the lords of articles, that the proceedings of that high coart must have been ia a great measare under their direction.

RoEERTSON.
Ay! in the catalogue ye go for men,
As hoands, and greyhounds, moagrels, spaniels, curs,
All by the name of dogs.
SbaEspeare.
I am credibly informed hy an antiquary, who has searched the registers, that the maids of honor in Queen Elizabeth's time were allowed three rumps of beef for their hreakfast.

Addieon.

## LITTLE, SMALL, DIMINUTIVE.

LITTLE, in Dutch lettel, connected with light, etc., is a general term both in its sense and application. SMALL, in German smahl, narrow, and DIMINU. TIVE, from minus, less, signifying made less, are particular terms conveying some collateral idea. What is little is so in the ordinary sense in respect to size; it is properly opposed to great: the small is that which is less than others in point of bulk; it is opposed to the large: the diminutive is that which is less than it ought to be; as a person is said to be diminutive in stature who is below the or. dinary stature.

While the promis'd fruit
Lies yet a little embryo, unperceived,
Within its crimson folds.
Thomsor.
The smallest humming-hird is about the sire of a $h_{43}$. l-nint.

Goldsmiti


#### Abstract

That the stars appear like so many diminufivs and scarcely distinguisbable points, is owing to their immense and incooceivable distance.


Adoison.
In the moral application, little is frequently used in a bad sense, small and diminutive may be extended to other than physical objects without any change in their signification.

The talent of turntng men lato rldicale, and exposing to laughter those one converses with, is the qualification of little, ingenerous tempers. Admison.
To him no high, no low, no great, no small;
He filts, He buunds, connects, and equals all.
Pope.
He whose knowledge is at best but limited, and whose intellect proceeds by a amall, diminutive light, cannot but receive an additional light by the conceptions of another man.

SOUTH.
LIVELIHOOD, LIVING, SUBSISTENCE, maintenance, support, sustenance.
The means of living or supporting life is the idea common to all these terms, which vary according to the circum. stances of the individual and the nature of the object which constitutes the means: a LIVELIHOOD is that which is sought after by the day; a laborer earns a livelihood by the sweat of his brow: a SUBSISTENCE is obtained by irregular efforts of various deseriptions; beggars meet with so much that they obtain something better than a precarious and scanty subsistence: LIVING is obtained by more respectable and less severe efforts than the former two; tradesmen obtain a good living by keeping shops ; artists procure a living by the exercise of their talents: MAINTENANCE, SUPPORT, and SUSTENANCE differ from the other three, inasmuch as they do not comprehend what one gains by one's own efforts, but by the efforts of others: maintenanec is that which is permanent: it supplies the place of living: support may be casual, and vary in degree : the object of most public charities is to afford a maintenance to such as cannot obtain a livelihood or living for themselves; it is the business of the parish to give support, in time of sickness and distress, to all who are legal parishioners. Maintenance and support are always granted; but sustenance is that which is
taken or received: the former compre hends the means of obtaining food; sus. tenance comprebends that which sustains the body and supplies the place of food.

A man may as easily know where to fiod one to teach to debauch, whore, game, and blaspheme, as to teach him to write or cast accoonts ; 'tis the very profession and livelihood of such people, getting their living by ebose practices for which they deserve to forfeit their lives.

Sowth.
Just the necessities of a bare subsistence are not to be the only measure of a parent's care for his children.

South.
The Jews in Babylonia honored Hyrcanus their king, and supplied him with a maintenancs suitable thereto.

Prideadx.
If it be a curse to be forced to toil for the necessary support of life, how does he heighten tbe curse who tolls for superfluities
War and the chase engross the savage whole, War followed for revenge, or to supplant The envied tenants of some happier spot, The chase for sustenance.

Cowpers.

## LIVELY, SPRIGHTLY, VIVACIOU'S, SPORTIVE, MERRY, JOCUND.

The activity of the heart wheu it beats high with a sentiment of gayety is strong. ly depicted by all these terms: the LIVELY is the most general and literal in its signification; life, as a moving or active principle, is supposed to be inherent in spiritual as well as material bodies; the feeling, as well as the body which has within a power of moving arbitrarily of itself, is said to bave life; and in whatever object this is wanting, this object is said to be dead: in like manner, accord ing to the degree or circumastances un. der which this moving principle displays itself, the object is denominated lively, that is, having life. SPRIGHTLY, that is, sprightful or spiritful, full of spirits, and VIVACIOUS, in Latin vivax, from vivo, to live, that is, the same as lively. Liveliness is the property of childhood, youth, or even maturer age ; sprightliness is the peculiar property of youth; vivacity is a quality compatible with the sobriety of years: an infant shows itself to be lively or otherwise in a few months after its birth; a female, particnlarly in her early years, affords often a pleasing picture of sprightliness; a vivacions companion recommends himself wherever he goes. SPORTIVENESS, that is, fondness of or readiness for sport, is an accompaniment of liveliness or sprightliness:
a sprightly child will show its sprightiinoss by its sportive humor: MIRTH, i.e., merriness (v.Cheerful), and JOCUNDITY, from jocundus or jucundus, and juvo, to delight or please, signifying the state of being delighted, are the forms of liveliness which display themselves in social life; the former is a familiar quality, more frequently to be discovered in vulgar than in polished society: jocundity is a form of liveiiness which poets have ascribed to nymphs snd goddesses, and other aërial creatures of the imagination.

The terms preserve the same sense when spplied to the charscteristics or actions of persons as when spplied to the persons themselves: imagination, wit, conception, representation, snd the like, are lively; a person's air, manner, look, tune, dance, are sprightly; a cenversstion, a turn of mind, a society, is vivacions; the muse, the pen, the imagination, is sportivé: the meeting, the laugh, the song, the conceit, is merry: the train, the dance is jocund.
Ons study is inconsistent with a livoly imagination, another with a solid judgment. Jonsson. His sportiva lambe, This way and that convolv'd, in friskful glee Thair frolice play. And now the sprightly race Invites them forth.
By every victory over appetita or passion, the mind galne new etrangth to refuse these selicitations by which the young and vivacious are hourly assaulted.

Johnson.
Thus jocund fleets with them the winter night. Thomson.
Warn'd by the streaming light and merry lark, Forth rush the Jolly clans.

SоменviLLe.

## LIVING, BENEFICE.

LIVING signifies literally the pecuniary resource by which one lives. BENEFICE, from benefacio, signifies whatever one obtains as a benefit: the former is applicable to sny situation of life, but particularly to that resource which a parish affords to the clergyman; the latter is applicable to no other object: we speak of a living as a resource immediately derived from the parish, in distinction from a curacy, which is derived from sn individus); we speak of a benefice in respect to the terms by which it is held, according to the ecclesiastical law: there are many livings which are not benefices, although not vice versa.

In consequence of the Pepe's interference, the best livings were fllled by Italian, and other foreign, clergy.

Blacestone.
Estates held by feudal tenure, being originally gratulteus donations, were at that time deneminated beneficia; their very name, as well as constitution, was borrowed, and the care of tha souls of a parish thence came to be denominated a benefice.

Blackstone.

## LODGINGS, APARTMENTS.

A LODGING, or a place to lodge or dwell in, comprebends siogle rooms, or many rooms, or in fact any place which can be made to serve the purpose; APARTMENTS respect only suits of rooms: apartments, therefore, sre, in the strict sense, lodgings; but all lodgings sre not apartments: on the other hand, the word lodgings is mestly used for rooms that are let out to hire, or that serve a temporary purpose; but the word apartments may be applied to the suits of rooms in any large bouse: hence the word lodying becomes on one ground restricted in its use, and apartments on the other: all apartments to let out for hire are lodgings: but apartments not to let out for hire are not lodgings.

## LOOK, GLANCE.

LOOK ( $v$. Air) is the generic, and GLANCE (v. To glance at) the specifio term; that is to say, a casual or momentary look: a look may be character. ized as severe or mild, fierce or gentle, angry or kind; a glance as hasty or sudden, imperfect or slight: so likewise we speak of taking a look, or catching a glance.
Here the soft flocks, with the same harmiess loow They wore alive.

тномяел.
The tiger, darting fierce
Impetuens on his prey, the glancs has doom'd.
Тномяеп
TO LOOK, SEE, BEHOLD, VIEW, EYE.
LOOK, in Saxon locan, upper German lugen, comes from the same source as lux, light, and the Greek $\lambda a \omega$, to see. SEE is in Saxon seon, Swedish 8e, Aolic Greek ocacı , Hebrew sheeah, to see. BEHOLD, compounded of the intensive be and hold, signifies to hold or fix the eye on an object. VIEW, from the French voir, and the Latin video, signifies aimply to see. To EYE, from the noun eye, nat urally signifies to fathom with the eye.

## LOOK

We look voluntarily; we see involuntarily: the eye sees; the person looks: absent people often see things before they are fully conscious that they are at hand: we may look without secing, and we may see without looking: near-sighted people often look at that which is too distant to strike the visual organ. To behold is to look at for a continuance; to view is to look at in all directions; to eye is to look at earnestly, and by side glances; that which is seen may disappear in an instant; it may strike the eye and be gone; but what is looked at must make some stay; consequently lightning, and things equally fugitive and rapid in their flight, may be seen, but cannot be looked at. To look at is the familiar as well as the general term, in regard to the others; we look at things in general, which we wish to see, that is, to see clearly, fully, and in all their parts; but we behold that which excites a moral or intellectual interest; we view that which demands intellectual attention; we eye that which gratifies any particular passion: an inquisitive child looks at things which are new to it, but does not behold them; we look at plants, or finery, or whatever gratifies the senses, but we do not behold them: on the other hand, we behold any spectacle which excites our admiration, our astonishment, our pity, or our love: we look at objects in order to observe their external properties; but we view them in order to find out their component parts, their internal properties, their powers of motion and action, etc.: we look at things to gratify the curiosity of the moment, or for mere amusement; but the jealous man eyes his rival, in order to mark his movements, his designs, and his successes; the envious man eyes him who is in prosperity, with a malignant desire to see him bumbled.

[^85]The most unpardonable malefactor in the world going to his death, and bearing it with composnre, wonld win the pity of those who should behold him.

Steele.
Half afraid, he first
Against the window beats, then brisk alights
On the warm hearth; then, hopping o'er the floor,
Eyes all the smiling family askance. TaOMson.

## TO LOOK, APPEAR.

LOOK is here taken in the neuter and improper sense: in the preceding article (v. To look) it denotes the action of persons striving to see; in the present case it denotes the action of things figuratively striving to be seen. APPEAR, from the Latin appareo or pareo, Greek $\pi a$ $\rho \varepsilon \iota \mu$, signifies to be present or at band, within sight.

The look of a thing respects the impressions which it makes on the senses, that is, the manner in which it looks; its appearance implies the simple act of its coming into sight: the look of anything is therefore characterized as good or had, mean or handsome, ugly or beautiful; the appearance is characterized as early or late, sudden or unexpected : there is something very unseemly in the look of a clergyman affecting the airs of a fine gentleman; the appearance of the stars in an evening presents an interesting view even to the ordinary beholder. As what appears must appear in some form, the signification of the term has been extended to the manner of the appearance, and brought still nearer to look in its application; in this case the term look is rather more familiar than that of appearance: we may speak either of regarding the look or the appearance of a thing, as far as it may impress others; but the latter is less colloquial than the former: a man's conduct is said to look rather than to appear ill; but on the other band, we say a thing assumes an appearance, or has a certain appearance.

## Distressful nature pants ;

The very streams look languid from afar.
THomson.
Never does liherty appear more amiable than under the government of a pious and good prince. Addison.

Look is always employed for what is real; what a thing looks is that which it really is: appear, however, sometimes refers not only to what is external, but to what is superficial. If we say a person looks ill, it supposes some positive and unequivocal evidence of illness: if we say he appears to be ill, it is a less positive assertion than the former; it leaves l'oom for douht, and allows the possibility of a mistake. We are at liberty to
judge of things hy their looks, without being chargeable with want of judgment; but as appearances are said to be deceitful, it becomes necessary to admit them with caution as the rule of our judgment. Look is employed mostly in regard to objects of sense; appearance respects natural and moral objects indifferently: the sky looks lowering; an object appears through a microscope greater than it really is; a person's conduct appears in a more culpable light when seen through the representation of an enemy.

Then Nature all
Wears to the lover's eye a look of love.
Thomson.
It has always been my endeavor to distinguish between realities and appearances. Tatlea.

## LOOKER-ON, SPECTATOR, BEHOLDER, OBSERVER.

The LOOKER-ON and the SPECTA. TOR are both opposed to the agents or actors in any scene; but the former is still more abstracted from the objects he sees than the latter.

A looker-on ( $v$. To look at) is careless; he has no part, and takes no part, in what he sees; he looks on, because the thing is before him, and he has nothing else to do: a spectator may likewise be unconcerned, but in general he derives amusement, if nothing else, from what he sees. A clown may be a looker-on, who with open mouth gapes at all that is before him, without understanding any part of it; but be who looks on to draw a moral lesson from the whole is in the moral sense not an uninterested spectator. The BEHOLDER has a nearer interest than the spectator; and the OB. SERVER has an interest not less near than that of the beholder, but somewhat different: the beholder has his affections roused by what he sees; the observer has his understanding employed in that which passes before him: the beholder indulges himself in contemplation; the observer is busy in making it subservient to some proposed object: every beholder of our Saviour's sufferings and patience was struck with the conviction of his Divine character, not excepting even some of those who were his most prejudiced adversaries; every calm observer of our

Saviour's words and actions was convinced of his Divine mission.

Lookers-on many times see more than game. sters.

Bacon.
But high in heaven they sit, and gaze from far, The tame spectators of his deeds of war. Pope.

Objects imperfectly designed take forms from the hope or fear of the beholder. Jounson.

Swift was an exact observer of life. Johnson

## LOOSE, VAGUE, LAX, DISSOLUTE, LICENTIOUS.

LOOSE is in German los, etc., Latin laxus, Greek a $\lambda a \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \iota \nu$, and Hebrew chalatz, to make free. VAGUE, in Latin $v a$ gus, signifies wandering. LAX, in Latin laxus, has a similar origin with loose. DISSOLUTE, in Latin dissolutus, participle of dissolvo, signifies dissolved or set free. LICENTIOUS signifies having the licenss or power to do as one pleases ( $v$. Leave, liberty).

Loose is the generic, the rest are specific terms; they are all opposed to that which is bound or adheres closely: loose is employed either for physical, moral, or intellectual objects; vague only for intellectual objects: lax sometimes for what is intellectual, but oftener for the moral; dissolute and licentious only for moral matters: whatever wants a proper connection, or linking together of the parts, is loose; whatever is scattered and remotely separated is vague: a style is loose where the words and sentences are not made to coalesce, so as to form a regularly connected series; assertions are vague which have but a remote connection with the subject referred to: by the same rule, loose bints thrown out at random may give rise to speculation and conjecture, but cannot serve as the ground of any conclusion; ignorant people are apt to credit every vague rumor, and to communicate it as a certainty. Opinions are loose, either inasmuch as they want logical precision, or as they fail in moral strictness; suggestions and surmises are in their nature vague, as they spring from a very remote channel, or are produced by the wanderings of the imagination; opinions are lax, inasmuch as they have a tendency to lessen the moral obligation, or to loosen moral ties. A loose man injures himself, but a lax man injures society at large. Dissoluteness is the excess
of looseness; licentiousness is the consequence of laxity, or the freedom from external constraint. Looseness of character, if indulged, soon sinks into dissoluteness of morals; and laxity of discipline is quickly followed by licentiousness of manners.

> The most voluptuous and loose person breathing, were he but tied to follow his dice and his courtships every day, would find tt the greatest Sorment that could befall him. That action which is vaque and tndeterminate will at last settle into habit, and habitual peculiarities are quickly ridiculous. In this general depravity of manners and las. ity of principles, pure religion is nowhere more strongly inculcated (than in our universities).

Johnson.
As the life of Petronius Arbiter was altogether dissolute, the indifference which he showed at the close of it is to be looked upon as a piece of natural carelessoess rather than fortitude.

Addison.
Moral philosophy is very agreeable to the paradoxical and licentious spirit of the age.

Beatitie.
LORD'S-SUPPER, EUCHARIST, COMMUNION, SACRAMENT.
The LORD'S-SUPPER is a term of familiar and general use among Christians, as designating in literal terms the supper of our Lord; that is, either the last solemn supper which he took with his dis. ciples previous to bis crucifixion, or the commemoration of that event which conformably to his commands has been observed by the professors of Christianity. EUCHARIST is a term of peculiar use among the Roman Catholics, from the Greek $\varepsilon \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \rho \iota \zeta \omega$, to give thanks, because personal adoration, by way of returning thanks, constitutes in their estimation the chief part of the ceremony. As the social affections are kept alive mostly by the common participation of meals, so is brotherly love, the essence of Ohristian fellowship, cherished and warmed in the highest degree by the common participation in this holy festival: hence, by distinction, it has been denominated the COMMUNION. As the vows which are made at the altar of our Lord are the most solemo which a Christian can make, comprehending in them the entire devotion of himself to Christ, the general term SACRAMENT, signifying an oath, has been employed by way of distinction for this ordinance. The Roman Catholies
have employed the same term for sit other ordinances; but the Protestants, who attach a similar degree of sacred. ness to no other than baptism, annex thia appellation only to these two.
To the worthy participation of the Lordis-Supper, there is indispensably required a suitable preparation.

Sovit.
This ceremony of feasting belongs most properly both to marriage and to the sucharist, as both of them have the nature of a covenant. Sovth.

One woman he could not bring to the communion, and when he reproved or exhorted her, she only aoswered that she was no scholar.

Johnson.
I could not have the consent of the physician to go to church yesterday; I therefore received the holy sacrament at home.

Johnson.

## TO LOSE, MISS.

LOSE, in all probability, is but a varlation of loose, because what gets loose or away from a person is lost to him. To MISS, probably from the participle mis, wrong, signifies to put wrong.

What is lost is supposed to be entirely and irrecoverably gone; but what is missed may be only out of sight or not at hand at the time when it is wanted; health or property may be lost; one misses a coach, or one misses what has been mislaid. Thinge may be lost in a variety of ways independent of the person losing; but missing is mostly by the instrumentality of the person who misses. We lose an opportunity which it is not in our power to use; we miss an opportunity when we suffer it to pass without using.
Some ants are so unfortunate as to fall down with their load when they almost come home; when this happens, they seldom lose their corn, but carry it up again.

Addison.
By hope and faith secure of future bliss, Gladly the joys of present life we miss.' Lemis.

## LOSS, DAMAGE, DETRIMENT.

LOSS signifies the act of losing or the thing lost. DAMAGE, in French dommage, Latin damnum, from demo, to take away, signifies the thing taken away. DETRIMENT, v. Disadvantageous.

Loss is here the generic term; damage and detriment are species or modes of loss. The person sustains the loss, the thing suffers the damage or detriment. Whatever is gonc from us which we
wish to retain is a loss; hence we may sustain a loss in our property, in our reputation, in our iufluence, in our intellect, and every other object of possession : whatever renders an object less serviceatile or valuable, by any external violence, is a damage; as a vessel auffers a damage in a storm: whatever is calculated to cross a man's purpose is a detriment; the bare want of a good name may be a detriment to a young tradesman; the want of prudence is always a great detriment to the prosperity of a family.

What trader would purchase such alry satisfaction (as the charms of coaversation) by tho lose of solid gain.

JOHNson.
The ants were still troubled with the rain, and the next day they took a world of pains to repair the damage.

Addison.
The expenditure should be with the least possible detriment to the morals of those who expend.

Buake.

## LOUD, NOISY, HIGH-SOUNDING, CLAMOROUS.

LOUD, in German, etc., laut, is connectad with laut, a sound, lauschen, to listen, and the Greek $\kappa \lambda \nu \omega$, to hear, because sounds are the object of hearing. NOISY, having a noise, like noisome and noxious, comes from the Latin noceo, to hurt, signifying in general offeusive, and in this case offensive to the sense of hearing. HIGH-SOUNDING signifies the same as pitched upon an elevated key, so as to make a great noise, to be heard at a dlatance. OLAMOROUS, from the Latin olamo, to cry, signifies crying with a loud voice.

Loud is hers the genario term, since It slgnifies a great sound, which ls the Idea common to them all. As an epithet for persona, loud is mostly taken in an indifferent sense; all the others are taken for being loud beyond measura: notsy ia to be lawlessly and unseasonably loud; high-sounding is only to ba loud from the biguess of oue's words; clam. orous ls to be disagreeably and painfully loud. We must speak loudly to a deaf person in order to make ourselvas heard: childran will be noisy at all times if not kapt under control: flatterers are al. ways high-sounding in their eulogiuma of princes: children will be clamorous for What they want, if they expect to get it by dint of noise; they will be turbulent in
case of refusal, if not under proper dia cipline. In the improper application, loud is taken in as bad a sense as the rest; the loudest praises are the least to be regarded: the applause of a mob is always noisy; high-sounding titlea serve only to excite contempt where there is not some corresponding quality : it is the business of a party to be clamorous, as that serves the purpose of exciting the ignorant.
Whe clowns, a boist'rons, rude, angovern'd crew, With furious haste to the loud summons flew.

## Detien.

Oh leave the noisy town.
Dryden.
I am touched with sorrow at the conduct of some few men, who have lent the authority of their high-sounding names to the designs on men with whom they could not be acquainted.

BUREE.
Clam'rous around the royal hawk they fy.
Detiden.

## LOVE, FRIENDEHIP.

LOVE (v. Affection) is a term of very extenaive import; it may be either takon in the most general sense for avary atrong and passionate attachment, or only for such as subsist between the sexes; in either of which cases it has features by which it is easily diatinguishad from FRIENDSHIP.

Love subsists between members of the same family; lt springs out of their natural relationship, and is kept alive by their close intercourse and constant interchange of kindnesses: friendship ex. oludes the idea of any tender and natural relationship; nor is it, like love, to be found in children, but is confined to maturer years; it is formed by time, by circumstances, by congrulty of character, and aympathy of sentiment. Love always operates with ardor; friendship is remarkable for firmness and constancy. Love is peculiar to no station; it is to be found equally among the high and the low, the learned and the unlearned: friendship is of nobler growth; it finda admittance only into minds of a loftier make: it cannot be felt by men of an ordinary stamp. Both love and friendship are gratified by seeklng the good of the object; but love is more selfish in its nature than friendship; in indulging another it seeks its own gratification, and when this is not to be obtained, it will change into the contrary passion of
hatred; friendship, on the other hand, is altogether disinterested, it makes sacrifices of every description, and knows no limits to its sacrifice.

So every passion but fond love,
Unto its own redress does move.
Warlea.
For natural affection soon doth cease,
And quenched is with Cupid's greater flame,
But faithful friendship doth them both suppress,
And them with mastering discipline doth tame.
Spenser.

## LOVER, SUITOR, WOOER.

LOVER signifies literally one who loves, and is applicable to any object; there are lovers of money, and lovers of wine, lovers of things individually, and things collectively, that is, lovers of particular women in the good sense, or lovers of women in the bad sense. The SUITOR is one who sues and strives after a thing; it is equally undefined as to the object, but may be employed for such as sue for favors from their superiors, or sue for the affections and person of a female. The WOOER is only a species of lover, who woos or solicits the kind regards of a female. When applied to the same object, namely, the female sex, the tem lover is employed for persons of all ranks, who are equally alive to the tender passion of love: suitor is a title adapted to that class of life where all the genuine affections of human nature are adulterated by a false refinement, or entirely lost in other passions of à guilty nature. Wooer is a tender and passionate title, which is adapted to that class of beings efat live only in poetry and romance. There is most sincerity in the lover, he simply proffers his love; there is most ceremony in the suitor, he prefers his suit; there is most ardor in the wooer, he makes his vows.

It is very natural for a yonng friend and a yonng lover to think the persons they love have nothing to do but to please them.

Pope.
What pleasure can it be to be thronged with petitioners, and those perhaps suitors for the same tbing?

Soutr.
I am glsd this parcel of wooers are so reasonable, for there is not one of them but I dote on his very absence.

Shagbpeane.

## LOW, MEAN, ABJECT.

LOW, v. Humble. MEAN, in German gemein, etc., comes from the same source
as the Latin communis, common (v. Com mon). ABJECT', in French abject, Latin abjectus, participle of abjicio, to cast down, signifies literally cast down or brought very low.

Low is a much stronger term than mean; for what is low stands more directly opposed to what is bigh, but what is mean is intermediate: the low is applied only to a certain number or descrip. tion; but mean, like common, is applicable to the great bulk of raankind. A man of low extraction falls below the ordinary level; he is opposed to a noble man: a man of mean birth does not rise above the ordinary level; he is upon a level with the majority. Abject expresses more than either of the others, for it denotes the lowest depression in a person's outward condition or position, as abject poverty.

Had I been born a servant, my lono life Had steady stood from all these miseries.

Randolph.
For 'tis the mind that makes the body rich :
And as the snn breaks through the darkest clouds,
So honor 'peareth in the meanest liabit.
Shakspeare.
Or in this abject posture have ye sworn
$\mathrm{T}^{n}$ adore the conqueror?
Milton.
When employed to designate character, they preserve the same distinction; the low is that which is positively sunk in itself; but the mean is that which is comparatively low, in regard to the outward circumstances and relative condition of the individual. Swearing and drunkenness are low vices; boxing, cudgelling, and wrestling are low games; a misplaced economy in people of property is mean; a condescension to those who are beneath us for our own petty advantages is meanness. A man is commonly low by birth, education, or habits; but meanness is a defect of nature which sinks a person in spite of every external advantage. Ab. ject, as a characteristic, is applied partic alarly to the spirit. Slavery is most apt to produce an abject spirit by depriving a man of the use of those faculties which elevate him above the brutes; poverty, fear, or any base passion, may have the same effect.

Yet sometimes nations will decline so low From virtue

Milton

We fast not to plesse men, nor to premete any $m s a n$ werldly interest.

Smalididoe.
There needs no mere be ssid to extol the excellence and power ef his wit, than that it was of magnitude enough to cover a world of very great faults, that is, a narrowness in his nature to the lowest degree, an abjectness and want ef courage, an insinuating and servile flattering.

Clarendon.

## M.

MADNESS, PHRENSY, RAGE, FURY.
MADNESS, vide Derangement. PHRENSY, in Latin phrenesis, Greek $\phi \rho \in \nu / \tau \iota \varsigma$, from $\phi \rho \eta \nu$, the mind, signifies a disordered mind. RAGE is in French rage, Latin rabies, madness. FURY, in Latin furor, comes in all probability from feror, to be carried, because fury carries a person away.

Madness and phrensy are used in the physical and moral sense; rage and fury only in the moral sense : in the first case, madness is a confirmed derangement in the organ of thought; phrensy is only a temporary derangement from the violence of any disease or other cause : the former lies in the system, and is, in general, incurable; the latter is only occasional, and yields to the power of medicine. In the moral sense of these terms the cause is put for the effect, that is, madness and phrensy are put for that excessive violence of passion by which they are caused; and as rage and fury are species of this passion, namely, the angry passion, they are, therefore, to madness and phrensy sometimes as the cause is to the effect: the former, however, are so much more violent than the latter, as they altogether destroy the reasoning faculty, which is not expressly implied in the signification of the latter terms. Moral madness differs both in degree and duration from phrensy: if it spring from the extrava. gance of rage, it bursts out into every conceivable extravagance, but is only transitory; if it spring from disappointed love, or any other disappointed passion, it is as permanent as direct physical madness; phrensy is always temporary, but even more impetuous than madness; in the phrensy of despair men com-
mit acts of suicide ; in the phrensy of dis. tress and grief, people are hurried into many actions fatal to themselves or others.
'Twas ne false heraldry when madness drew Her pedigree from those who too much knew.

Dembasl
What phrensy, shepherd, has thy soul possess'd ? Dayden.
Rage refers more immediately to the agitation that exists within the mind; fury refers to that which shows itself outwardly: a person contains or stifles his rage; but his fury breaks out into some external mark of violence: rage will subside of itself ; fury spends itself; a person may be choked with rage; but his fury finds a vent: an enraged man may be pacified; a furious one is deaf to every remonstrance. Rage, when applied to persons, commonly signifies highly inflamed anger; but it may be employed for inflamed passion toward any object which is specified; as a rage for music, a rage for theatrical performances, a fashionable rage for any whim of the day. Fury, though commonly signifying rage bursting out, yet it may be any impetu. ous feeling displaying itself in extravagant action; as the divine fury supposed to be produced upon the priestess of A pollo by the inspiration of the god, and the Bacchanalian fury, which expression depicts the influence of wine upon the body and mind. In the improper application, to inanimate objects, the words rage and fury preserve a similar distinction: the rage of the heat denotes the excessive height to which it is risen ; the fury of the winds indicates their violent commotion and turbulence: so in like manner the raging of the tempest characterizes figuratively its burning anger; and the fury of the flames marks their impetuous movements, their wild and rapid spread.

First Secrates
Against the rage of tyrants single stoed, Invincible !

Thomson,
Confin'd their fury to those dark abodes.
Driden.

## MAGISTERIAL, MAJESTIC, STATELY, POMPOUS, AUGUST, DIGNIFIED.

MAGISTERIAL, from magister, a master, and MAJESTIC, from majestas, are

## MAGNIFICENCE

both derived from magis, more, or major, greater, that is, more or greater than others; but they differ in this respect, that the magisterial is something assumed, and is therefore often false; the majestic is natural, and consequently always real: an upstart, or an intruder into any bigh station or office, may put on a magisterial air, in order to impose on the multitude; but it will not be io his power to be majestic, which never shows itself in a borrowed shape; none but those who have a superiority of character, of birth, or outward station, can he majestic.

Government being the noblest and most mysterious of all arts, is very unfit for those to talk magisterially of who never bore any share in it.

South.
Then Aristides lifts his honest front, In pure majestic poverty rever'd.

Thomson.
STATELY and POMPOUS are most nearly allied to magisterial; AUGUST and DIGNIFIED to majestic: the former being merely extriasic and assumed, the latter intrinsic and inherent. Magisterial respects tne authority which is assumed; stately regards splendor and rank; pompous regards personal importance, with all the appendages of greatness and power: a person is magisterial io the exercise of his office, and the distribution of his commands; he is stately in his ordinary intercourse with his inferiors and equals; he is pompous on particular occasions of appearing in public: a person demands silence in a magisterial tone; he marches forward with a stately air; be comes forward in a pompous manner, so as to strike others with a sease of bis importance.
Sach seems thy gentle height, made only prond To he the basis of that pompous load.

Deniam.
There is for the most part as much real eujoyment under the meanest cottage, as within the walls of the stateliest palace.

Sovtr.
Majestic is an epithet that characterizes the exterior of an object; august is that which marks an essential characteristic in the object; dignified serves to characterize a person's action as tending to give dignity: the form of a female is termed majestic, when it has something imposing in it, suited to the condition of majesty, or the most elevated station in society; a monarch is entitled auguast in order to describe the extent of his empire; a public
assembly is denominated august to be speak its high character, and its weighty influence in the scale of society; a reply is termed dignified when it upholds the individual and personal character of a man as well as his relative character in the community to which he belongs: the former two of these terms are associated only with grandeur of outward circumstances: the last is applicable to men of all stations, who have each in his sphere a dignity to maintain which belongs to man as an independent moral ageat.
A royal robe he wore with graceful pride, Embroidered sandals glitter'd as he trod, And forth he mov'd majestic as a god., Pore. Nor can I think that God, creator wise, Thongh threat'ning, will in earnest so destroy Us, his prime creatures, dignified so high. Miluton.
How poor, how rich, how abject, how august, How complicate, how wonderful, is man.

## Young.

MAGNIFICENCE, SPLENDOR, POMP.
MAGNIFICENCE, from magnus and facio, signifies doing largely, or on a large scale. SPLENDOR, in Latio splendor, from splendeo, to shine, signifies brightness in the external. POMP, in Latin pompa, Greek $\pi$ о $\mu \pi \eta$, a procession, from $\pi \varepsilon \mu \pi \omega$, to sead, signifies in general formality and ceremony.

Magnificence lies not only in the number and extent of the objects presented, but in their degree of richness as to their coloring and quality; splendor is but a characteristic of magnificence, attached to such objects as dazzle the eye by the quautity of light, or the beanty and strength of coloring; the entertainments of the Eastern monarehs and princes are remarkable for their magnificence, from the immense number of their attendants, the crowd of equipages, the size of their palaces, the multitude of costly utensils, and the profusion of viands which constitute the arrangements for the banquet; the entertainments of Europeans present much splendor, from the richness, the varicty, and the brilliancy of dress, of furniture, and all the apparatus of a feast, which the refinements of art have brought to perfection. Magnificence is seldomer unaccompanied with splendor than splendor with magnificence; siace quantity, as' well as quality, is essential to the one; but
quallty more than quantity is an essential to the other: a large srmy drawn up in battle array is a magnificent spectacle, from the immensity of their numbers and the order of their disposition; it will in all probsbility be a splendid scenc if there be much richness in the dresses; the pomp will here consist in such large bodies of mon acting by one impulse, and directed by one will: hence military pomp; it is the appendage of power, when displayed to publio view : on particular occasions a monarch seated on his throne, surrounded by his courtiers snd sttended by his guards, is sald to uppear with pomp.

## Not Babylon, <br> For great Alcalro, such magniffoonoe

 Equall'd in all their glories.Milton.
Vain transitory splendors could not all
Heprieve the tottering mansion from its fall.
Goldsmith.
Was all that pomp of woe for this prepar'd; These fires, this fun'ral pile, these altars rear'd.

Dryden.

## to make, Form, produce, CREATE.

The ides of giving birth to a thing is common to all these terms, which vary in the circumstances of the action: to MAKE ( $v$. To act) is the most general and unquslified term; to FORM ( $v$. To form) signifies to give a form to s thing, that ls, to make it after a given form; to PRODUCE (v. To afford) is to bring forth into the light, to csll into existence; to CREATE (v. To cause) is to bring into existence by an absolute excrcise of power: to make is the simplest action of all, and comprebends a simple combinstion by the smsllest effocts; to form requires care and attention, and greater efforts; to produce requires time and also labor: whatever is put together, so as to become another thing, is made; a chair or a table is made: whatever is put into any distinct form is formed; the potter forms the clay into an earthen vessel: whatever emanates from a thing, so as to become a distinct object, is produced; fire is often produced by the violent friction of twa pieces of wood with esch other. The process of making is always performed by some conscious agent, who employs either mechanical means, or the simple exercise of power: a bird makes its nest; man makes various things, by the exercise of his underatanding and his
limbs; the Almighty Msker has made everytbing by his word. The process of forming does not slways require s conscious agent; things are formed of themselves; or they are formed by the active operations of other bodies; melted lead, when thrown into water, will form itself into varions little bodies; hard substances are formed in the bumen body, which give rise to the disease termed the gravel. What is produced is oftener produced by the process of nsture, than by any express design; the earth produces all kinds of vegetables from seed; animals, by a similar process, produce their young. Create, in this natural sense of the term, is employed as the sct of an intelligent being, and that of the Supreme Being only; it is the act of making by a simple effort of powar, withont the use of materials, snd without any process. Hence it has been extended in its application to the making of anything by an Immediate exercise of power. The creative power of the human mind is a faint image of that power which brought everything into ex. istence out of nothing.

> King Edward the Sixth's Common Prayer Book was made with the advice of the foreign and even the Presbyterian Protestants.

> Seceez.
> Dire Scylla here, a scene of horror forms, And here Charybdis fills the deep with storms.

## Pope.

It is strange, you will say, that nature sbould make use of the same agent to create as to destroy, and that what has been looked upon as the consnmer of countries is, in fact, the very power that produces them.

Beydone.
A wondrous hieroglyphte robe she wore,
In which all colors and all figures were,
That nature or that fancy can orsate. Cowley.
They are all employed in the moral sense, and with a similar distinction: make is indefinite; we may make a thing that is difficult or easy, simple or complex; we msy make a letter, or make a poem; we may make \& word, or make s sentence. To form is the work either of intelligence or of circumstances : educstion has much to do in forming the habits, but nature has more to do in form. ing the disposition and the mind altogether; sentiments are frequently form$e d$ by young people before they have suf. ficient maturity of thought and knowl. edge to justify them in coming to any decision. To produce is the effect of
great mental exertion; or it is the natural operation of things: no industry could ever produce a poem or a work of the imagination: but a history or a work of science may be produced by the force of mere labor. All things, both in the moral and intellectual world, are linked together upon the same principle of cause and effect, by which one thing is the producer, and the other the thing produced: quarrels produce hatred, and kindness produces love; as heat produces inflammation and fever, or disease produces death. What is created is not made by any natural process, but is called into existence by the creating power; small matters create jealousies in jealous minds.

> Though he could not agree to the making a king as things atood, yet, if he found one made, he would be more faithful to him than those that made him could be according to their own principlea. Bomnet. Homer's and Virgil's heroes do not form a resolation without tha conduct and direction of aome ADDISON.

A onpernatural effect is that which is above any natural power that we know of to produce.

Tillotson.
By this means alone their greatest obstacles will vanish, and what usually creates their dislike will become their satisfaction.

Pope.

## MALEDICTION, CURSE, IMPRECATION, EXECRATION, ANATHEMA.

MALEDICTION, from male and dico, signifies a saying ill, that is, declaring an evil wish against a person. CURSE, in Saxon kursian, comes, in all probability, from the same root as the Greek кupow, to sanction or ratify, signifying a bad wish declared upon oath, or in a solemn manner. IMPRECATION, from $i m$ and precor, signifies a praying down evil upon a person. EXECRATION, from the Latin execror, that is, è sacris excludere, signifies the same as to excommunicate, with every form of solema imprecation. ANATHEMA, in Greek a $\boldsymbol{\nu} a \theta \eta \mu a$, signifies a setting out, that is, a putting out of a religious community as a penance.

The malediction is the most indefinite and geaeral term, signifying simply the declaration of evil ; curse is a solema denunciation of evil: the former is employed mostly by men; the latter by some superior being as well as by men: the rest are species of the curse pronounced
only by men. The malediction is caused by simple anger; the curse is occasioned by some grievous offence: men, in the heat of their passions, will utter maledictions against any object that offends them; God pronounced a curse upon Adam, and all his posterity, after the fall.
Witb many praises of his good play, and many maledictions on the power of chance, be took np the cards and tbrew them in the fire.

## Maceenzir.

But know, that ere your promis'd walls yon hnild, My curses shall aeverely be fulfill'd. Daydan.

The term curse differs in the degree of evil pronounced or wished ; imprecation and exceration always imply some positive great evil, and, in fact, as much evil as can be conceived by man in his anger; the anathema respects the evil which is pronounced according to the canon law, by which a man is not only put out of the Church, but held up as an object of offence. The malediction is altogether an unallowed expression of private resentment; the curse was admitted, in some cases, according to the Mosaic law; and that, as well as the anath. ema, at one time formed a part of the ecclesiastical discipline of the Christian Church; the imprecation formed a part of the heathenish ceremony of religion; but the execration is always the informal expression of the most violent personal anger.
Thus either host their imprecatichs Join'd.

## Popg.

1 have seen ln Bedlam a man that has held up his face in a posture of adoration toward heaven to utter ewecrations and blasphemies. Stexie.
The bare anathemas of the Church fall lika so many bruta fulmina upon the ohstinate and schismatical.

South.

## malevolent, malicious, mailgNANT.

These words have all their derivation from malus, bad; that is, MALEVOLENT, wishing ill; MALICIOUS (v. Malice), having malice; and MALIGNANT, having an evil tendency.

Malevolence has a deep root in the heart, and is a settled part of the character; we denominate the person malevolent, to designate the ruling temper of his mind: maliciousness may be applied as an epi
thet to particular parts of a man's character or conduct; one mas have a malicious joy or pleasure in seeing the distresses of another: malignity is not so often employed to characterize the person as the thing; the malignity of a design is cstimated by the degree of mischief which was intended to be done.
I have often known very lasting malevolence exaited by unlucky censures.

Jounson.
Greatness, the carnest of malicious Fate
For future woe, was never meant a good. Southern.
Still horror reigns, a dreary twilight ronnd,
Of struggling night and day malignant mix'd.
Thomson.

## MALICE, RANCOR, SPITE, GRUDGE, PIQUE.

MALICE, in Latin malitia, from malus, bad, signifies the very essence of badness lying in the heart; RANCOR (v. Hatred) is only continued hatred; the former requires no external cause to provoke it, it is inherent in the mind; the latter must he caused by some personal offence. Mal. ice is properly the love of evil for evil's sake, and is, therefore, confined to no numher or quality of objects, and limited by no circunstance; rancor, as it depends upon external objects for its existence, so it is confined to such objects only as are liahle to canse displeasure or anger ; malice will impel a man to do mischief to those who have not injured him, and are perhaps strangers to him; rancor can subsist only between those who have had sufficient connection to be at variance.

## If any chance has hither brought the name Of Palamedes, not unknown to fame, Who suffer'd from the malice of the timos.

Dryden.
Party-spirit flls a nation with spleen and rancor. Adpleon.
SPITE, from the Italian dispetto and the French despit, from spit, a pointed instrument, denotes a petty kind of malice, or disposition to offend another in trifling matters; it may be in the temper of the person, or it may have its source in some external provocation: children often show their spite to each other.
Can hesv'nly minds snch high resentment show, Or exercise their spite in human woe? Dnyden.

GRUDGE, connected with grumble and prowl, and PIQUE, from pike, denoting the prick of a pointed instrument, are
employed for that particular state of ran corous or spiteful feeling which is occa. sioned hy personal offences : the grudge is that which has long existed; the pique is that which is of recent date; a person is said to owe another a grudge for hav. ing done him a disservice; or he is said to have a pique toward another, who has shown him an affront.

The god of wit, to show his grudge, Clapp'd asses' ears upon the jndge.

Swift.

- You may be sure the ladies are not wanting, on their side, in cherishing and improving these important piques, which divide the town almost into as many parties as there are families.

Lady M. W. Montaoue.

## Manly, Manful.

MANLY, or like a man, is opposed to juvenile, and of course applied properly to youths; but MANFUL, or full of man. hood, is opposed to effeminate, and is applicable more properly to grown persons: a premature manliness in young persons is hardly less unseemly than a want of manfulness in one who is called upon to display his courage.
I love a manly freedom as much as any of the band of cashierers of kings.

Burke.
I opposed his whim manfully, which I think yon will approve of.

Comberland.

## MANNERS, MORALS.

MANNERS (v. Air, Manner) respect the minor forms of acting with others and toward others; MORALS include the important duties of life : manners have therefore been denominated minor morals. By an attention to good manners we render ourselves good companions; by an observance of good morals we become good members of society: the former gains the good-will of others, the latter their esteem. The manners of a child are of more or less importance, according to his station in life; his morals cannot be attended to too early, let his station be what it may.
In the present corrupted state of haman manners, always to assent and to comply is the very worst maxim we can adopt. It is impossible to support the purity and dignity of Christian mor. als, withont opposing the world on various oceasions.

Blain
MARITLME, MARINE, NAVAL, NAUTICAL.
MARI'TIME and MARINE, from the Latin mare, a sea, signifies belonging to

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the sea; NAVAL, from navis, a ship, signifies belonging to a ship; and NAUTICAL, from nauta, a sailor, signifies belonging to a sailor, or to navigation. Countries and places are denominated maritime from their proximity to the sea, or their great intercourse by sea; hence England is called the most maritime nation in Europe. Marine is a technical term, employed by persons in office, to denote that which is officially transacted with regard to the sea in distinction from what passes on land; hence we speak of the marines as a species of soldiers acting by sea, of the marine society, or marine stores. Naval is another term of art as opposed to military, and used in regard to the arrangements of government or nommerce: hence we speak of naval affairs, naval officers, naval tactics, and the like. Nautical is a scientific term, connected with the science of navigation or the management of vessels : hence we talk of nautical instruction, of nautical calculations. The marifime laws of Englaud are essential for the preservation of the naval power which it has so justly acquired. The marine of England is one of its glories. The naval administration is one of the most important branches of our government in the time of war. Nautical tables and a nautical almanac have been expressly formed for the benefit of all who apply themselves to nautical subjects.

Octavianns reduced Lepidns to a necessity to beg his life, and be content to lead the remainder of it in a mean condition at Cliceii, a small maritime town among the Latins.

Peideaux.
A man of a very grave aspect required notice to be given of his intention to set out on a certain day on a submarine voyage.

Johnson.
Sextus Pompey having together snch a naval furce as made up 350 ships, seized Sicily.

Prideadx.
He elegantly showed by whom he was drawn, which depainted the nautical compass with aut Magnes, aut Ifagna.

CAMDEN.
MARK, PRINT, IMPRESSION, STAMP.
MARK is the same in the Northern languages, and in the Persian marz. PRINT and IMPRESSION, both from the Latin premo, to press, signify the visible effect produced by printing or pressing. STAMP signifies the effect produced by stamping.

The word mark is the most general in sense: whatever alters the external face of an object is a mark; a print is some specific mark, or a figure drawn upon the surface of an object; an impression is the mark pressed either upon or into a body; a stamp is the mark that is stamped in or upon the body. The mark is confined to no size, shape, or form; the print is a mark that represents an object: the maris may coosist of a spot, a line, a stain, or a smear; but a print describes a given object, as a house, a man, etc. A mark is either a protuberance or a depression; an impression is always a sinking in of the object: a hillock or a hole are both marks; but the latter is properly the impression: the stamp is an impression made in a specific manner and for a specific object, as the stamp of a seal on wax. The mark is occasioned by every sort of action, gentle or violent, artificial or natural ; by the voluntary act of a person, or the unconscious act of inanimate bodies, by means of compression or friction, by a touch or a blow, and the like: all the others are occasioned by one or more of these modes. The print is occasioned by artificial means of compression, as when the print of letters or pictures is made on paper; or by accidental and natural compression, as when the print of the hand is made on the wall, or the print of the foot is made on the ground. The impression is made by means more or less violent, as when an impression is made upon wood by the axe or hammer; or by gradual and natural means, as by the dripping of water on stone. The stamp is made by means of direct pressure with an artificial instrument.

De La Chambre asserts positively that from the marks on the body the conflguration of the planets at a nativity may be gathered. Walse.
From hence Astrea took her flight, and here The prints of her departing steps appear.

Dryden.
The hammered gold coins which were made in the reigns of the several kings and queens from Edward the First inclusively till the beginging of the reign of Charles the Second, are almost totally vanished, either to make vessels or ntensils, or to convert into gold coin of more modern stamps.

Lowndes.
Every picce is brought to the press, which is called the mill, and there receives the impression which makes it milled muney. Lowndes.

Mark is of such universal applicatlon, that it is confined to no objects whatever, either in the natural or moral world; print is mostly applied to material objects, the face of which undergoes a lasting change, as the printing made on paper or wood; impression is more commooly applied to such natural objects as are particularly solid; stamp is generally applied to paper, or still softer and more yielding bodies. Impression and stamp have both a moral application : events or speeches make an impression on the mind: things bear a certain stamp which bespeaks their origin. Where the passions have obtained an ascendency, the occasional good impressions which are produced by religious observances but too frequently die away; the Christian religion carries with itself the stamp of truth.

> When a man thinks of anything in the darkness of the night, whatever deep impressions it may make in his mind, they are apt to vanish as soon as the day breaks ahout him. ADDison. Strange that the gods should give those laws Bearing no stamp of honor, nor design'd With provident thought.

MARK, SIGN, NOTE, SYMPTOM, TOKEN, INDICATION.
MARK, v. Mark, impression. SIGN, in Latin signum, Greek $\sigma \iota \gamma \mu \alpha$, from $\sigma_{\iota} \zeta \omega$, to punctuate, signifies the thing that points out. SYMPTOM, in Latin symptoma, Greek $\sigma \nu \mu \pi \tau \omega \mu \alpha$, from $\sigma \nu \mu \pi เ \pi r \omega$, to fall out in accordance, signifies what presents itself to confirm one's opinion. TOKEN, v. To betoken. INDICATION, in Latin indicatio, from indico, and the Greek $\varepsilon \nu \delta \varepsilon \iota \kappa \omega$, to point out, signifies the thing which points out.

The idea of an external object, which serves to direct the observer, is common to all these terms; the difference consists in the objects that are employed. Anything may serve as a mark, a stroke, a dot, a stick set up, and the like; it serves simply to guide the senses; the sign is something more complex ; it consists of a figure or representation of some object, as the twelve signs of the zodiac, or the signs which are affixed to houses of entertainment, or to shops. Marks are arbitrary; every one chooses his mark at pleasure: signs have commonly
a connection with the object that is to be observed: a house, a tree, a letter, or any external object, may be chosen as a mark: but a tobacconist chooses the sign of a black man; the innkeeper chooses the bead of the reigning prince. Marks serve in general simply to aid the memory in distinguishing the situation of objects, or the particular circumstances of persons or things, as the marks which are set up in a garden to distinguish the ground that is occupied; they may, therefore, be private, and known only to the individual that makes them, as the private marks by which a tradesman distinguishes his prices : they may likewise be changeable and fluctuating, according to the humor and convenience of the maker, as the private marks which are employed by the military on guard. Signs, on the contrary, serve to direct the understanding; they have either a natural or an artificial resemblance to the object to be represented; they are consequently chosen, not by the will of one, but by the universal consent of a body; they are not chosen for the moment, but for a permanency, as in the case of language, either oral or written, in the case of the zodiacal signs, or the sign of the cross, the algebraical signs, and the like. It is clear, therefore, that many objects may be both a mark and a sign, according to the abore illustration: the cross which is employed in books, by way of reference to notes, is a mark only, because it serves merely to guide the eye or assist the memory; but the figure of the cross, when employed in reference to the cross of our Saviour, is a sign, inasmuch as it conveys a distinct idea of something else to the mind; so likewise little strokes over letters, or even letters themselves, may merely be marks, while they only point out a difference between this or that letter, this or that object; but this same stroke becomes a sign if, as in the first declension of Latid nouns, it points out the ablative case, it is a sign of the ablative case; and a single letter affixed to different parcels is merely a mark so long as it simply serves this purpose; but the same letter, suppose it were a word, is a sign when it is used as a sign. A mark may be something accidental, and mean nothing; but a sign is that to

## MARK

which a meaning is always given: there may he marks on a wall occasioned by the elements or otherwise, but a sign is always the sign of something: a mark, if it consist of a sensible object, is only visible, but signs may be the object of hearing, smell, or any other sense; many things, therefore, may be signs which are not marks; when words are spoken and not written, they are signs and not marks; end, in like manner, the cross made on the forehead of a child in baptism is a sign, but not a mark.

It was an ancient custom to cull out of the flocks the goodliest of the cattle, and put certain marks upon tbem whereby they might be distinguished from the rest.

Pottea.
Now part in peace secure thy prayer is sped, Witness the sacred honors of our head, The nod that ratifies the will divine, The faithful, fix'd, irrevocable sign.

Pope.
When mark and sign are both taken to denote something by which one forms a judgrent, the former serves either to denote that which has been or which is, the latter to designate that which is or will be, as persons bear the marks of age, or the marks of violence; or we may judge by the marks of a person's foot that some one has been walking in a particular place; hoarseness is a sign that a person has a cold; when mariners meet with certain birds at sea, they consider them as a sign that land is near at hand.

Hannibal bore the marks in his visage of hard campaigns. Goldsmith. So plain the signs, such prophets are the skies.

Dryden.
So likewise in application to moral objects or matters of a purely intellectual nature; as a mark of honor, or a mark of distinction; an outward and visible sign of an inward and spiritual grace.
Tbe ceremonial laws of Moses were the marks to distinguish the people of God from the Gentiles.
bacon.
The sacring of the kings of France (as Loysel coys) is tbe sifn of their sovereign priesthood.

теmple.
So likewise in application to objects which serve as characteristics of the person, the mark illustrates the spring of the action; the sign shows the state of the mind or sentiments; it is a mark of folly or weakness in a man to yield himgelf implicitly to the guidance of an in-
terested friend; tears are not always a sign of repentance.

These institutions and precepta were considered by the neighboring powera rather as marks of cowardice than wisdom.

Goldsmith.
It's hut a bad sign of humility to declaina agaiast pride.

Collieg.
Note is rather a sign than a mark; but it is properly the sign which consists of marks, as a note of admiration (!); or, in the moral sense, the sign by which the object is known ; as persons of note, that is, which have a note upon them, or that by which they are known.

They who appertain to the visible Cburch have all the notes of external profeasion. Hooker.

Symptom is rather a mark than a sign; it explains the cause or origin of complaints by the appearances they assume, and is employed as a technical term only in the science of medicine: as a foaming at the mouth and an abhorrence of drink are symptoms of canine madness; motion and respiration are signs of life; but it may likewise be used figuratively in application to moral objects.
This fall of the French monarchy was far from being preceded hy any exterior symptoms of decline.

Beake.
Token is a species of mark in the moral sense, indication a species of sign: a mark shows what is, a token serves to keep in mind what has been: a gift to a friend is a mark of one's affection and esteem: if it be permanent in its nature it becomes a token; friends who are in close intercourse have perpetnal opportunities of showing each other marks of their regard by reciprocal acts of courtesy and kindness; when they separate for any length of time, they commonly leave some token of their tender sentiments in each other's hands, as a pledge of what shall be, as well as an evidence of what has been.

He came thither to the prince as be was taking coach, and was received by him with all the marks of affection and esteem.

Bornet.
The famous bull-feasts are an evident token of the Qaixotism and romantic taste of the Spaniards.

Somenville.
Sign, as it respects indication, is said in abstract and general propositions: indication itself is only employed for the sign given by any individual ; it bespeaks
the act of the persons: but the sign is only the face or appearance of the thing. When a man does not live consistently with the profession which he holds, it is a sign that his religion is built on a wrong foundation ; parents are gratified when they observe the slightest indications of genius or goodness in their children.

At the aame time the king waa pleased to diacharge forever to hilm and hia heirs a fen duty that had been formerly payable to the exchequer out of the barony of Cadzon, a sign of the prevalency of his interest at that prince's court.

Crauford.
It ia certain Virgil'a parenta gave him a good education, to which they were inclined by the early indications he gave of a sweet dispoaition and excellent wit.

Watah.

## MARK, TRACE, VESTIGE, FOOTSTEP, TRACK.

Tee word MARK has alveady been considered at large in the preceding article, but it will admit of further illustration when taken in the sense of that which is visible, and serves to show the existing state of things; mark is liere, as before, the most general and unqualified term; the other terms varying in the circumstances or manner of the mark. TRACE, in Italian treccia, Greek rpeєєє, to run, and Hebrew darek, way, signifies any continued mark. VESTIGE, in Latin vestigium, not improbably contracted from pedis, and stigium or stigma, from $\sigma \tau \imath \zeta \omega$, to imprint, signifies a print of the foot. FOOTSTEP is taken for the place in which the foot has stepped, or the mark made by that step. TRACK, derived from the same as trace, signifies the way run, or the mark produced by that running.
The mark is said of a fresh and uninterrupted line; the trace is said of that which is broken by time: a carriage in driving along the sand leaves marks of the wheels, but in a short time all traces of its having been there will be lost; a mark is produced by the action of bodies on one another in every possible form; the spilling of a liquid may leave a mark on the floor; the blow of a stick leaves a mark on the body; but the trace is a mark produced only by bodies making a progress or proceedfng in a continued course: the ship that cuts the waves,
and the bird that cuts the air, leavea no trace of their course behind; so men pass their lives, and after death leave no traces that they ever were. The vestige is a species of mark or trace caused by the feet of men, or, which is the same thing, by the works of active industry; as the vestiges of buildings: there are traces of the Roman roads still visible is England; there are many vestiges of Ro. man temples in Italy.

> I have served him
> In thia old body; yet the marke remain Of many wounds.

Otwat.
The greatest favors to an ungrateful man are but like the motion of a ghip npon the waves: they leave no trace, no sign behind them.

South.
Both Britain and Ireland had temples for the worahip of the gods, the veatiges of which are now remaining.

Pazione.
In an extended and moral application they are similarly distinguished. The mark serves to denote as well that which is as that which has been; as marks of desolation, or marks of antiquity: trace and vestige show the remains of something that has been ; the former in reference to matters of intellectual research generally, the latter in reference to that which has been built up or pulled down, as there are traces of a universal affinity in all known languages; there are vestiges of ancient customs in different parts of England.
He tella ua these Phlisians had a very holy temple, in which there was no image either openly to be seen or kept in aecret. This is certainly a mark of great antiquity.

Bianop Cthmerland.
He could not certainly expect to find traces of his family in his Arundell marbles.

How ard'b Anecdoter.
Her unexpensive though magnificent habits, and above all her own personal inspection, enabled her, in a short time, to remove every vestige of devastation which the civil wars had left. Whitaker
Footstep is employed only for the steps of an it dividual: the track is made by the steps of many; it is the line which has been beaten out oc made by stamping: the footstep is now commonly and properly employed only for men or brutes; but the track is apptied to inanimate objects, as the wheel of a carriage. When Cacus took away the oxen of Hercules, he dragged them baekward that they might not be traced by their footsteps: a track
of blood from the body of a murdered man may sometimes lead to the detection of the murderer.

Muse, first of Arden tell, whose footsteps yet are found
In her rough woodlands more than any other ground.

Dasyton.
Stanley, having dispersed the right wing, now pursned their track.

In the metaphorical application they do not signify a mark, but a course of conduct; the former respects one's moral feelings or mode of dealing; the latter one's mechanical and habitual manner of acting: the former is the consequence of having the same principles; the latter proceeds from imitation or constant repetition. A good son will walk in the footsteps of a good father. In the management of business, it is rarely wise in a young man to leave the trach which bas been marked out for him by his superiors in age and experience.
Virtue alone ennobles humankind,
And power should on her glorious footsteps wait.
W YnNe.
Though all seems lost, 'tis impious to despair, The tracks of Providence, like rivers, wind.

Higgons.

## MARK, BADGE, STIGMA.

MARK ( $v$. Mark, print) is still the general, and the two others specific terms; they are employed for whatever serves to characterize persons externally, or betoken any part either of their character or circumstances: mark is employed either in a good, bad, or indifferent sense; BADGE in an indifferent one; STIGMA in a bad sense: a thing may either be a mark of honor, of disgrace, or of simple distinction: a badge is a mark simply of distinction; the stigma is a mark of disgrace. The mark is that which is conferred upon a person for his merits, as medals, stars, and ribbons are bestowed by princes upon meritorious officers and soldiers; or the mark attaches to a person, or is affixed to him, in consequence of his demerits; ss a low situation in bis class is a mark of disgrace to a scbolar; or a fool'b-oap is a mark of ignominy offixed to idlers and dunces; or a brand in the forehead is a mark of ignominy for criminals: the badge is that which is voluntarily assumed by one's self according
to established custom; it consists of dresa by which the office, station, and even religion of a particular community is distinguished: as the gown and wig is the badge of gentlemen in the law; the gown and surplice that of clerical men; the uniform of charity children is the badge of their condition; the peculiar habit of the Quakers and Methodists is the badge of their religion : the stigma consists not so much in what is openly imposed upon a person as what falls upon him in the judgment of others; it is the black mark which is set upon a person by the public, and is consequently the strongest of all marks, and one which every one most dreads, and every good man seeks least to deserve.

In these revolutionary meetings, every coutrsel, in proportion as it is daring and violent and perfidious, is taken for the mark of superior genins. Buang.
The people of England look upon hereditary suecession as a seenrity for their liberty, not as a badge of servitude.

Bores.
The cross which our Saviour's enemies thonght was to etfgmertize him with infamy, hecame the ensign of bis renown.

## MARK, BUTT.

After all that has been said upon the word MARK ( $v$. Mark, print), it has this additional meaning in common with the word BUTT, that it implies an ohject aimed at : the mark is literally a mark that is said to be shot at by the marksman with a gun or a bow.

A fluttering dove upon the top they tie, The living mark at which their arrows fly.

Dryden.
It is also metaphorically employed for the man who by his peculiar character. istics makes himself the object of notice; he is the mark at which every one's looks and thoughts are directed: the butt, from the French bout, the end, is a species of mark in this metaphorical sense; but the former only calls forth general observation, the latter provokes the laughter and jokes of every one. Whoever renders himself conspicuous by his eccentricities, either in his opinions or his actions, must not complain if he become a mark for the derision of the public : it is a man's misfortune rather than his fault if be become the butt of a oompany who are rude and
unfeeling enough to draw their pleasures from another's pain.

I mean those honest gentlemen that are pelted by men, women, and children, by friends and foes, and, in a word, stand as lutts in conversation.

Addition.

## TO MARK, NOTE, NOTICE.

MARK is here taken in the intellectual sense, fixing as it were a mark (v. Mark) upon a thing so as to keep it in mind, which is in fact to fix one's attention upon lt in such a manner as to be able to distinguish it by its characteristic qualities: to mark is therefore altogether an intellectual act: to NOTE has the same end as that of marking; namely, to aid the memory, but one notes a thing by making a riritten note of it $;$, this is therefore a mechanical act: to NOTICE, on the other hand, is a sensihle operation, from notitia, knowledge, signifying to bring to one's knowledge, perception, or understanding by the usc of our senses. We mark and note that which particularly interests us: the former is that which serves a present purpose; notice that which may be of use in future. The impatient lover marks the hours unti, the time arrives for meeting his mistress: travellers note whatever strikes them of importance to be remembered when they return home: notice, which is a species of noting in small matters, may serve either for the present or the future; we may notice things merely by way of amusement; as a child will notice the actions of animals, or we may notice a thing for the sake of bearing it in mind, as a person notices a particular road when he wishes to return by the same way.

Many who mark with such accuracy the course of time appear to have little sensibility of the decline of life.

Johnson.
0 treach'rous conscience! while she seems to slsep,
Unnoted, notes each moment misapplied.
Young.
An Englishman's notice of the weather is the uatural consequence of changeable skies and unsertain seasons.

Jobnzon.
MARriage, wedding, nuptials.
MARRIAGE, from to marry, denotes the act of marrying; WEDDING and NUPTIALS denote the ceremony of being married. To marry, in French marier,
and Latin marito, to be joined to a male; hence marriage comprehends the act of choosing and being legally bound to a man or a woman; wedding, from wed, and the Teutonic wetten, to promise or betroth, implies the ceremony of marrying, inasmuch as it is binding upon the parties. Nuptials comes from the Latin nubo, to veil, because the Roman ladies were veiled at the time of marriage: hence it has been put for the whole ceremony itself. Marriage is an institution which, by those who have been blessed with the light of Divine Revelation, has always been considered as sacred: with some persons, particularly among the lower orders of society, the day of their wedding is converted into a day of riot and intemperance: among the Roman Catholics in England it has been the practice to have their nuptials solemnized by a priest of their own persnasion as well as by the Protestant clergyman.

O fatal maid ! thy marriage 1s endow'd
With Phrygian, Latian, and Rutulian blood.
DaYDEN.
Ask any one how he has been employed to-day, he will tell you, perhaps, I have been at the ceremony of taking the manly robe: tbis friend invited me to a wedding; that desired me to attend the hearing of his cause.

Melmoth's Letters of Plint.
Fir'd with disdain for Turnos dispossess'd,
And the new muptiala of the Trojan guest.
Dryden.

MARRIAGE, MATRIMONY, WEDLOCK.
MARRIAGE (v. Marriage) is oftener an act than a state : MATRIMONY and WEDLOCK both describe states.

Marriage is taken in the sense of an act, when we speak of the laws of marriage, the day of one's marriage, the congratulations upon one's marriage, a happy or unhappy marriage, the fruits of one's marriage, and the like; it is taken in the sense of a state, when we speak of the pleasures or pains of marriage; but in this latter case matrimony, which signifies a married life abstractedly from all agents or acting persons, is preferable; so like wise, to think of matrimony, and to enter into the holy state of matrimony, are expressions founded upon the signi. fication of the term. As matrimony is derived from mater, a mother, because married women are in general mothers, it

## MATTER

has particular reference to the domestic state of the two parties; broils are but too frequently the fruits of matrimony, yet there are few cases in which they might not be obviated by the good-sense of those who are engaged in them. Hasty marriages cannot be expected to produce happiness; young people who are eager for matrimony before they are fully aware of its consequences will purchase their experience at the expense of their peace. Wedlock is the old English word for matrimony, and is in consequence admitted in law, when one speaks of children born in wedlock; agreeably to its derivation, it has a reference to the bond of union which follows the marriage: hence one speaks of living happily in a state of wedlock, of being joined in holy wedlock.

Marriage is rewarded with some honorable distinctions which celibacy is forbidden to usurp. Johnson.
As love generally produces matrimony, so it often happens that matrimony produces love.

Spectator.
The men who would make good husbands, if they visit public places, are frighted at wedlock, and resolve to live single.

Johnson.

## martial, warlike, military, sol-DIER-LIKE.

MARTIAL, from Mars, the god of war, is the Latin term for belonging to war: WARLIKE signifies literally like war, having the image of war. In sense these terms approach so near to each other, that they may be easily admitted to supply each other's place; but custom, the lawgiver of language, has assigned an office to each that makes it not altogether indifferent how they are used. Martial is both a technical and a more comprehensive term than varlike; on the other hand, warlike designates the temper of the individual more than martial: we speak of martial array, martial preparations, martial law, a court martial; but of a warlike nation, meaning a nation who is fond of war; a warlike spirit or temper, also a warlike appcarance, inasmuch as the temper is visible in the air and carriage of a man. MILITARY, from miles, signifies belonging to a soldier, and SOLDIER-LIKE, like a soldier. Military, in comparison with martial, is a term of particular import, martial hav-
ing always a reference to war in genersl; and military to the proceedings conse quent upon that: hence we speak of mil itary in distinction from naval, as military expeditions, military movements, and the like; but in characterizing the men, we should say that they had a martial appearance; but of a particular place, that it had a military appearance, if there were many soldiers. Military, compared with soldier-like, is used for the body, and the latter for the individual. The whole army is termed the military: the conduct of an individual is soldier-like or otherwise.
An active prince, and prone to martial deeds. Dryden.
Last from the Volscians fair Camilla came, And led her woarlike troops, a warrior dame. Drexiden.
The Tlascalans were, like all unpolished nations, strangers to military order and discipline. Robertson.
The fears of the Spaniards led them to prosumptrons and unsoldier-like discussions concerning the propriety of their general's measures.

Robertson.

## Matter, materlals, subject.

MATTER and MATERIALS are both derived from the same source, namely, the Latin materia, which comes in all probability from mater, a mother, becsuse matter, from which everything is made, acts in the production of bodies like a mother. SUBJECT, in Latin swjectum, participle of subjicio, to lie, siguifies the thing lying under and forming the foundation.

Matter, in the physical application, is taken for all that composes the sensible world, in distinction from that which is spiritual, or discernible only by the thinking faculty; hence matter is always opposed to mind. In regard to moderials, it is taken in an indivisible as well as a general sense; the whole universe is said to be composed of matter, though not of materials: on the other hand, materials consist of those particular parts of matter which serve for the artificial production of objects; and matter is said of thcae things which are the natural parts of whe nniverse: a house, a table, and a chair, consist of materials, because they are works of art; but a plant, a tree, an animal body, consist of matter, because they are the productions of nature.

The motion of the plonets round him (the sun) is performed in the same time, of consequence his quantity of matter atill continues the same. Biydone.
The materials of that bnilding very fortunately ranged themselves into that delicate order that it muat be very great chance that parts them.

Tillotson.
The distinction of these terms in their moral application is very similar; the matter which composes a morsl discourse is what emanates from the suthor; but the materials are those with which one is furnished by others. The style of some writers is so indifferent that they disgrsce the matter hy the manner; periodical writers are furnished with materials for their productions out of the daily occurrences in the political and morsl world. Writers of dictionaries endeavor to compress as much matter ss possible into a small spsce; they draw their materials from every other writer.
Whence tumbled headlong from the height of life,
They furnish matter for the tragic muse.
Thomen.
The principal materials of our comfort or uneasineaa lie within ourselvea.

Blair.
Matter seems to bear the same relation to subject as the whole does to any particular part, as it respects moral objects : the subject is the groundwork of the matter; the matter is that which flows out of the subject: the matter is that which we get by the force of invention; the subject is that which offers itself to notice: many persons may therefore hsve s subject who have no matter, that is, nothing io their own minds which they can offer by way of illustrating this subject: but it is not possible to have matter without a subject: hence the word matter is taken for the substance, and for that which is substantisl; the subject is taken for that which engsges the attention: we spesk of s subject of conversation and matter for deliheration; a subject of inquiry, a matLer of curiosity. Nations in a barbarous state afford but little malter worthy to be recorded in history; people who live a secluded life sud in a contracted sphere have but few subjects to occupy their sttention.

[^86]Milton.

Love hath such a strong virtual force that when it fasteneth on a pleasing subject it sets the imagination at a strange tit of working.

HOWELL.

## MAXIM, PRECEPT, RULE, LAW.

MAXIM (v. Axiom) is a moral truth that carries its own weight with itself. PRECEPT ( $v$. Command), RULE ( $v$ Guide), snd LAW, from lex and lego, sig. nifying the thing specifically chosen or marked out, all borrow their weight from some external circumstance: the precept derives its authority from the individual delivering it ; in this manner the precepts of our Saviour have a weight which gives them s decided superiority over everything else: the rule scquires s worth from its fitness for guiding us in our proceeding: the law, which is a species of rule, derives its weight from the sanction of power. Maxims are often precepts, inasmuch as they are communicated to us by our parents; they are rules, inasmuch as they serve as a rule for our conduct; they are laws, inasmuch as they hsve the ssnction of conscience. We respect the maxims of sntiquity as contsining the esseace of humsn wisdom; we reverence the precepts of religion as the foundation of all happiness; we regard the rules of prudence as preserving us from errors and misfortunes; we respect the laws as they are the support of civil society.

I think I may lay it down as a maxim, that every man of good common-sense may, if he pleases, most certainly be rich.

Budeeli.
Philosophy has accumulated precept upon precept to warn us against the anticipation of future calamitiea.

Johnson.
I know not whether any muls has yet been fixed by which it may be decided when poetry cau properly be called easy.

Johnaon.
God is thy law, tnou mitue.
Milton.
MEAN, PITIFUL, SORDID.
The moral application of these terms to the characters of men, in their transactions with each other, is what constitutes their common signification. Whatever a man does in common with those helow him is MEAN; it evinces a temper that is prone to sink rather than to rise in the scale of society: whstever makes him an object of pity, and consequently of contempt for his sunken charactel
makes him PITIFUL: whatever make
him grovel and crawl in the dust, licking up the dross and filth of the earth, is SORDID, from the Latin sordeo, to be filthy and nasty. Meanness is in many cases only relatively bad as it respects the disposal of our preperty : for instance, what is meanness in one, might be generosity or prudence in another: the due estimate of circumstances is allowable in all, but it is meanness for any one to attempt to save, at the expense of others, that which he can conveniently afford either to give or pay: hence an undue spirit of seeking gain or advantage for one's self to the detriment of others, is denominated a mean temper: it is mean for a gentleman to do that for himself which according to bis circumstances he might get another to do for him. Pitifulness goes farther than meanness: it is not merely that which degrades, but unmans the person; it is that which is bad as well as low: when the fear of evil or the love of gain prompts a man to sacrifice his character and forfeit his veracity he becomes truly pitiful; Blifil in Tom Jones is the character whom all pronounce to be pitiful. Sordidness is peculiarly applicable to one's love of gain; although of a more corrupt, yet it is not of so degrading a nature as the two former: the sordid man does not deal in trifles like the mean man; and has nething no low and vicious in him as the pitiful man. A continual habit of getting money will engender a sordid love of it in the human mind; but nothing short of a radically wicked character leads a man to be puitiful. We think lightly of a mean man: we hold a piliful man in profound contempt: we hate a sordid man. Meanness descends to that which is insignificant and worthless: pitifulness sinks into that which is despicable: sordidness contaminates the mind with what is foul.

## Natnre, I thonght, perform'd too mean a part, Forming her movements to the rules of art.

SWIFT.
The Jews tell us of a twofold Messiah, a vile and most pitiful fetch, invented only to evade what they cannot answer. Prideadx. This, my assertion proves he may be old, And yet not sordid, who refuses gold. Deniam.

## MEAN, MEDIUM.

MEAN is but a contraction of MEDIUM, which signifies in Latin the middle
path. The term mean is used abstractedly in all speculative matters: there is a mean in opinions between the two extremes: this mean is doubtless the point nearest to truth. Medium is employed in practical matters; computations are often erroneous from being too high or too low; the medium is in this case the one most to be preferred. The moralist will always recommend the mean in all opinions that widely differ from each other: our passions always recommend to us some extravagant conduct either of insolent resistance or mean compliance; but discretion recommends the medium or middle course in such matters.
The man within the golden mean,
Who can his boldest wish contain,
Securely views the ruin'd cell
Where sordid want and sorrow dwell. Francig
He who looks upon the soul through its out ward actions, often sees it through a deceitful medium.

Abdison.

## MEETING, INTERVIEW.

MEETING, from to meet, is the act of meeting or coming into the company of any one: INTERVIEW, compounded of inter, between, and viev, to view, is a personal view of each other. A meeting is an ordinary concern, and its purpose familiar; meetings are daily taking place between friends: an interview is extraordinary and formal; its object is common ly business; an interview sometimes takes place between princes, or commanders of armies.
I have not joy'd an hour since you departed, For pnblic miseries and private fears. But this bless'd meeting has o'erpaid them all.

DEYDEX.
His fears were, that the interview between England and Frauce might, through their amities,
Breed him some prejadice. Shakspeabe.

## MELODY, RARMONY, ACCORDANCE.

MELODY, in Latin melodus, from melos, in Greek $\mu \varepsilon \lambda o c$, a verse, and the Hebrew mela, a word or a verse. HARMONY, in Latin harmonia, Greek apuovia, concord, from apw, apto, to fit or suit, signifies the agreement of sounds. ACCORDANCE denotes the act or state of according (v. To agree).

Melody signities any measured or modulated sounds measured after the manner of verse into distinct members of
parts; harmony signifies the suiting or adapting different modulated sounds to each other; melody is therefore to har. mony as a part to the whole: we must first produce melody by the rules of art; the harmony which follows must be regulated by the ear: there may be melody without harmony, but there cannot be harmony without melody: we speak of simple melody where the modes of music are not very much diversified; but we cannot speak of harmony unless there be a variety of notes to fall in with each other. A voice is melodious, inasmuch as it is capable of producing a regularly modulated note; it is harmonious, inasmuch as it strikes agreeably on the ear, and produces no discordant sounds. The song of a bird is melodious or has melody in it, inasmiuch as there is a concatenation of sounds in it which are admitted to be regular, and consequently agreeable to the musical ear ; there is harmony in a concert of voices and instruments. Accordance is, strictly speaking, the property on which both melody and harmony is founded; for the whole of music depends on an accordance of sounds. The same distinction marks accordance and harmony in the moral application. There may be occasional accordance of opinion or feeling; but harmony is an entire accordance in every point.
Lend me your song, ye nightingales! oh pour The mazy-running soul of malody Into my varied verse.

тномяon.
Now the distemper'd mind Has lost that concord of harmonious powers Which forms the soul of happiness. Tromson.

The music
Of man's fair composition best accords
When 'tis in concert.
Sharspeare.

## MEMBER, LIMB.

MEMBER, in Latin membrum, probably from the Greek $\mu$ epos, a part, because a member is properly a part. LIMB is connected with the word lame.

Member is a general term applied eithey to the animal body or to other badies, as a member of a family, or a member of a community: limb is applicable to animal bodies; limb is therefore a species of member; for every limb is a menber, but every member is not a limb. The members of the body comprehend every part which is capable of performing a
distinct office; but the limbs are those jointed members that are distinguished from the head and the body: the nose and the eyes are members, but not limbs; the arms and legs are properly denominated limbs.
A man's limbs (by whicb for the present we only understand those members, the loss of which alone amounts to mayhem by the common law) are the gift of the wise Creator, to enable him to protect himself from external injuries.

Blacestone.

## MEMORY, REMEMBRANCE, RECOLLECTION, REMINISCENCE.

MEMORY, in Latin menoria or memor, Greek $\mu \nu \eta \mu \omega \nu$ and $\mu \nu a o \mu a t$, comes, in all probability, from $\mu \mathrm{E} \nu_{\mathrm{O}}$, the mind, or intellectual power, because memory is one of the principal faculties of the mind. REMEMBRANCE, from the verb remember, contracted from re and memoro, to bring back to the mind, comes from memor, as before. RECOLLECTION, from recollect, compounded of re and collect, signifies collecting again. REMINISCENCE, in Latin reminiscentia, from reminiscor and memor, as before, signifies bringing back to the mind what was therc before.

Memory is the power of recalling images once made on the mind; remembrance, recollection, and reminiscence are operations or exertions of this power, which vary in their mode. The memory is a power which exerts itself either independently of the will, or in conformity with the will; but all the other terms express the acts of conscious agents, and consequently are more or less conncoted with the will. In dreams the memory exerts itself, but we do not say that we have any remembrance or recollection of objects. Remembrance is the exercise of memory in a conscious agent; it may be the effect of repetition or habit, as in the case of a child who remembers his lesson after having learned it several times; or of a horse who remembers the road which he has been continually passing; or it may be the effect of asseciation and circumstances, by which images are casually brought back to the mind, as happens to intelligent beings continually as they exercise thelr thinking faculties. In these cases remembrance is an involuntary act; for things return to the mind before one is aware of it, as in the case
of one who hears a particular name, and remembers that he has to call on a person of the same name; or of one who, on seeing a particular trec, remombers all the circumstances of his youth which were connected with a similar tree. Remembrance is, however, likewise a voluntary act, and the consequence of a direct determination, as in the case of a child who strives to remember what it has been told by its parent; or of a friend who remembers the hour of meeting another friend in consequence of the interest which it has excited in his mind : nay, indeed, experience teaches us that scarcely anything in ordinary cases is more under the subservience of the will than the memory; for it is now become almost a maxim to say, that one may remember whatever one wishes.

Remember thee!
Ah, thou poor ghost, while memory holds a seat In this distracted globe.

Shakspeare.
The power of memory, and the simple exercise of that power in the act of $r e$ membering, are possessed in common, though in different degrees, by man and brute; but recollection and reminiscence are exercises of the memory that are connected with the bigher faculties of man, his judgment and understanding. To remember is to call to mind that which bas once been presented to the mind; but to recollect is to remember afresh, to remember what has been remembered before, to recall with an effort what may have been forgotten. Remembrance busies itsclf with objects that are at hand; recollection carries us back to distant periods: simple remembrance is engaged in things that have but just left the mind, which are more or less easily to be recalled, and more or less faithfully to be represented; but recollection tries to retrace the faint images of things that have been so long unthonght of as to be almost obliterated from the memory. In this manner vo are said to remember in one half-hour what was told us in the preceding halfhour, or to remember what passes from one day to another; but we recollect the incidents of childhood; we recollect what happened in our native place after many years' absence from it. Remembrance is that homely, every-day exercise of the nemory which renders it of essential ser-
vice in the acquirement of knowledge, or in the performance of one's duties; recollection is that exalted exercise of the memory which affords us the purest of enjoyments and serves the noblest of purposes; the recollection of all the minute incidents of childhood is a more sincere pleasure than any which the present moment can afford.
Forgetfulness is necessary to remembrance.
JOBNEON,
Memory may be assisted by method, and the decays of knowledge repaired by stated times of recollection.

JoHNson.
Reminiscence is altogether an abstract exercise of the memory, which is employed on purely intellectual ideas in distinction from those which are awakened by sensible objects: the mathematician makes use of reminiscence in deducing unknown truths from those which he already knows. Reminiscence among the disciples of Socrates was the remembrance of things purely intellectual, or of that natural knowledge which the souls had had before their union with the body; while the memory was exercised upon sensible things, or that knowledge which was acquired through the medium of the senses. Reminiscence, io its famil. iar application, signifies any event or cir cumstance long passed which is brought, or comes to the mind, particularly if it be of a pleasurable nature.

The encouragement and kindness I have received will form one of the most pleasing reminiscences of my life.

Wilson.
The Latins said that reminisence belonged exclusively to man because it was purely intellectual, but that memory was common to all animals because it was merely the depot of the senses. That divine, though pagan philosopher, the high-winged Plato, fancied that our souls were at the first infusion abrase tobulde, and that all our future knowledge was but a reminiscence.

Reminiscence is the retrieving a thing at present forgot, or confusedly remembered, by setting the mind to hunt over all its notions.

South

## MENTAL, INTELIJECTUAL, INTELLIGENT.

There is the same difference between MENTAL and INTELLECTUAL as between mind and intellect: the mind com-

## MINDFUL

prehends the thinking faculty in general, with all its operations; the intellect includes only that part of it which consists in understanding and judgment: mental is therefore opposed to corporeal ; intellectual is opposed to sensual or physical : mental exertions are not to be expected from all; intellectual enjoyments fall to the lot of comparatively few. Objects, pleasures, pains, operations, gifts, etc., are denominated mental; subjects, conversation, pursuits, and the like, are entitled intellectual. It is not always easy to distinguish our mental pleasures from those corporeal pleasures which we enjoy in common with the brutes; the latter are, however, greatly heightened by the former in whatever degree they are blended: in a society of well-informed persons, the conversation will turn principally on intellectual suhjects.
To coilect and reposit the various forms of
things is far the most pleasing part of mental
oceupation.
Jon's more divine, the master of ali these,
Lord of the wide world, and wide wat'ry seas,
Endued with intellectual sense and soul.
SHakseana.
INTELLIGENT, from intelligens, understandtng or knowing, is a characteristic of the person : an intelligent being or an intelligence denotes a being purely spiritual, or abstracted from matter.

Can He delight in the production of such abortive intelligences, such short-lived reasonable beings?

Spectatoa.
When applted to individuals, it denotes having a quick understanding of $t^{\prime}$ 'ings, as an intelligent child.

## MERCANTILE, COMMERCIAL.

MRRCANTILE, from merchandise, respects the actual transaction of business, or a transfer of merchandise by sale or purchase; COMMERCIAL comprehends the theory and practice of commerce: hence we speak in a peculiar manner of a mercantile house, a mercantile town, a mercantite situation, and the like; but of a commercial education, a commercial people, commercial speculations, and the like.

[^87]Jogneon

## MESSAGE, ERRAND.

MESSAGE, from the Latin missus, participle of mitto, to send, signifies the thing sent. ERRAND, from erro, to wander or to go to a distance, siguifies the thing for which one goes to a distance.

The message is properly any communication which is conveyed; the errand sent from one person to another is that which causes one to go: servants are the bearers of messages, and are sent on various errands. A message may be either verbal or written; an errand is limited to no form, and to no circumstance: one delivers the message, and goes the errand. Sometimes the message may be the errand, and the errand may include the message: when that which is sent consists of a notice or intimation to another, it is a message; and if that causes any one to go to a place, it is an errand: thus it is that the greater part of errands consists of sending messages from one person to another.
I did recometimes from her eyes I did receive fair speechless messages.

Suakspeabe.
The scenes where ancient bards th' inspiring breath
Ecstatic felt, and, from this world retir'd, Convers'd with angels and immortal forms, On gracious errands beot. Tномson.

## MINDFUL, REGARDFUL, OBSERVANT.

MINDFUL ( $v$. To attend to) respects that which we wish from others; REGARDFUL (v. To regard) respects that which in itself demands regard or serious thought, particularly what regards the interests and feelings of others; OBSERVANT respects both that which is communicated by others, or that which carries its own obligations with itself: a child should always be mindful of its parents' instructions; they should never be forgotten: every one should be regardful of his several duties and obligations; they ought never to be neglected: one ought to be observant of the religious duties which one's profession enjoins upon him; they cannot with propriety be passed over. By being mindful of what one hears from the wise and good, one learns to be wise and good; by being regardfud of what is due to one's self, and to society at large, one learns to pass through the world with satisfaction to one's own
mind and esteem from others; by being observant of all rule and order, we afford to others a salutary example for their imitation.
Be mindful, when thou hast entomb'd the shoot, With atore of earth around to feed the root.

DRYDEN.
No, there ia none; no ruier of the stars
Regardful of my miseries.
Hul.
Observant of the right, religious of his word.
Dryden.

## MINISTER, AGENT.

MINISTER comes from minus, less, as magister comes from magis, more; the one being less, and the other more, than others: the minister, therefore, is literally one that acts in a subordinate capacity; and the AGENT (from ago, to act) is the one that takes the acting part: they both perform the will of another, but the minister performs a higher part than the agent: the minister gives his counsel, and exerts his intellectual powers in the service of another; but the agent executes the orders or commissions given him: a minister is employed by goverument in political affairs; an agent is employed by individuals in commercial and pecuniary affairs, or by gevernment in subordinate matters: a minister is received at court, and serves as a representative for his government; an agent generally acts under the directions of the minister or some officer of government: ambassadors or plepipotentlaries, or the first officers of the State, are ministers; but those who regulate the affairs respecting prisoners, the police, and the like, are termed agents. A minister always bolds a public character, and is in the service of the State; the agent may be only acting for another individual, as a commer. cial agent.
This sovereign by his arbitrary nod
Restrains or sends his ministers abroad.
Blacimore.
They had not the wit to send to them, in any orderly fashion, agents or chosen men, to tempt them or treat with them.

Bacon.

## TO MINISTER, ADMINISTER, CONTRIBUTE.

To MINISTER, from the goun minister, In the sense of a servant ( $v$. Minister), signifies to act in subservience to anoth. er, and may be taken either in a goed, bad, or indifferent sense, as to minister
to the spiritual wants or to ministor to the caprices and indulgences of another when we encourage them unnecessarily. ADMINISTER, that is, to minister for a specific purpose, is taken in the good sense of serving another to his advantage: thus the good Samaritan administered to the comfort of the man who had fallen among thicves. CONTRIBUTE ( $v$. To conduce) is taken in either a good or bad sense; we may contribute to the relief of the indigent, or we may contribute to the follies and vices of others. Princes are sometimes placed in the unfortunate situation, that those who should direct them in early life only minister to their vices by every means in their power: it is the part of the Christian to administer comfort to those who are in want, consolation to the afflicted, advice to those who ask for it, and require it; help to those who are feeble, and support to those who cannot uphold thernselves: it is the part of all who are in high stations to contribute to the dissemination of religion and morality among their dependents; but there are, on the contrary, many who contribute to the spread of inmorality, and a contempt of all sacred things, by the most pernicious example of irreligion in themselves.

[^88]Attebbury.
By the universal administration of gracs, begun by our blesaed Saviour, enlarged by his Apostles, carried on by their immediate saccessors, and to be completed by the rest to the world's end, all types that darkened this fatth are enlightened.

Spratt.
Parents owe thelr children not only material subsistence for their body, but much more spiritnal contribution for their mind. Drosy.

As expressing the acts of unconscious agents, they bear a similar distinction.
Ha flings the pregnant ashes through the air, And speaks a mighty prayer,
Both which the minist'ring winds around all Egypt bear.

Cowley.
Thus do our eyes, as do all common mirrors, Succeasively reflect succeeding images;
Not what they would, but must! a atar or toad, Just as the hand of chance administers.

Congrate,
May from my bonca a new Achilles rise, That shall infest the Trojan colonies
With fire, and sword, and famine, when, at length, Time to our great attempts contributcas strength,

DENEAM

## MIRTH, MERRIMENT, JOVLALITY, JOLLITY, HILARITY.

These terms all express that species of gayety or joy which belongs to company, or to men in their social intercourse. MIRTH refers to the feeling displayed in the outward conduct: MERRIMENT, and the other terms, refer rather to the external expressions of the feeling, or the causes of the feeling, than to the feeling itself : mirth shows itself in laughter, in dancing, singing, and noise; merriment consists of such things as are apt to excite mirth: the more we are disposed to laugh, the greater is our mirth; the more there is to create laughter, the greater is the merriment: the tricks of Punch and his wife, or the jokes of a clown, cause much mirth among the gaping crowd of rustics; the amusements with the swing, or the roundabout, afford much merriment to the visitants of a fair. Mirth is confined to no age or station; but merriment belongs more particularly to young people, or those of the lower station; mirth may bs provoked wherever any number of persons is assembled; merriment cannot go forward anywhere so properly as at fairs, or common and public places. JOVIALITY or JOLLITY, and HILARITY, are species of merriment which belong to the convivial board, or to less refined iadulgences: joviality or jollity is the unrefined, unlicensed indulgence in the pleasures of the table, or any social entertainments; hilarity is the same thing qualified by the cultivation and good-sense of the company; we may expect to find much joviality and jollity at a puhlic dinner of mechanics, watermen, or laborers; we may expect to find hilarity at a public dinner of noblemen : eating, drinking, and noise, constitute the joviality; the conversation, the songs, the toasts, and the public spirit of the company contribute to hilarily.

[^89]He who best knows our natures by such afflictions recalls our wandering thoughts from idle merriment.

Gray.
Now swarms the village o'er the jovial mead.
Thomson.

With branches we the fanes adorn, and wate In jollity the day ordsin'd to be the last.

Dryper.
He that contributes to the hilarity of the vacant hour will be welcomed with ardor.

Jobinson,

## TO MISCONSTRUE, MISINTERPRET.

MISCONSTRUE and MISINTER. PRET signify to explain in a wrong way; but the former respects the sense of one's words or the application of one's actions: those who indulge themselves in a light mode of speech toward children are liable to be misconstrued; a too great tenderness to the criminal may bs easily misinterpreted into favor of the crime. These words may likewise be employed in speaking of language in general; but the former respeots the literal transmission of foreign ideas into our native language; the latter respects the general sense which one affixes to any set of words, either in a native or foreign language: the learners of a language will unavoidably misconstrue it at times; in all languages there are ambigyous expressions, which are liable to mis. interpretation. Misconstruing is the consequence of ignorance; misinterpretation of particular words are oftener the consequence of prejudice and voluntary blindness, partlcularly in the explauation of the law or of the Scriptures.

In ev'ry act and turn of life he feels
Public calamities or household ills;
The judge corrupt, the long depending cause, And donbtful lssue of misconstrued laws.

Palor,
Some purposely misrepresent or put a wrong interpretation on the virtues of others.

Addison.
TO MIX, MINGLE, BLEND, CONFOUND.
MIX is in German mischen, Latin mis. ceo, Greek $\mu \iota \sigma \omega$, Hebrew mazeg. MINGLE, in Greek $\mu c \gamma \nu v \mu$, , is but a variation of mix. BLEND, in German blenden, to dazzle, comes from blind, signifying to see confusedly, or confused objects in a general way. CONFOUND, v. Confonond.

Mix is here a general and indefinite term, signifying simply to put together: but we may mix two or several things; we mingle several objects; thinge are mixed so as to lose all distinction; but they may be mingled and yet retain a dis
tinction: liquids mix so as to become one, and individuals $m i x$ in a crowd so as to be lost; things are mingled together of different sizes if they lie in the same spot, but they may still be distinguished. To blend is only partially to mix, as colors blend which fall into each other: to confound is to mix in a wrong way, as objects of sight are confounded when they are erroneously taken to be joined. To mix and mingle are mostly applied to material objects, except in poetry; to blend and confound are mental operations, and principally employed on spiritual subjects: thus, events and circumstances are blended together in a narrative; the ideas of the ignorant are confounded in most cases, but particularly when they attempt to think for themselves.

Can imagination boast,
Amld its gay creation, hues like hers,
Or can it mis them with that matchless skiy, And lose them in each other ?

Thomson.
There, as I pass'd with careless steps and slow, The mingling notes came softened from below. Goldsmith.

But happy they ! the happiest of their kind, Whom gentler stars unite, and in one fate Their hearts, their fortanes, and their beings blend.

Tnomson.
And long the gods, we know, Have grudg'd thee, Cæsar, to the world below, Where frand and rapine, right and wrong confound.

Dryden.

## MIXTURE, MEDLEY, MISCELLANY.

MIXTURE is the thing mixed ( $v$. To mix). MEDLEY, from meddle or middle, signifies what comes between another. MISCELLANY, in Latin miscellaneous, from misceo, to mix, signifies also a mixtare.

The term mixture is general; whatever objects can be mixed will form a mixture: a medley is a mixture of things not fit to be mixed: and a miscellany is a mixture of many different things. Flour, water, and eggs may form a mixture in the proper sense; but if to these were added all sonts of spices, it would form a medley. Miscellany is a species applicable only to intellectual subjects: the miscellaneous is opposed to that which is systematically arranged; essays are miscellaneous in distinction from works on one particular subject.

In great villanies, there is often such a micture of tbe fool, as quite spoils the whole project of the knave.
More oft in fools' and madmen's hands than sages, She seems a mealley of all agea.

Swift.
A writer, whose design is ao comprebensive and miscellaneours as that of an essayist, may accommodate himself with a topic from every scene of life.

Johnson.

## MODERATION, MEDIOCRITY.

MODERATION ( $v$. Modesty) is the characteristic of persons; MEDIOCRITY (that is, the mean or medium) characterizes their condition : moderation is a virtue of no small importance for beings who find excess in everything to be an evil; mediocrity in external circumstances is exempt from all the evils which attend either porerty or riches.
Such moderation with thy honnty joid, That thou may'st nothing give that is not thine. Deniam.
Mediocrity only of enjoyment is allowed to man.
Blate.

## MODEST, BASHFUL, DIFFIDENT.

MODEST, in Latin modestus, from modus, a measure, signifies setting measure to one's estimate of one's self. BASHFUL signifies ready to be abashed. DIFFIDENT, v. Distrustful.

Medesty is a habit or principle of the mind; bashfulness is a state of feeling: modesty is at all times becoming; bashfulness is only becoming in females, or very young persons, in the presence of their superiors: modesty discovers itself in the absence of everything assuming, whether in look, word, or action; bashfulness betrays itself by a downcast look and a timid air: a modest deportment is always commendable; a bashful temper is not desirable.

Her face, as in a nymph display'd A fair fierce boy, or in a boy betray'd The blnshing beanties of a modest maid.

Dryaen.
Mere bashfulness, without merit, is awkwardness.

Apnigon.
Modesty is a proper distrust of ourselves ; difflence is a culpable distrust. Modesty, though opposed to assurance, is not incompatible with a contidence in ourselves; diffidence altogether unmans a person, and disqualifies him for his duty: a person is generally modest in the display

## MODESTY

of his talents to others; but a dififident man cannot turn his talents to his own use.

A man truly modest is as much so when he ia alone as in company.

Budoell.
Difflenee and presumption both arise from the want of knowing, or rather endeavoring to know ourselves.

Steele.

## MODESTY, MODERATION, TEMPERANCE, SOBRIETY.

MODESTY, in French modestie, Latin modestia, and MODERATION, in Latin moderatio and moderor, both come from modus, a measure, limit, or boundary; that is, forming a measure or rule. TEMPERANCE, in Latin temperantia, from tempus, time, signifies fixing a time ( $v$. Abstinent). SOBRIETY, $v$. Abstinent.

Modesty lies in the mind, and in the tone of feeling; moderation respects the desires : modesty is a principle that acts discretionally; moderation is a rule or line that acts as a restraint on the views and the outward conduct: he who thinks modestly of his own acquirements, his own performances, and his own merits, will be moderate in his expectations of praise, reward, and recompeuse; he, on the other hand, who overrates his own abilities and qualifications, will equally overrate the use he makes of them, and consequently be immoderate in the price which he sets upon his services: in such cases, therefore, modesty and moderation are to each other as cause and effect; but there may be modesty without moderation, and moderation without modesty. Modesty is a sentiment confined to one's self as the object, and consisting solely of one's judgment of what one is and what one does; but moderation, as is evident from the ahove, extends to objects that are external of ourselves: modesty, rather than moderation, belongs to an author; moderation, rather than modesty, belongs to a tradesman, or a man who has gains to make and purposes to answer.

I may modestly conclude that whatever errors there may be in this play, there are not those which have been objected to it.

Dryden.
Equally inur'd,
By moderation, either state to bear, Prosperons or adverse.

Mintos.
Modesty shields a man from mortifications and disappointments, which assail
the self-conceited man in every direction: a modest man conciliates the esteem even of an enemy and a rival. Moderation protects a man equally from injustice on the one hand, and imposition on the other: he who is moderate himself makes others so.
There's prond modesty in merit! Dhedes.
Few harangues from the pulpit, except in the days of your league in France, or in the days of our solemn league and covenant in England, have ever breathed less of the spirit of moderation than thia lecture in the Old Jewry. Burke.

Moderation is the measure of one's desires, one's habits, one's actions, and one's words ; temperance is the adaptation of the time or season for particular feelings, actions, or words : a man is said to be moderate in his principles who adopts the medium or middle course of thinking; it rather qualifies the thing than the person : he is said to be temperate in his anger, if he do not suffer $i t$ to break out into any excesses; temperance characterizes the person rather than the thing. A moderate man in politics endeavors to steer clear of all party spirit, and is consequently so temperate in his language as to provoke no animosity. Moderation in the enjoyment of everything is essential in order to obtain the purest pleasure: temperance in one's indulgences is always attended with the happiest effects to the constitution; as, on the contrary, any deviation from temperance, even in a single instance, is always punished with bodily pain and sickness.
These are the tenets which the moderatist of the Romanists will not venture to affirm.

Smaleddee.
She's not forward, but modest as the dove;
She's not hot, but temperate as the morn.
ShaEgreart.
Temperance and sobriety have already been considered in their proper application ( $v$. Abstinent), which will serve to illustrate their improper application. Temperance is an action; it is the tempering of our words and actions to the circumstances: sobriety is a state in which one is exempt from every stimulus to deviate from the right course; as a man who is intosicated with wine runs into excesses, and loses thst power of guiding himself which he has when he is sober or free from all intoxication, so is he who is in-
toricated with say psssion, in like manner, hurried sway into irregularities which a man in his right senses will not be guilty of : sobriety is, therefore, the state of being in one's right or sober senses; and sobriety is, with regard to temperance, as a cause to the effect; sobriety of mind will not only produce moderation and temperance, but extend its influence to the whole conduct of a msn in every relstlon and circumstance, to his internal sentiments and his external behavior: hence we spesk of sobriety in one's mien or deportment, sobriety in one dress and manners, sobriety in one's religions opinions and observances.

Tomperate mirth is not extingaished by oid age.

Blair.
Another, who had a great genius for tregedy, following the fury of his netural temper, mede every man end woman in his plays stark raging med, there was not a sober person to be had.

Dhyden.
Sober may also be applied figurstively,
Spread thy close curtains, love-performing night, Thon sober-suited matron, ali in black.

Sharspeare.

## MOISTURE, HUMIDITY, DAMPNEBS.

MOISTURE, from the French moite, moist, is probsbly contraoted from the Latin humidus, from which HUMIDITY is immedistely derived. DAMPNESS comes from the same root as the German dampf, s vapor.

Moisture is used in general to express any small degree of infusion of a liquid into a body; humidity is employed scientifically to describe the state of having any portion of such liquid: hence we speak of the moisture of a table, the moisture of paper, or the moisture of a floor that has been wetted; but of the humidity of the air, or of a wall that has contracted moisture of itself. Dampness is that species of moisture thst arises from the gradual contraction of a liquid in bodies espable of retaining it; in this manner a cellar is damp, or linen thst has lsin long by may become damp.

The plumy people streak their wings with oil, To throw the lucid moisture trickling off.

Thomson.
It enables the animal to keep the principal part of the anrface of the eye under cover, and to precerve it in a due state of humidity.

P4दूध.

## Now from the town

Buried in smoke, end sleep, and noisome dampa Oft let me wander.

THOMSON.

## MONEY, CASE.

MONEY comes from the Latin moneta, which signified stamped coin, from moneo, to advise, to inform of its value, by means of an inscription or stamp. CASH, from the French caisee, a chest, signifies that which is put in $s$ chest.

Money is applied to everything which serves as a circulating medium; cash is, in a strict sense, put for coin only: benknotes sre money; guineas and shillinge are cash; all cash is therefore money, but all money is not cash. The only money the Chinese have are square bits of metal, with a hole through the centre, hy which they are strung upon a string : travellers on the Continent must slwsys be provided with letters of credit, which may be turned into cash, as convenience requires.

Little saccess is llke to be found in managing a dispute against covetousness, which sways and carries all before it in the strength of that queen regent of the world, money.

SPECTATOR.
At the new Exchange they are eloquent for want of oash, bnt in the City they ouglat with oash to supply the want of eloqnence.

Speotatom.

## MONUMEENT, MEMORIAL, REMEMBRANCER.

MONUMENT, in Latin monumentum or monimentum, from moneo, to advise or remind, signifies that which puts us in mind of something. MEMORLAL, from memory, signifies the thing that helps the memory; and REMEMBRANCER, from remember ( $v$. Memory), the thing that causes to remember.

From the above it is clear that these terms bsve, in their original derivation, precisely the same signification, and dif fer in their collateral acceptstions: monument is applied to that which is purposely set up to keep a thing in mind; memorials and remembrancers are sny things which are calculated to call a thing to mind: a monument is used to preserve a public object of notice from being forgotten; a memorial serves to keep an individusl in mind: the monu. ment is commonly understood to be a species of building; ss a tomb which
preserves the memory of the desd, or a pillsr which preserves the memory of some public event: the memorial slways consists of something which was the property, or in the possession, of another; as his picture, his handwriting, hls hair, and the like. The Monument at London was built to commemorate the dresdful fire of the city in the yesr 1666: friends who are at a distance are happy to have some token of each other's regard, which they likewise keep as a memorial ef their former intercourse.

On your father's old monument Hang mournful epitaphs.

Shakspeare.
The monument, in its proper sense, is siways made of wood or stone for some specific purpose; but, in the improper sense, anything nay be termed a monument when it serves the purpose of reminding the public of any circumstance: thus, the pyramids are monuments of antiquity; the sctions of a good prince are more lasting monuments tban either brass or marble. Memorials are mostly of a private nature, and at the same time such as remind us naturally of the object to which they have belonged; this object is generaliy some person.
Any nemorial of your good-mature and friendship is most welcome to me.

Pope.
If (in the Isle of Skye) the remembrance of papal superstition is obriterated, the monuments of papal piety are likewise effaced. Jonsson.
But it may likewise refer to some thing, if it be of a personal nature, or that by which persons are individually effected: our Saviour instituted the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper as'a memorial of his death.

> All churches have had their names, some as memorials of peace, some of wisdom, some in memory of the Trinity itself, some of Christ under sundry titles.
> Hooren.

A monument and memorial is said of that which concerns numbers: the remembrancer is said of that which directly concerns a man's self; the memorial calls another person to one's mind, the remembrancer calls that to a man's own mind in which he is personally interested : « gift is the best memorial we can give of ourselves to another; a sermon is often a good remembrancer of the duties which we bave neglected to perform.

Medisls are so many monumente consigned over to eternity, that may last when all other memorials of the same age are worn out or lost.

Addison.
When God is forgoten, his judgmeuts are his remembrancers.

COWPER.

## MOTION, MOVEMENT.

Teesz are both sbstract terms to denote the sct of moving, but MOTION is taken generally and abstractedly from the thing that moves; MOVEMENT, on the other hand, is taken in connection with the agent or thing that moves: hence we speak of a state of motion as opposed to a state of rest, of perpotual motion, the lsws of motion, and the like; on the other hand, we say, to make a movement when speaking of sin sriny, a general movement when speaking of an assembly.

It is not easy to a mind accustomed to the Inroads of troublesome thonghts to expel them immediately by putting better images into motion.

> Johnson.

Nature I thouglit perform'd too mean a part,
Forming her movements to the rules of art.

## Pribr.

When motion is qualified by the thing that moves, it denotes continued motion; but movement implies only a particular motion: hence we say, the motion of the hesvenly bodies ; the motion of the earth; a person is in continual motion, or an army is in motion; but a person makes a movement who rises or sits down, or goes from one chsir to another; the different movements of the springs and wheels of any instrument.

At this rate of travelling, it would go round the earth's orbit in less than a week, which makes, I think, considerably more than sixty millions of miles in a day; a motion that vastly surpasses all human eomprehension. Bridone.
The women, terrified by these movements, run tumultuously from their houses to the temples.

Hoor.
MOURNFUL, SAD.
MOURNFUL signifies full of what causes mourning; SAD (v. Dull) signifies either a painful sentiment, or what causes this painful sentiment. The difference in the sentiment is what constitutes the difference between these epithets: the mournful awakens tender and sympathetic feelings: the sad oppresses the spirits, and makes one hesvy at heart; a mournful tale contains an account of
others² distresses; a sad story contains an aocount of one's own distress; a mournfrel event befalls our friends and relatives; a sad misfortune befalls ourselves. Selfish people find nothing mournful, but many things sad: tender-hearted people are always affected by what is mournful, and are less troubled about what is sad.
Narcissa follows ere his tomb is closed,
Her death iavades his mournful right, and claims
The grief that started from my lids for him.
Youna.
How $s a d$ a aight is human happiness
To those whose thoughts can pierce beyond an hour !

Youno.

## MOVLNG, AFFECTING, PATHETIC.

The MOVING is in geoeral whatever moves the affections or the passions; the AFFECTING and PATHETIC are what move the affections in different degrees. The good or bad feelings may be moved; the tender feelings only are affected. A field of battle is a moving spectacle: the death of a friend is an affecting spectacle. The affecting acts by means of the senses as well as the understanding; the pathetic applies only to what is addressed to the heart : heuce, a sight or a description is affecting; but an address is pathetic.
There is something so moving in the very image of weeping beauty.

Steele.
I do not remember to have seen any ancient or modern story more affecting than a letter of Ann of Bouleyae.

ADDISON.
What think you of the bard's enchanting art, Which, whether he attempts to warm the heart With fabled scenes, or charm the car with rhyme, Breathes all pathetic, lovely, and sublime? Jentina.

## MULTITUDE, GROWD, THRONG, SWARM.

The idea of many is common to all these tcrms, and peculiar to that of MULTITUDE, from the Latin maltus; CROWD, from the verb to crowd, signifies the many that crowd together; and THRONG, like the German drängen, to press, signifies the many that press together; and SWARM, like the German schwärmen, to fly about, signifies runaing together in numbers. These terms vary, either in regard to the object or the circumstance : multitude is applicable to any object; crowd, throng, and swarm are in the proper sense applicable only to animate objects: the two first in regard to persons; the lattor to animals in general,
but particularly brutes. A multitude may be either in a stagnant or a moving state; all the rest denote a multitude in a moving state: a crowd is always pressing, geaerally eager and tumultuous; a throng may be busy and active, but not always pressing or incommodious: it is always inconvenient, sometimes dangerous, to go into a crowd; it is amusing to see the throng that is perpetually passing in the streets of the city: the swarm is more active than either of the two others; it is commonly applied to bees which fly together in uumbers, but sometimes to humau beings, to denote their very great numbers when scattered about; thus the children of the poor in low neighborhoods swarm in the streets. A multitude is incapable of framing orders.

Temple.
The crowod shall Cxsar's Indian war behold.
Dexden.
I shone amid the heav'uly throng. Mason.
Numberless oations, stretching far and wide,
Shall (I foresee it) soon, with Gothic swarms, come forth,
From ignorance's universal North. Swifr.

## to mutilate, maim, mangle.

MUTILATE, in Latid mutilatus, from mutilo aad mutilus, Greek $\mu v \sigma_{\imath} \lambda o s$, without horns, signifies to take off any necessary part. MAIM and MANGLE are connected with the Latin manus, which comes from manus, signifying to deprive of a band or to wound in general.

Mutilate has the most extended meaning; it implies the abridging of any limb: mangle is applied to irregular wounds in any part of the body: maim is coufined to wounds in the limbs, particularly the hands. Men are exposed to be mutilated by means of cannon-balls; they are in danger of being mangled when attacked promiscuously with the sword; they frequently get maimed when boarding vessels or storming places.

When a man is in danger of the mutilation of an arm, a leg, and the like, it is lavful to prevent the loss of either by the death of the assailsnt. South.
By the ancient law of England, he that maimed aay man whereby he lost any part of his body, was sentenced to lose the like part.

Blacketone.
What have they (the French nobility) done that they should be hunted abont, mangled, and tortured?

Busher

## NAME

Mutilate and mangle are applicable to moral objects; maim is employed in the natural or figurative sense. In this case mangle is a much stronger term than mutilate; the latter signifies to lop off an essential part; to mangle is to mutilate a thing to such a degree as to render it useless or worthless. Every sect of Christians is fond of mutilating the Bible by setting aslde such parts as do not favor its own scheme; and among them all the sacred Scriptures become liteially mangled, and stripped of all Its most important doctrines.
How Hales would have borne the mutilations which his Plea of the Crown has suffered from the editor, they who know his character will easily conceive.

JOHNSON.
I have shown the evil of maiming and splitting religion.

Blatr.

## MUTUAL, RECIPROCAL.

MUTUAL, in Latin mutuus, from muto, to change, signifies exchanged so as to be equal, or the same, on both sides. RECIPROCAL, in Latin recipraczs, from recipio, to take back, signifies giving backward and forward by way of return. Mutual supposes a sameness in condition at the same time: reciprocal supposes an alternation or succession of returns. Exchange is free and voluntary; we give in exchange, and this action is mutual: return is made either according to law or equity ; it is obligatory, and when equally obligatory on each in turn it is reciprocal. Voluntary disinterested services rendered to each other are mutual: imposed or merited services, returned from one to the other, are reciprocal: friends render one another mutual services; the services between servants and masters are reciprocal. The husband and wife pledge their faith to each other mutually; they are reciprocally bound to keep their vow of fidelity. The sentiment is mutu$a l$, the tie is reciprocal.
rauits in the life breed errors in the brain, And these, reciprocally, those again The mind and conduct mutualiy imprint, And stamp their image in each other's mint.

## Cowper.

Mutual applies mostly to matters of will and opinion: a mutzal affection, a mutual inclination to oblige, a mutual interest for each other's comfort, a mutual concern to aroid that which will displease
the other - these are the sentiments which render the marriage state happy: reciprocal ties, reciprocal bonds, reciprocal rights, reciproal duties-these are what every one ought to bear in mind as a member of society, that he may expect of no man more than what in equity he is disposed to return.
The soul and spirit that animates and bsoeps up society is mutrual trust.

South.
Life cannot subsist in society but by reciprocal concessions.

Johnsor.
Mutual applies to nothing but what is personal; reciprocal is applied to things remote from the idea of personality, as reciprocal verbs, reciprocal terms, reciprocal relations, and the like.

## MYSTERIOUS, MYSTIC.

MYSTERIOUS ( $v$. Dark) and MYS TIC are but variations of the same orig. inal ; the former, however, is more commonly applied to that which is supernat. ural, or veiled in an impenetrable obscu. rity; the latter to that which is natural, but concealed by an artificial or fantastical veil; hence we speak of the mysterious plans of Providence: mystic schemes of theology, or mystic principles,

As soon as that mysterious veil, whicn now covers futurity, was (should be) ifted np, all the gayety of life would disappear. Brals. And ye five other wand'ring fires, that move In mystic dance not without song, Resound his praise.

Miluton

## N.

## TO NAME, CALI.

NAME, which comes, througt the medium of the Northern languages, from the Hebrew nam, is properly to pronounce a word, but is now employed for distinguishing or addressing one by name. To CALL (v. To call) signifies properly to address one loudly, consequently we may name without calling, when we only mention a name in conversation; and we may call without naming.
Some hanghty Greek, who lives thy tears to see, Embitters all thy woes, by naming me. Pope.
And oft the nightly necromancer boasts,
With these to call from tombs the stalking ghosts.

Dryder

The terms may, however, be employed In the sense of assigning a name. In this case a person is named by his name, whether proper, patronymic, or whatever is usual; he is salled according to the characteristics by which he is distinguished. The Emperor Tiberius was named Tiberius; he was called a monster. William the First of England is named William; be is called the Conqueror.

I lay the deep foundations of a wall, And $\mathbb{N} \mathrm{nos}, n a m$ 'd from me, the city call.

DRYDEN.
I'll call thee Hamlet,
King, father, royal Dane; oh answer me.
Shaikpeare.
NAME, APPELLATION, TITLE, DENOMINATION.
NAME, v. To name. APPELLATION, in French appellation, Latin appellatio, from appello, to call, signifies that by which a person is called. TITLE, in French titre, Latin titulus, from the Greek $\tau \omega$, to honor, siguifes that appellation which is assigned to any one for the purpose of honor. DENOMINATION signifies that which denominates or distinguishes.
Name is a generic term, the rest are specific. Whatever word is employed to distinguish one thing from another is a name; therefore, an appellation and a $t i$ the is a name, but not vice versa. A name is eitber common or proper; an appellation is generally a common name given for some specific purpose as characteristic. Several kings of France had the names of Charles, Lovis, Philip; but one was distinguished by the appellation of Stammerer, another by that of the Simple, and a third by that of the Hardy, arising from particular characters or circumstances. A title is a species of $a p$ pellation, not drawn from anything personal, but conferred as a ground of political distinction. An appellation may be often a term of reproach; but a title is always a mark of honor. An appellation is given to all objects, animate or inanimate ; a title is given mostly to persons, sometimes to things. A particular house may have the appellation of "the Cottage," or "the Hall," as a particular person may have the title of Duke, Lord, or Marquis.

Then on your name shall wretched mortals call And offer'd victims at your altars fall. Deiden.
The names derived from the profession of the ministry, in the language of the present age, are made but the appeliatives of scorn. Souti.
We generally find in tittes an intimation of some particular merit that should recommend men to the high atationa which they possess.

Addison.
Denomination is to particular bodies, what appellation is to an individual; namely, a term of distinction, drawn from their peculiar characters and circumstances. The Christian world is split into a number of different hodies or communities, under the denominations of Catholics, Protestants, Calvinists, Presbyterians, etc., which have their origin in the peculiar form of faith and discipline adopted by these hodies.
It has cost me much care and thonght to marshal and fix the people noder their proper denominations.

Anilson.
TO NAME, DENOMINATE, STYLE, ENTITLE, DESIGNATE, CHARACTERIZE.
To NAME (v. To name, call) signifies simply to give a name to, or to address or specify by the given name; to DENOMINATE is to give a specific name upon specific ground, to distinguish by the name; to STYLE, from the noun style or mamner (v. Diction, style), signifies to address by a specific name; to ENTITLE is to give the specific or appropriate title. Adam named everythîng; we denominate the man who drinks excessively, "a drunkard;" subjects style their monarch " His Majesty;" books are entitled according to the judgment of the author.

I could name some of our acquaintance who have been obliged to travel as far as Alexandria in pursuit of money.

Melmoth's Letters of Cleero
A fable in tragic or epic poetry is denominar ted aimple, when the events it contains follow each other in an mobroken tenor. Wartox.

Happy those times
When ords were styl'd fathers of families.
Sharspeare.
To name, denominate, style, and entitle, are the acts of conscious agents only. To DESIGNATE, signifying to marl out, and CHARACTERIZE, signifying to form a characteristic, are said only of things, and agree with the former only inasmuch as words may either derignath

## NAME

or characterize: thus the word "capacity" is said to designate the power of holding; and "finesae" characterizes the people by whom it was adopted.

> This is a plain designation of tha Duke of Marlborough. One kind of stuff used to fatten land is called marl, and every one knows that borough is the nama of a town. Thara are faces not only individual, but genSilitious and national, as European, Asiatic, Afican, and Grecian faces, which are characterand. Anbutanot.

## NAME, REPUTATION, REPUTE, CREDIT.

NAME is bere taken in the improper sense for a name acquired in public by any peculiarity or quality in an object. REPUTATION and REPUTE, from reputo, or $r e$ and puto, to think back, or in reference to some immediate object, aignifies the thinking of or the atate of being thought of by the publie, or held in public estimation. CREDIT ( $v$. Credit) aignifies the atate of being believed or trusted in general.
Name implies something more specific than the reputation; and reputation something more subatantial than name; a name may be acquired by aome casualty or by some quality that bas more show than worth; reputation is aequired only by time, and built only on merit : a name may be arbitrarily given, simply by way of diatinction; reputation is not given, but acquired, or follows as a consequence of one's honorable exertions. A phyaician gometimes gets a name by a aingle instance of professional skill, which by a combination of favorable circumstaness be may convert to his own advantage in forming an extensive practice; but unlesa he have a commensurate degree of talent, this name will never ripen into a solid reputation.
Who fears not to do ill, yet faars the name, And free from conscience, is a slave to fame.

DENEAM.
Splendor of reputcation is not to be counted smong the necessaries of life.

JoHnson.
Name and reputation are of a more oxtended nature than repute and credit. The name and reputation are given by the public at large; the repute and credit are acquired within a narow circle. Strangers and distant countriea hear of the name and the roputation of angthing; but
only neighbora and those who have the means of personal observation can take a part in ita repute and credit. It is posaible, therefore, to have a name and rep. utation without having repute and credit, and vice versa, for the objecta which constitute the former are sometimes differ. ent from those which produce the latter. A manufacturer has a name for the ex cellence of a particular article of his own manufacture; a book has a name among witlinge and pretenders to litera ture: a good writer, however, seeks te establiah his reputation for genius, learn. ing, industry, or aome praiseworthy characteristic: a preacher is in high repute among those who attend him: a master gains great credit from the good performances of his scholars. There ia also this distinction between reputation and repute, that reputation signifies the act of reputing or the state of being reputed, repude signifies only the atate of being reputed.
What men of nama resort to him. Sharspeare.
The slow sale and tardy reputation of thie book (Paradisa Lost) have always been mentioned as evidences of naglected merit. Jonsson.
Mutton has likewise been in great reputg among our vallant countryman. ADDison.
Would you trua happiness attain,
Lat honesty your passions rein;
So jiva in credit and esteem,
And the good nama you lost, redeam. Gax.
Name and repute are taken either in a good or bad sense; reputation mostly, and credit alwaya, is taken in the good sense only: a person or thing may get a good or an ill name; a person or thing may be in good or ill repute; reputation may rise to different degrees of height, or it may sink again into nothing ; credit may likewise be high or low, but both reputation and credit, absolutely taken imply that which is good.
The king's army was the last encmy the West had been acquainted with, and had left no good nama behind them.

Clarendon.
Who can imapine that it should grow into such reputa of a suddel. Waterland on the Creed.
The first degree of literary reputation is certainly due to him who adorns or improves his country by original writings.

Johnson.
His name, together with the intrinsic worth and value of the form itself, gave it crodit enough to be received in France as an orthodox Formnlary, or System of Faith, about the middle of the sixth century.

Watergand.

## NATAL, NATIVE, INDIGENOUS.

NATAL, in Latin natalis, from natus, signifies belonging to one's birth, or the act of one's being horn; but NATIVE, in Latin nativus, likewise from natus, sig. nifies having the origin or beginning. INDIGENOUS, in Latin indigena, from inde and genitus, signifies sprung from that place.

The epithet natal is applied only to the circumstance of a man's birth, as his natal day; his natal hour ; a natal song; a natal star. Native has a more extensive meaning, as it comprehends the idea of one's relationship by origin to an object; as one's native country, one's native soil, native village, or native place, native language, and the like.

Safe in the hand of one disposing pow'r, Or in the natal, or the mortal hour.

Pope.
Nor can the grov'lling mind In the dark dungeon of the limbs confin'd, Assert the native skies or own its heav'nly kind. Deynen.

Indigenous is a particular term used to denote the country where races of men are supposed to have first existed.
Negroes were all originally transported from
Africa, and not indigenous or proper natives of
America.
Brown.
It is also applied to plants in the same sense.

The other indigenous productions of this class are plantains, capavi, and sweet-potatoes.

Edwards.

## NATIVE, NATURAL.

NATIVE (v. Natal) is to NATURAL as a species to the genus: everything native is, according to its strict signification, natural; but many things are natural which are not native. Of a person we may say that his worth is native, to designate that it is some valuable property which is born with him, not foreign to him, or ingrafted upon his character; but we say of his disposition, that it is ratural, as opposed to that which is zequired or otherwise. The former is mostly employed in a good sense, in opposition to what is artful, assumed, and unreal; the other is used in an indifferent sense, as opposed to whatever is the effect of hahit or circumstances. When children display themselves with all their rative simplicity, they are interesting ob.
jects of notice: when they display their natural turn of mind, it is not always that which tends to raise human nature in our esteem.

## Mnsic awakes <br> The native voice of undissembled joy.

Thomsen
He bad a good natural understanding.
Whitaker

## naturally, in COURSE, CONSRQUENTLY, OF COURSE.

The connection between events, actions, and things is expressed by all these terms. NATURALLY signifies according to the nature of things, and applies therefore to the connection which subsists between events according to the original constitution or inherent properties of things: IN COURSE signifies in the course of things, that is, in the regular order that things ought to follow: CONSEQUENTLY signifies by a consequence, that is, by a necessary law of dependence, which makes one thing follow another: OF COURSE signifies on account of the course which things most commonly or even necessarily take. Whatever happens naturally, happens as it should do; whatever happens in course, happens as we approve of it: whatever follows consequently, follows as we judge it right ; whatever follows of course, follows as we expect it. Children naturally imitate their parents: people naturally fall into the habits of those they associate with: both these circumstances result from the nature of things: whoever is made a peer of the realm, takes his seat in the upper house in course; he requires no other qualification to entitle him to this privilege, he goes thither according to the established course of things; consequently, as a peer, he is admitted without question; this is a decision of the judgment by which the question is at once determined: of course none are admitted who are not peers; this flows necessarily out of the constitated law of the land.

Egotists are generally the vain and suallow part of mankind; people being naturally full of themsclves when they hava nothing else in them.

AdDIson.
The forty-saventh proposition of the flrst book of Enclid is tha fonndation of trigonometry, and oonseguently of mevigation,

Bartiett.

## NECESSITY

What do trust and confldence signify in a matter of course and formality? Stilhingrleets.

Our Lord foresaw that all the Mosaic orders would cease in course upon his death.

Beveridge.

## NECESSARY, EXPEDIENT, ESSENTIAL, REQUISITE.

NECESSARY (v. Necessity), from the Latin necesse and ne cedo, signifies not to je departed from. EXPEDIENT signifies belonging to, or forming a part of, expedition or despatch: ESSENTIAL, containing that essence or property which cannot be omitted. REQUISITE sigoifies literally required ( $v$. To demand).

Necessary is a general and indefinite term; things may be necessary in the course of nature; it is necessary for all men once to die; or they may be necessary according to the circumstances of the case, or our views of necessity; in this manner we coneeive it necessary to call upon another. Expedient, essential, and requisite are modes of relative necessity: the expedience of a thing is a matter of diseretion and calculation, and therefore not so self-evidently necessary as many things which we so denominate: it may be expedient for a person to consult another, or it may not, according as circumstances may preseut themselves. The requisite and the essential are more obviously necessary than the expedient; but the former is less so than the latter: what is requisite may he requisite only in part or entirely; it may be requisite to complete a thing when begun, but not to hegin it; the essential, on the contrary, is that which constitutes the essence, and without which a thing cannot exist. It is requisite for one who will have a good library to select only the best anthors; exercise is essential for the preservation of good bealth. In all matters of dispute it is expedient to be guided by some impartial judge; it is requisite for every member of the community to contribute his share to the public expenditure as far as he is able: it is essential to a teacber, particularly a spiritual teacher, to know more than those he teaches.

[^90]some settled scheme of duties, be rescued from the tyranny of caprice.

Jonnson.
The English do not consider their Church os. tablishment as convenient, but as eseential to their State.

BUREE
It is not enough to say that faith and piety, joined with active virtue, constitate the requisits preparation for heaven : they in truth begin the edjoyment of hcaven.

Blalr.

## NECESSITIES, NECESSARIES,

NECESSITY, in Latin necessitas, and NECESSARY, in Latin necessarius, from necesse, or ne and cedo, signify not to be yielded or given up. Necessity is the mode or state of circumstances, or the thing which circumstances render uecessary; the necessary is that which is absolutely and unconditionally necessary. Art has ever heen busy in inventing things to supply the various necessities of our nature, and yet there are always numbers who want even the first necessaries of life. Habit and desirc create uccessities; nature only requires necessaries: a voluptuary has neccasities which are unknown to a temperate man; the poor have in general little more than necessaries.

Those whose condition has always restrained them to the contemplation of their own necessities will scarcely understand why nights and days should be spent in study.

Johnson.
To make a man happy, virtue must be accompanied with at least a moderate provisiod of all the necessaries of life, and not disturbed by bodily pains.

Budgell.

## NECESSITY, NEED.

NECESSITY, v. Necessary. NEED, in Saxon nead, neod, Icelandish nöd, German noth, is probably connected witb near, and the German genau, exact, close, as also the Greek $a \nu a \gamma \kappa \eta$, which denotes contraction.

Necessity respects the thing wanted; need the condition of the person wanting. There would be no necessity for punishments, if there were not evil-doers; he is peculiarly fortunate who finds a friead in time of need. Necessity is more pressing than need: the former places in a positive state of compulsion to act; it is said to have no law, it prescribes the law for itself; the latter yields to circumstances, and leaves in a state of deprivation. We are frequently under the necessity of going without that of which we stand most in need.
Where necessity ends, curiosity begins.
Johnsom

One of the many advantages of friendship, is that one can ssy to one's friend the things that stand in need of pardon.

Pope.
From these two nouns arise two epithets for each, which are worthy of observation, namely, necessary and needful, necessitous and needy. Negessary and needful are both applicable to the thing wanted; necessitous and needy to the person wanting: NECESSARY is applied to every object indiscriminately; NEEDFUL only to such objects as supply temporary or partial wants. Exercise is necessary to preserve the health of the body; restraint is necessary to preserve that of the mind; assistance is needful for one who has not sufficient resources in himself: it is necessary to go by water to the Continent: money is needful for one who is travelling. The dissemination of knowledge is necessary to dispel the ignorance which would otherwise prevail in the world; it is needful for a young person to attend to the instructions of his teacher, if he will improve.

It seems to me most strange that men should fear, Seeing that death, a necessary end,
Will come, when it will come. Shasspeare.
Time, long expected, eas'd us of our load,
And brought the needful presence of a god.
Drtden.
Necessitous and needy are both applied to persons in want of something inportant; but necessitous may be employed to denote an occasional want, as to be in a necessitous condition in a foreign country for want of remittances from home; needy denotes a permanent state of want, as to be needy either from extravagance or misfortune.

Steele's imprudence of generosity, or vanity of profusion, kept him always incurably necessitous.

Johnson,
Charity is the work of Heaven, which is always laying itself out on the needy and the impotent. Soute.

## TO NEGLECT, OMIT.

NEGLECT, v. To disregard. OMIT, in Latin omitto, or ob aud mitto, signifies to put aside.

The idea of letting pass or slip, or of not using, is comprehended in the signification of both these terms; the former is, however, a culpable, the latter an indifferent, action. What we neglect ought not to he neglected: but what we omit may
by omitted or otherwise, as convenlence requires.
It is the great excellence of learning, that it borrows very little from time or place; bnt this quality which constitutes much of its value is one occasion of neglect. What may be done at all times with equal propriety is deferred from day to day, till the mind is gradually reconciled to the omission.

Johnson.
These terms differ likewise in the ohjects to which they are applied; that is neglected which is practicable or serves for action; that is omitted which serves for intellectual purposes: we neglect an opportunity, we neglect the means, the time, the use, and the like; we omit a word, a sentence, a figure, a stroke, a circumastance, and the like.

In heaven,
Where honor due, and reverence none neglect.
Milton.
These personal comparisons I omit, because I would say nothing that may savor of flattery.

Bacon.
NEGLIGENT, REMISS, CARELESS, THOUGHTLESS, HEEDLESS, INATTENTIVE.
NEGLIGENCE ( $v$. To disregard) and REMISSNESS respect the outward action: CARELESS, HEEDLESS, THOUGHTLESS, and INATTENTIVE respect the state of the mind.

Negligence and remissness consist in not doing what ought to be done ; carelessness and the other mental defects may show themselves in doing wrong, as well as in not doing at all; negligence and remissness are, therefore, to carelessness and the others, as the effect to the cause; for no one is so apt to be negligent and remiss as he who is careless, although at the same time negligence and remissuess arise from other causes, and carelessness, thoughtlessness, etc., produce likewise other effects. Negligent is a stronger term than remiss: one is negligent in neglecting the thing that is expressly before one's eyes; one is remiss in forgetting that which was enjoined some time previously: the want of will renders a person negligent; the want of interest renders a person remiss: one is negligent in regard to business, and the performance of bodily labor; one is remiss in duty, or in such things as respect mental exertion. Servants are commonly negligent in what concerns their master'g
intereat; teachers are remiss in not correcting the faulta of their pupils. Negligence is therefore the fault of persons of all descriptions, bat particularly those in low cundition; remissness is a fault peculiar to those in a more elevated station: a clerk in an office is negligent in not making proper memorandums; a magistrate, or the head of an iustitution, is remiss in the exercise of his authority to check irregularities.

The two classes most apt to be negligent of this duty (religious retirement) are the men of pleasure and the men of buainess. Blair. My gen'rous brother is of gentle kind, He seema remise, but bears a valiant mind.

Pope.
Careless denotea the want of care ( $v$. Care) in the manner of doing things; thoughtless denotes the want of thought or reflection about thinga; heedless denotes the want of heeding (v. To attend) or regarding things; inattentive denotes the want of attention to things $(v$. To at tend to). One is careless ouly in trivial matters of behavior; one is thoughtless in matters of greater moment, in what respecta the conduct. Carelessness leads children to make mistakes in their mechanical exercises, in whatever they commit to memory or to paper; thoughtlessness leads many who are not children into aerious errors of conduct, when they do not think of, or bear in mind, the consequences of their actions. Thoughtless is applied to things past, preaent, or to come; careless to things present or to come.
If the parts of time were not variously colored, we should never discern their departure and auccession, bat should live thoughthess of the past, and careless of the future.

Johnson.
Careless is applied to such things as require permanent care; thoughtless to auch as require permanent thought; heedlass and inattentive are applied to passing objecta that engage the senses or the thoughts of the moment. One is careless in business, thoughtless in conduct, heedless in walking or running, inattentive in listening: heedless children are unfit to go by themselves; inattentive children are unfit to be led by others.
There in the ruin, heedless of the dead, The flelter-seeking peasant builds his shed.

Gondsmith.

In the midst of his glory the Almighty is not inattentive to the meanest of hia subjects.

Biair.

## TO NEGOTIATE, TREAT FOR OR about, transact.

The idea of conducting business with othera is included in the signification of all these terms; but they differ in the mode of conducting it, and the nature of the business to be conducted. NEGOTIATE, in the Latin negotiatus, participle of negotior, from negotium, is applied in the original mostly to merchandise or traffic, but it ia more commonly employed in the complicated concerns of govermments and nations. TREAT, from the Latin tracto, frequentative of traho, to draw, signifies to turn over and over or set forth in all ways: these two verbs, therefore, suppose deliberation; but TRANSACT, from transactus, participle of transago, to carry forward or bring to an end, supposes more direct agency than consultation or deliberation ; this latter is therefore adapted to the more ordinary and less entangled concerns of commerce. A congress carries on negotiations for the establishment of good order among different states; individual states treat with each other, to settle their particular differences. To negotiate mostly respects political concerns, except in the case of negotiating bills: to treat, as well as transact, is said of domestic and private concerns: we treat with a person about the purchase of a house; and transact our buainess with him by making good the purchase and paying down the money.

That weighty pusiness to negotiats They must find one of special weight and trust.

Diayton.
To treat the peace a hundred senators
Shall be commiasioned.
Diyden.
It cannot be expected that they shonid mens tion particulars which were transacted among some few of the disciples only, as the transfiguration and the agony.

ADDISON.
As noune, negotiation expresses rather the act of deliberating than the thing deliberated: treaty includes the ideas of the terms proposed, and the arrangement of those terms: transaction expresses the idea of something actually done and finished. Negotiations are sometimes very long pending before the preliminary terms are even proposed, or any basis
is defined; traties of commerce are entered into by all civilized countries, in order to obviate misunderstandings, and enable them to preserve an amicable interconrse ; the transactions which daily pass in a great metropolis, like that of London, are of so multifarious a nature, and so infinitely numerons, that the bare oontemplation of them fills the mind with astonishment. Negotiations are long or short ; treaties are adrantageous or the contrary; transactions are honorable or dishonorable.

I do not love to mingle speech with any about news or worldly negotiations in God's holy house.

Howell.
You have a great work in hand, for you write to me that you are upon a treaty of marriage.

Howell.
It is not to the purpose of this history to set down the particular transactions of this treaty. Clahendon.

## NEIGHBORHOOD, VICINITY.

NEIGHBORHOOD, from nigh, signifies the place which is nigh, that is, nigh to one's habitation. VICINITY, from vicus, a village, signifies the place which does not exceed in distance the extent of a village.

Neighborhood, which is of Saxon origin, is employed in reference to the inhabitants, or in regard to inhabited places, to denote nearness of persons to each other or to objects in general: but vicinity, which in Latin bears the same acceptation as neighborhood, is employed in English to denote nearness of one object to another, whether person or thing; hence the propriety of saying, a populons neighborhood, a quiet neighborhood, a respectable neighberhood, a pleasant neighborhood, and to be in the neighborhood, either as it respects the people or the country; to live in the vicinity of a manufactory, to be in the vicinity of the metropolis or of the sea.
He feared the dangerous neighborhood of so *owerful, aspiring, and fortunate a prince.

Temple.
The Dutch, by the vicinity of their settlements to the coast of Caraccas, gradually enGrossed the greatest part of the cocoa trade.

Robertson.
NEW, NOVEL, MODERN, FRESH, RECENT.
NEW is in German neu, Latin novus, and Greek veos; NOVEL is more imme-
diately derived from the Latin novus; MODERN, in low Latin modernus, is probably changed from hodiernus, i.e., being of to-day; FRESH, in German frisch, probably from frieren, to freeze, because cold is the predominant idea in its application to the air; RECENT, in Latin recens, from re and candeo, to whiten, i.e., to brighten or make appear like new.

All these epithets are applied to what has not long existed; new expresses this idea simply without any qualification; novel is something strange or unexpected; the modern is the tbing of to-day, as distinguished from that which existed in fore times; the fresh is that which is so new as not to be the worse for use, or that which has not been before used or employed; the recent is that which is so new as to appear as if it were just made or done. Agreeably to this distinction, new is most aptly applied to such things as may be permanent or durable, as new houses, new buildings, new clothes, and the like; in such cases it is properly opposed to the old; the term may, however, be applied generally to whatever arises or comes first into existence or notice, as new scenes, new sights, new sounds.
'Tis on some evening sunny, grateful, mild,
When naught but balm is beaming through the woods,
With yellow lnstre bright, that the new tribes
Visit the spacious heav'ns.
Thomson.
Novel may be applied to whatever is either never or but rarely seen; the freezing of the river Thames is a novel$t y$; but the frost in every winter is something new when it first comes.
As the liturgy, so the ceremonies used and enjoined in the Church of England, were not the private and novel inventions of any late bishops, but they werc of very ancient choice and primitive use in the Church of Christ.

Gadien.
Modern is applied to that which is new, or springs up in the day or age in which we live; as modern books, modern writers, modern science; a book is new which is just formed into a book and has not been used; it is modern at the time when it is first published; so likewise principles are new which have never been broached before; they are modern if they have been published lately, or within a given period: the modern is opposed to the ancient.

## NOISE

Some of the ancient, and likewise divers of the modern writers that have laborad in natural mayic, have noted a sympathy between the sun and certain herba.

Bacon.
Do not all men complain how littla we know, and how much is atill unknown? And can we aver know more unless something new be discovered?

Busnet.
Fresh is said of that which may lose its color, vigor, or other perfection; as a fresh flower, the freshreess of youth, etc.

## Lo! great Eneas rushes to the fight,

Sprung from a god, and more than mortal bold, He fresh in youth, and I in arma grown old.

Dhyden.
So pleasures or passions are fresh which have not lost their power by satiety; they are new if they are but just sprung into activity.
That love which first was set will first decay, Mine of a fresher date will longer sthy. Dayden. Seasons but change new pleasures to produce, And elements contend to serve our use. Jenyna.

Recent is applied to those events or circumstances which have just happened, as a recent transaction, or an occurrence of recent date.

He was far from deflcient in natural underatanding: and, what atrongly marks an ingenuous mind in a state of recent elevation, depressed by a conscionsnesd of his own deficiencies.

Whitakea.

## NEWS, TIDINGS.

NEWS implies anything new that is related or circulated; but TIDINGS, from tide, signifies that which flows in periodically like the tide. News is unexpected; it serves to gratify idle curiosity : tidings are expected ; they serve to allay anxiety. In time of war the public are eager after neens; and they who have relatives in the army are anxious to have tidings of them.

I wonder that in the present situation of affairs you can take pleasure in writing anything but neros.

Spectatoz.
Too soon some demon to my father bore
The tidings that his heart with anguish tore.
Falconet.

## NIGHTLY, NOCTURNAL.

NIGHTLY, immediately from the word night, and NOCTURNAL, from nox, night, signify belonging to the night, or the night zeason; the former is therefore more familiar than the latter: we speak of nightly depredations to express what passes
every night, or nightly disturbances, noa turnal dreams, nocturnal visits.

Yet not alone, while thon
Visit'st my alnmbers nightly, or when morn Purples the east.

Milton.
Or bave the sun his labor, and that awift Nocturnal and diurnal rhomb anppos'd Invisible else above all atars the wheel Of day and night.

Mmion.

## NOBLE, GRAND.

NOBLE, in Latin nobilis, from noseo, to knowv, signifying knowable, or worth knowing, is a term of general import; it simply implies the quality by which a thing is distinguished for excellence above other things: the GRAND ( $v$. Grandeur) is, properly speaking, one of those qualities by which an object acquires the name of noble; but there are many noble objects which are not denominated grand. A building may be denomioated noble for its beauty as well as its size ; but a grand building is rather so called for the expense which is displayed upon it in the style of building. A family may be either noble or grand; but it is noble by birth; it is grand by wealth, and an expensive style of living. Nobleness of acting or thinking comprehends all moral excellence that rises to a high pitch; but grandeur of mind is peculiarly applicable to such actions or traits as denote an elevation of character, rising above all that is common.

## What then worlds

In a far thinner element dnstain'd, And acting the game part with greater akill, More rapid movement, and for noblest ends. Young.
More obvious ends to pass, are not these gtara, The seats majeatic, prond imperial thronea, On which angelic delegates of Heav'n Diacharge high trusts of vengeance or of love, To clothe in outward grandeur grand designs?

Yode.
NOISE, CRY, OUTCRY, CLAMOR.
NOISE is any loud sound; CRY, OUTCRY, and CLAMOR, are particular kinds of noises, differing either in the cause or the nature of the sounds. A noise proceeds either from animate or inanimate objects; the cry proceeds only from animate objects. The report of a cannon, or the loud sounds occasioned by a high wind, are noises, but not cries; cries issue from birds, beasts, and men. A noise is
produced often by aecident; a ory is alwaya occasioned by some particular circumstance: when many horsea and carriages are going together they make a great noise; hunger and pain cause cries to proceed both from animals and buman beings. Noise, when compared with cry, is sometimes only an audible aound; the cry is a very loud noise: whatever disturbs silence, as the falling of a pin in a perfectly still assembly, is denominated a noise; but a cry is that which may often drown other noises, as the cries of people selling things about the streets.

## Nor was his ear less peal'd <br> With noises loud and ruinous. <br> Milton. <br> From either loost, the mingled shouts and cries Of Trojans and Rutilians rend the skies.

Dryden.
A cry is in general a regular sound, but outery and clamor are irregular aonnds; the former may proceed from one or many, the latter from many in conjunction. A cry after a thief becomes an outcry when set up by many at a time; it becomes a clamor, if accompanied with ahouting, bawling, and noises of a mixed and tumultuous nature.

And now great deeds
Had heen achiev'd, whereof all hell had rung, Had not the snaky sorceress, that sat
Fast hy hell gate, and kept the fatal key,
Ris'n, and with hideous outcry rush'd between.
Militon.
Their darts with elamor at a distance drive, And only keep the languish'd war alive.

Dryden.
These terms may all be taken in an improper as well as a proper sense. Whatever is obtruded upon the public notice, so as to become the universal oubject of conversation and writing, is said to make a noise; in this manner a new and good performer at the theatre makes a noise on his first appearance.

Socrates lived in Athens during the great plagne, whleh has made so much noise through all ages, and never caught the infection.

Addison,
A noise may be either for or against; but a cry, outcry, and clamor, are alwaya against the object, varying in the degree and manner in which they display themaelves: cry implies leas than outcry, and this is less than clamor. When the public voice is raised in an audible manner
against any particular matter, it is a cry; if it be mingled with intemperate language, it is an outcry; if it be vebement and exceedingly noisy, it is a clamor: partisans raise a cry in order to form a body in their favor; the discontented are ever ready to set up an outcry against men in power; a clamor for peace in the time of war is easily raised by those who wish to thwart the government.

What noise have we had about transplantation of diseases and transfusion of hlood! BAKEr
Amazement seizes all ; the general cmy
Proclaims Laocoon justly doom'd to die.
Dryden.
These outcries the magistrates there shnn, Sinee they are hearkened unto here. Spenser,
The people grew then exorbitant in their clamors for justice.

Clarendon.
TO NOMINATE, NAME.
NOMINATE comes immediately from the Latin nominatus, participle of nomino: NAME comes from the Tentonic name, etc. (v. To name). To nominate and to name are both to mention by name: but the former is to mention for a specific purpose; the latter is to mention for general purpose: persons only are nominated; things as well as persons are named: one nominates a person in order to propose him, or appoint bim, to an office; but one names a person casually, in the course of conversation, or one names him in order to make some inquiry respecting him. To be nominated is a public act; to be named is generally private: one is nominatod before an assembly; one is named in any place: to be nominated is always an honor; to be named is either honorsble, or the contrary, according to the circumstances under which it is mentioned: a person is nom. inated as member of Parliament; he is named whenever he is spoken of.

> Elizabeth nominated her commissioners to hear both parties.
> Robentson.

Then Calchas (hy Unysses first inspir'd)
Was urg'd to name whom th' angry gods requir'd.
Denham.
NOTED, NOTORIOUS.
NOTED (v. Distinguished) may be employed either in a good or a bad sense; NOTORIOUS is never used but in a bad sense: men may be noted for their talenta or their cccentricities; they are no.

## NOURISH

torious for their vices : noted characters excite many and divers remarks from their friends and their enemies; notorious characters are universally ahunned.

## An engineer of noted skill

## Engag'd to stop the growing 11.

Gay.
What princlples of ordinary prudence can warrant a man to trust a notorious cheat? Sobth.

## TO NOTICE, REMARK, OBSIERVE.

To NOTICE ( $v$. To attend to) is either to take or to give notice; to REMARK, compounded of re and mark (v. Mark), signifies to reflect or bring back any mark to our own mind, or communicate the same to another; to mark is to mark a thing once, but to remark is to mark it again. OBSERVE ( $v$. Looker-on) aignifies either to keep a thing present before ore'a own view, or to communicate our view to auother.

In the first sense of these words, as the action respects ouraelves, to notice and remark require simple attention, to ob. serve requires examination. To notice is a more cursory action than to remark: we may notice a thing by a aingle glance, or on merely turning one's head; but to remark supposes a reaction of the mind on an object; we notice a person pasaing at any time; but we remark that he goes past every day at the aame hour: we notice that the sun seta this evening under a cloud, and we remark that it has done so for several evenings successively : we notice the state of a person's health or his manners in company; we remark his habits and peculiarities in domestic life. What is noticed and remarked strikes on the seneea, and awakens the mind; what is observed is looked after and sought for: the former are often involuntary acts; we aee, hear, and think because the objects obtrude themselvea uncalled for; but the latter is intentional as well as voluntary; we see, hear, and think on that which we have watched. We remark things as matters of fact; we observe them in order to judge of, or draw conclusions from, them : we remark that the wind lies for a long time in a certain quarter ; we observe that whenever it lies in a certain quarter it brings rain with it. People who have no particular curiosity may be sometimes attracted to notice the atars or planeta, when they are particularly bright; those who
look frequently will remark that the same star does not riae exactly in the same place for two successive nights; but the aatronomer goes farther, and observes all the motions of the heavenly bodiea, in order to discover the scheme of the universe.

The depravity of mankind is so easily discoverable, that nothing but the desert or cell can exclude it from notice.

Johnsor.
The glass that magnifles its object contracte the sight to $s$ point, snd the mind must be fixed upon s single charscter to romark its minute peculiarities.

Johnsoy.
The course of time is so visibly marked, that is is observad even by the birds of passage.

Johnson
In the latter gense of these verbs, as reapects the communications to otherg of what parsea in our own minds, to notice is to make known our sentiments by various ways; to remark and observe are to make them known only by means of worde: to notice is a personal act toward an individual, in which we direct our attention to him, as may happen either by a bow, a nod, a word, or even a look; but to remark and observe are said only of the thoughts which pasa in our own minds, and are expressed to others: friends notice each other when they meet; they ro. mark to others the impression which passing objects make upon their minds: the observations which intelligent people make are always entitled to notice from young persona.

As some da perceive, yea, snd like it well, they shonld be so noticsd. Howazn.
He cannot distinguish difficalt and noble speculations from trifling snd vulgar remarks.

Colliez.
Wherever I have found her notos to be wholly another's, which is the case in some hundreds, I have bsrely quoted the true proprietor, withont observing upon it.

Pope.
TO NOURISH, NURTURE, CHERISE.
To NOURISH and NURTURE are but variations from the aame verb nutrio, CHERISH, v. Foster. Things nourish, persons nurture and cherish: to nourish is to afford bodily strength, to supply the physical necessities of the body; to nurture is to extend one's care to the aupply of all its physical necessities, to preaerve life, occasion growth, and increase vigor: the breast of the mother nourishes; the

## OBEDIENT

## 0.

OBEDIENT, SUBMISSIVE, OBSEQUIOUS.
OBEDIENT, v. Dutiful. SUBMISSIVE denotes the disposition to submit ( $v$. To yield). OBSEQU1OUS, in Latin obsequius, from obsequor, or the intensive ob and sequor, to follow, signifies following diligently, or with intensity of mind.

One is obedient to command, submissiv to power or the will, obsequious to persons. Obedience is always taken in a good sense; one ought always to be obedient where obedience is due: submission is relatively good; it may, however, be indifferent or bad: one may be submissive from interested motives, or meanness of spirit, which is a base kind of submission; but to be submissive for conscience' sake is the bounden duty of a Christian: obsequiousness is never good; it is an excessive concern about the will of another which has always interest for its end. Obedience is a course of conduct conformable either to some specific rule, or the express will of another; submission is often a personal act, immediately directed to the individual. We show our obedience to the law by avoiding the breach of it; we show our obedience to the will of God, or of our parent, by making that will the rule of our life: on the other hand, we show submission to the person of the mag. istrate; we adopt a submissive deportment by a downcast look and a bent body. Obedience is founded upon principle, and cannot be feigned; submission is a partial bending to another, which is easily affected in our outward behavior: the understanding and the heart produce obedience; but force, or the necessity of circumstances, give rise to submission.
The obedience of men is to imitate the obedience of angels, and rational beings on earth are to live unto God as rational beings in heaven live unto him.

LAw.
Her at hls feet, submissive in distress,
He thus with peaceful words nprais'd. Mictor.
Obcdience and submission suppose a restraint on one's own will, in order to bring it into accordance with that of another; but obsequiousness is the consulting the will or pleasure of another: we are obedient from a sense of right; we are submissive from a sense of necessity;
we are obsequious from a desire of gaining favor: a love of God is followed by obcdience to his will; they are coincident sentiments tbat reciprocally act on each other, so as to serve the cause of virtue: a submissive conduct is at the worst an involuntary sacrifice of our independence to our fears or necessities, the evil of which is confined principally to the individual who makes the sacrifice ; absequinusness is a voluntary sacrifice of ourselves to others for interested purposes.
What gen'rous Greek, obedient to thy word,
Shall form an ambush, or shall lift the sword
Pope.
In all submission and humility
York doth present-himself unto your highness.
Shakspeane.
Adore not so the rising son that yon forget the father who raised you to this height, nor be you so obsequious to the father, that yon give just cause to the son to suspect that you neglect him. Bacon.

## OBJECT, SUBJECT.

OBJECT, in Latin objectus, participle of objicio, to lie in the way, signifies the thing that lies in one's way. SUBJECT, in Latin subjectus, participle of subjicio, to lie under, signifies the thing forming the ground work.
The object puts itself forward; the subject is in the background: we notice the object; we observe or reflect on the subject: objects are sensible; the subject is altogether intellectual : the eye, the ear, and all the senses, are oecupied with the surrounding objects; the memory, the judgment, and the imagination, are supplied with subjects suitable to the nature of the operations.

## Dishonor not your eye

By throwing it on any other object.
Shakspeare.
This subject foy heroic song pleases me.
Milton.
When object is taken for that whieh is intellectual, it retains a similar signification; it is the thing that presents itself to the mind; it is seen by the mind's eye: the subject, on the contrary, is that which must be sought for, and when found it engages the mental powers: hence we say an object of eonsideration, an object of delight, an object of concern; a subject of reflection, a subject of mature deliberation, the subject of a poem, the oubject of grief, of lamentation, and the
like. When the mind hecomes distracted by too great a multiplicity of objects, it can fix itself on no one individual object with suffieient steadiness to take a survey of it; in like manner, if a child have too many objects set before it, for the excrcisc of its powers, it will acquire a familiarity with none: such things aro not fit subjects of discussion.

## He whose sullime pursuit is God and truth,

 Burns, like some absent and impatient youth, To join the object of his warm desires. Jenyns.The hymns and odes (of the inspired writers) excel those delivered down to us by the Greek and Romans, in the poetry as much as in the subject.

Addison.

## TO OBJECT, OPPOSE.

To OBJECT (v. Object) is to cast in the way, to OPPOSE is to place in the way, there is, therefore, very little original difference, except that casting is a more momentary and sudden proceeding, placing is a more premeditated action; which distinction, at the same time, corresponds with the use of the terms in ordinary life: to object to a thing is to propose or start something against it ; but to oppose it is to set one's self up steadily against it: one objects to ordinary matters that require no reflection; one opposes matters that call for deliberation, and afford serious reasons for and against: a parent objects to his child's learning the classics, or to his running about tbe streets; he apposes his marriage when be thinks the connection or the circumstances not desirable.

Abont this time, an Archhishop of York objected to clerks (recommended to benefices by the Pope), because they were ignorant of English.

TyRwhitt.
'Twas of no purpose to oppose,
She'd hear to no exctise in prose.
Swift.
OBJECTION, DIFFICULTY, EXCEPTION.
OBJECTION ( $v$. Demur) is here a geoeral term ; it comprehends both the DIFFICULTY and the EXCEPTION, which are but species of the objection: an objection and a difficulty are started; an exception is made: the objection to a thing is in general that which renders it less desirable; but the difficulty is that which renders it less practicable; there is an objection against every scheme which incurs a serious risk: the want of means
to begin, or resources to carry on a scheme, are serions difficulties.

> I would not desire what yon have written to be omitted, unless I had the merit of removing your objection. Such passages will then have no more difloulty in them than the other frequent predictions of divine vengeance in the writings of the prophHos. Honse.

Objection and exception both respect the mature, the moral tendency, or moral consequences of a thing; but an objection may be frivolous or serions; an exception is something serious: the objection is positive; the exception is relatively considered; that is, the thing excepted from other things, as not good, and consequently objected to. Objections are made sometimes to proposals for the mere sake of getting rid of an engagement: those who do not wish to give themselves trouble find an easy method of disengaging themselves, by making objections to every proposition. We take exception at the conduct of others, when we think it not sufficiently respectful.
All these objections were overruled, so that I was obliged to comply. Goldnaita.
I am sorry you persist to take ill my not accepting your invitation, and to find your excepuion not unmixed with some suspiclon. Pope.

## OBLONG, OVAL.

OBLONG, in Latin oblongus, from the intensive syllable $o b$, signifies very long, longer than it is broad. OVAL, from the Latin ovum, an egg, signifies eggshaped. The oval is a species of the ob. long: what is oval is oblong; hut what is oblong is not always oval. Oblong is peculiarly applied to figures formed by right lines; that is, all rectangular parallelograms, except squares, are oblong; but the oval is applied to curvilinear obCong figures, as ellipses, which are distinguished from the circle: tables are of tener oblong than oval; garden beds are as frequently oval as they are oblong.

## OBNOXIOUS, OFFENSIVE.

OBNOXIOUS, from $o b$ and noxious, signifies either heing in the way of what is noxious, or being very noxions or hateful. OFFENSIVE signifies simply apt to give offence or displeasure. The obroxious conveys more than the offensive,
implying to receive as well as to give offence; a man may be obnoxious to evils as well as obnoxious to persons.
In ships of various rates they sail, of ensigns various; all alike in this: All restless, anxious, toss'd with hopes and fears, In calmest skies; ounoxious all to storms.

Youna.
In the sense of giving offence, obnoxious implies as much as hateful, offensive little more than displeasing: a man is obnoxious to a party, whose interests or principles he is opposed to; he may be offensive to an individual merely on account of his manners or any particular actions. Men are obnoxious only to their fellow-creatures, but they may be offensive though not obnoxious to their Maker.
I must have leave to be grateful to any one who serves me, let him be ever so obnoaious to any party.

Pope.
Since no man can do ill with a good conscience, the consolation which we therein seem to find is but a mere deceitfil pleasure of ourselves in error, which must needs turn to our greater grief, if that which we do to please God most he for the manifold defects thereln offensive nnto him.

Beveridge.
Persons only are obnoxious to others, things as well as persons are offensive; dust is offensive to the eye; sounds are offensive to the ear; advice, or even one's own thoughts, may be offensive to the mind.
The understanding is often drawn by the will and the affections from fixing its contemplation ou an offensive truth.

Sodtr.

## OBSERVATION, OBSERVANCE.

These terms derive their use from the different significations of the verb: OBSERVATION is the act of observing objects with the view to examine them (v. To notice); OBSERVANCE is the act of observing in the sense of keeping or holding sacred (v. To kefp). From a minnte observation of the human hody, anatomists have discovered the circulation of the blood, and the source of all the homors; by a strict observance of truth and justice, a man acquires the title of an upright man.

The pride which, under the check of pablic observation, would have been only vented amont domestics, becomes, in a conntry barouet, the tormeut of a province.

Joinson.
You must not fail to hehave yourself toward my Lady Clare, your grandmother, with all duty and observance.

Earl Stafpord.

TO OBSERVE, WATCH.
OBSERVE, v. To notice. WATCH, v. To guard.

These terms agree in expressing the act of looking at an object; but to observe is not to look after so strictly as is implied by to watrh; a general observes the motions of an enemy when they are in no particular state of activity; he watches the motions of an enemy when they are in a state of commotion; we observe a thing in order to draw an inference from it: we watch anything in order to discover what may happen: we observe with coolness; we watch with eagerness : we observe carefully; we watch narrowly: the conduct of mankind in general is observed; the conduct of suspicious individuals is watched.
Nor must the ploughman less observe the skies. Diyben.
For thou know'st
What hath been warn'd us, what maliclous foe Watches, no doult, with greedy hope to find, His wish and best sdvantage, us assuder.

Milion.
OBSTINATE, CONTUMACIOUS, STUBborn, headstrong, heady.
OBSTLNATE, in Latin obstinalus, participle of obstino, from ob and stino, sto or sisto, signifies standing in the way of another. CONTUMACIOUS, v. Contumacy. STUBBORN, or stout-born, signifies stiff or immovable by nature. HEADSTRONG signifies strong in the head or the mind; and HEADY, full of one's own head.

Obstinacy is a habit of the mind; contumacy is either a particular state of feeling or a mode of action; obstinacy conslsts in an attachment to one's own mode of acting ; contumacy consists in a swelling contempt of others: the obstinate man adheres tenaciously to bis own ways, and opposes reason to reason; the con. tumacious man disputes the right of another to control his actions, and opposes force to force. Obstinacy interferes with a man's private conduct, and makes him blind to right reason; contumacy is a crime against lawful authority; the contumacious man sets himself against his superiors: when young people are obstinate they are bad subjects of educa. tion; when grown people are contumacions they are troublesome subjects to the king.

But man we find the only creature,
Who, led by folly, combats nature; Who, when she loudly cries forbear, With obstinacy fixes there.

SWIrz.
When an offender is cited to appear in any ecclesiastical court, and he neglects to do it, he is pronounced contumacious.

BIVERIDGE.
The stubborn and the headstrong are species of the obstinate: the former lies altogether in the perversion of the will; the latter in the perversion of the judgment: the stubborn person wills what he wills; the headstrong person thinks what he thinks. Stubbornness is mostly inherent in a person's nature; a headstrong temper is commonly associated with violence and impetuosity of character. Ob. stinacy discovers itself in persons of all ages and stations; a stubborn and headstrong disposition betrays itself mostly in those who are bound to conform to the will of anotber. Heady may be said of any who are full of conceit and bent upon following it.
From whence he hrought them to these salvage parts,
And with science mollified their stubborn hesrts. Spenser
We, blindly by our headstrong passions led, Are hot for actian.

Dbyden.
Heady confidence promises victory withont contest. Jounson.

## OCCASION, OPPORTUNITY.

OCCASION, in Latin occasio, from od. casio, or ob and cado, signifies that which falls in the way so as to produce some change. OPPORTUNITY, in Latin opportunitas, from opportunus, fit, signifies the thing that happens fit for the purpose.

These terms are applied to the events of life; but the occasion is that which determines our conduct, and leaves us no choice; it amounts to a degree of necessity: the opportunity is that which invites to action; it tempts us to embrace the moment for taking the step. We do things, therefore, as the occasion requires, or as the opportunity offers. There are many occasions on which a man is called upon to uphold his opinions. There ars but few opportunities for men in general to distinguish themselves.
Waller preserved and won his life from those who were most resolved to take it, and in an occasion in which he ought to have been ambitious to have lost it (to lose it). Clabrandon

Every man is obliged by the Supreme Maker of the nniverse to improve all the opportumities of good which arc afforded him.

Johnson.

## OCCASION, NECESSITY.

OCCASION (v. Occasion) includes, NECESSITY ( $v$. Necessity) excludes, the idea of choice or alternative. We are regulated by the occasion, and can exercise our own discretion; we yield or submit to the necessity, without even the exercise of the will. On the death of a relative we have occasion to go into mourning if we will not offer an affront to the family; but there is no express necessity: in case of an attack on our persons, there is a necessity of self-defence for the preservation of life.
God nath put usinto an imperfect state, where we have perpetual occasion of each other's assistance.

Swift.
Where necessity ends curiosity begins.
Johnson.

## OCCASIONAL, CASUAL.

These are both opposed to what is fixed or stated; but OCCASIONAL carries with it more the idea of unfrequency, and CASUAL that of unfixedness, or the absence of all design. A minister is termed an occasional preacher who preaches only on certain occasions; his preaching at a particular place or a certain day may be casual. Our acts of charity may be occarional; but they ought not to be casual.

[^91]
## OCCUPANCY, OCCUPATION,

Are words which derive their meanng from the different acceptations of the primitive verb occupy: the former being used to express the state of holding or possessing any object; the latter to express the act of taking possession of, or the state of being in possession. He who has the occupancy of land enjoys the fruits of it: the occupation of a country by force of arms is of little avail, unless one has an adequate force to maintain one's ground. Both words are employed in regard to houses and lands, but when the term oseupation is taken in the
sense of a business, it is sufficiently dis tmguished to need no illustration.

As accupancy gave the right to the tempos rary use of the soil; so it is agreed on all hands, that occupancy gave also the original right to the permanent property in the substance of the earth itself.

Blackstone.
Of late years a great compasse hath yielded but small profit, and this only through idle and negligent oceupation of such as manured and had the same in occupying.

Holivgesed.

## ODD, UNEVEN.

ODD, in Swedish udde, connected with the Dutch oed, and German oede, empty, deserted, signifying something wanted to match, seems to be a mode of the UN. EVEN; both are opposed to the even $_{\text {p }}$ but odd is only said of that which has no fellow; the uneven is said of that which does not square or come to an even point: of numbers we say that they are either odd or uneven ; but of gloves, shoes, and everything which is made to correspond, we say that they are odd, when they are single; but that they are uneven when they are both different: in like manner a plank is uneven which has an unequal surface, or disproportionate dimensions; but a piece of wood is odd which will not match nor suit with any other piece.
This is the third time: I hope good-luck lies in odn numbers.

Stakspeark.
These high hills, and rough, uneven ways,
Draw out our miles, and make them wearisome.
SHARgPEABE.
CECONOMICAL, SAVING, SPARING, THRIFTY, PENURIOUS, NIGGARDLY.
The idea of not spending is common to all these terms: but ECONOMICAL ( $v$. Economy) signifies not spending unnecessarily or unwisely. SAVING is keeping and laying by with care; SPAR. ING is keeping out of that which ought to be spent; THRIFTY or THRIVING is accumulating by means of saving; PENURIOUS is suffering as from perurs by means of saving; NIGGARDLY, after the manner of a niggard, nigh or close person, is not spending or letting go, but in the smallest possible quantities. To be oconomical is a virtue in those who have but narrow means; all the other epithets, however, are employed in a sense more or less unfavorable; he who is saving when young will be avaricious
when old; he who is sparing will generally be sparing out of the comforts of others; he who is thrifty commonly adds the desire of getting with that of saving; he who is penurious wants nothing to make him a complete miser; he who is niggardly in his dealings will be mostly avaricious in his character.
I cannot fancy that a shopkeeper's wife in Cheapside has a grester tenderness for the fortane of her husband than a citizen's wife in l'aris, or that Miss in a boarding - school is more an aconomist in dress than Mademoiselle in a nun. nery.

Goldsmith.
I may say of fame as Falstaff did of honor, "If it comes it comes unlook'd for, and there ls an end on't." I am content with a bare saving game.

Pofe.
Yonth is not rich, in time it may be poor, Part with it, as with money, sparing. Youno.
Nothing is penuriously imparted, of which a more liberal distribution would increase real feficity.

Johnson.
Who by resolves and vows engag'd does stand, For days that yet belong to fate,
Does, like an unthrift, mortgage his estate
Before it falls into his hands. Cowley.
No nigoard nature ; men are prodigals.
Young.

## GECONOMY, FRUGALITY, PARSIMONY.

GCONOMY, from the Greek ouno 0 $\mu a$, implies management. FRITGALIT'Y, from the Latin fruges, fruits, implies temperance. PARSIMONY (v. Avaricious) implies simply forbearing to spend, which is in fact the common idea included in these terms; but the ceconomical man spares expense accoraing to circumstances; be adapts his expenditure to his means, and renders it by contrivance as effectual to his purpose as possible: the frugal man spares expense on himself or on his indulgences; he may, however, be liberal to others while he is frugal toward himself: the parsimonious man saves from himself as well as others ; he has no other object than saving. By coconomy, a man may make a limited income turn to the best account for himself and his family; by frugality he may with a limited income be enabled to lay by money; by parsimony he may be enabled to accumulate great sums out of a narrow income: hence it is that we recommend a plan for being economical; we recommend a diet for being frugal; we condemn a habit or a character for being parsimonious

Yonr aconomy, I suppose, begins now to be settled; your expenses are adjusted to your revenue.

Jonnson.
I accept of your invitation to supper, but I must make this agreement beforehand, that you diamiss me soon, and treat me frugally.

Melmoth's Letteas of Plini.
War and occonomy are things not easily reconciled, and the attempt or leaning toward parsimony in such a atate may be the worst oeconomy in the worid.

Buake

## GCONOMY, MANAGEMENT.

OCCONOMY (v. ©conomy) has a more comprehensive meaning than MANAGEMENT ; for it includes the system of science and of legislation as well as that of domestic arrangements: as the economy of agriculture ; the internal economy of a government; political, civil, or religious ceconomy; or the aconomy of one's household. Management, on the contrary, is an action that is very seldom abstracted from its agent, and is always taken in a partial sense, namely, as a part of ceconomy. The internal ceconomy of a family depends principally on the prudent management of the female: the aconomy of every well-reg. nlated community lequires that all the members should keep their station, and preserve a strict subordination; the managenent of particular branches of this ceconomy should belong to particular in. dividuals.
Oh apare thls waste of being half divine, And vindicate th' acconomy of Ileav'n. Youno.
What incident can show more managgment and address in the poet (Milton), than this of Samson's refusing the summons of the idolaters, and obeying the visitation of God's spirit?

Cumberland.

## OFFENCE, TRESPASS, TRANSGRESSION,

 MISDEMEANOR, MISDEED, AFFRONT.OFFENCE is here the general term, signifying merely the act that offends (v. To displease), or runs counter to something else.

Offence is properly indefinite; it merely implies an object without the least signification of the nature of the object; TRESPASS and TRANSGRESSION have a positive reference to an object trespassed upon or transgressed; trespass is contractedfrom trans and pass, that is, a passing beyond; and Yransgress, from trans and gressus, a going beyond. The offence, therefore, which constitutes a trespass arises out of the
laws of property; a passing over or treading upon the property of another is a trespass: the offence which constitutes a transgression flows out of the laws of society in general, which fix the houndaries of right and wrong: whoever, therefore, goes beyond or breaks through these bounds is guilty of a transgression. The trespass is a species of offence which peculiarly applies to the land or premises of individuals; transgression is a species of moral as well as political evil. Hunters are apt to commit trespasses in the eagerness of their pursuit; the passions of men are perpetually misleading them and causing them to commit various transgressions; the term trespass is sometimes employed improperly as respects time and other objects; transgression is always used in ove uniform gense as respects rule and law; we trespass upon the time or patience of another; we transgress the moral or civil law.
Slight provocations and frivolous offences are the most frequent causes of disquiet. Brasa. Forgive the barbarous treapass of my tongue.
otway.
To whom with stern regard thus Gabriel spake: Why hast thou, Satan, broke the bounds prescrib'd
To thy transgressions?
Mutor.
An offence is either public or private; a MISDEMEANOR is properly a private offence, although improperly applied for an offence against puhlic law (v. Crime); for it significs a wrong demeanor or an offence in one's demeanor against propriety; a MISDEED is always private, it signifies a wrong deed, or a deed which offends against one's duty. Riotous and disorderly behavior in company are serious misdemeanors; every act of drunkenness, lying, fraud, or immorality of every kind, are misdeeds.

Smaller faults in violation of a puhlic law are comprised under the name of misdemeanor.

Blacestone.
Fierce famine is your lot, for this misdeed,
Reduc'd to grind the plates on which you feed.
Dryden.
An offence is that which affects persons or principles, communities or individuals, and is committed either directly or indirectly agaiost the person; an AFFRONT is altogether personal, and is directly hrought to bear against the front of some particular person; it is an offence against
another to speak disrespectfully of him in his absence; it is an affront to push past him with violence and rudeness. In this sense, whatever offence is comnitted against our Maker in our direct communications with him by prayer or worship, is properly an affront; and whatever offends him indireetly, may also be denom. inated an affront, as far as his will is opposed and his laws violated.

God may some time or other think it the concern of his justice and providence too to revenge the affronts put upon the laws of man. Sontr.

## OFFENDER, DELLNQUENT.

The OFFENDER (v. To displease) is he who offends in anything, either by commission or omission ; the DELINQUENT, from delinquo, to fail, signifies properly he who fails by omission, but it is extended to signify failing by the violation of a law. Those who go into a wrong place are offenders; those who stay away when they ought to go are delinquents: there are many offenders against the Sabbath who commit violent and open breaches of decorum; there are still more delinquents who never attend a public place of worship.
When any offender is presented into any of the ecclesiastical courts he is cited to appear there.

Bevenidee.
But on those judges lies a heavy curse,
That measure crimes by the delinquent's purse.
Bhowne.

## OFFENDING, OFFENSIVE.

OFFENDING signifies either actually offending or calculated to offend (v. To displease); OFFENSIVE signifies calculated to offend at all times; a person may be offending in his manners to a particular individual, or use an offending expression on a particular occasion without any imputation on his character; but if his manners are offensive, it reflects both on his temper and education.
And tho' th' offending part felt mortal pain, Th' immortal part its knowledge did retain. Denhak.
Gentleness corrects whatever is offensive in our manners.

Blaib.
TO OFFER, BID, TENDER, PROPOSE.
OFFER (v. To give) is employed for that which is literally transferable, or for that which is indirectly communicable: BID
(v. To ask) and TENDER, like the word tond, from tendo, to stretch, signifying to atretch forth by way of offering, belong to offer in the first sense. PROPOSE, in Latin proposui, perfect of propono, to place or set before, likewise characterizes a mode of offering, and belongs to offer in the latter sense. To offer ls a voluntary and discretionary act; an offer may be accepted or rejected at pleasure; to bid and tender are specific modes of offering which depend on circumstances : one bids with the hope of its being accepted; one tenders from a prudential motive, and in order to serve specific purposes. We of fer moncy to a poor person, it is an act of charity or good-nature; we bid a price for the purchase of a house, it is a commercial dealing subject to the rules of commerce; we tender a sum of money by way of payment, it is a matter of discretion in order to fulfil an obligation. By the same rule one offers a person the use of one's horse; one bids a sum at an auction; one tenders one's services to the gov. ernment.

Nor, shouldst thou offer a3n thy little store, Will rich Iolas yield, but offer more. Dryden.

To give interest a share in frlendship, is to sell it by inch of candle; he that bids most shall have it, and when is is mercenary, there is no depending on it.

Colitier.
Aulus Gellius telle a story of one Lucius Neratius, who made it his diversion to give a blow to whomsoever he pleased, and then tender them the legal forfeiture.

Blacestone.
To offer and propose are both employed in matters of practice or speculation; but the former is a less definite and decisive act than the latter; we offer an opinion by way of promoting a discussion; we propose a plan for the deliberation of others. Sentiments which differ widely from the major part of tbose present ought to be offered with modesty and caution; we should not propose to another what we should be unwilling to do ourselves. We commonly offer by way of obliging; we commonly propose by way of arranging or accommodating. It is an act of puerility to offer to do more than one is enabled to perform; it does not evince a sincere disposition for peace to propose such terms as we know cannot be accepted.

Locke.

We propoes measures for securing to the young the possession of pleasure (by connecting with it reiigion).

Blais.

## OFFERING, OBLATION.

OFFERING, from offer, and OBLATION, from oblatio and oblatres, or oflatus, come both from offero (v. To offer): the former is, however, a term of much more general and familiar use than the latter. Offerings are both moral and religious; oblation is religious only; the money which is put into the sacramental plate is an offering; the consecrated bread and wine at the sacrament is an oblation. The offering in a religious sense is whatever one offers as a gift by way of reverence to a superior; the oblation is the offering which is accompanica with some particular ceremony. The wise men made an offering to our Saviour, but not properly an oblation; the Jewish sacrifices, as in general all religious sacrifices, were in the proper sense oblations.
The winds to heav'n the curling vapors bore, Ungrateful offring to th' immortal pow'rs, Whose wrath hung heavy o'er the Trojan tow'rs.

Pope.
Ye mighty princes, your oblations bring, And pay due honors to your awfal king. Pltr.

## office, place, charge, function.

OFFICE, in Latin officium, from officio or efficio, signifies either the duty performed or the situation in which the duty is performed. PLACE comprehende no idea of duty, for there may be sinecure places which are only nominal offices, and designate merely a relationship with the government: every office, therefore, of a public nature is in reality a place, yet every place is not an office. The place of secretary of state is likewise an offire, but that of ranger of a park is a place only, and not always an office. An office is held; a place is filled: the office is given or intrusted to a person; the place is granted or conferred: the office reposes a confidence, and imposes a responsibility; the place gives credit and influence: the office is bestowed on a man from his qualification; the place is granted to him by favor or as a reward for past services; the office is more or less honorable; the place is more or less profitable.

You have contriv'd to take
From Rome all season'd office, and to wind
Yourself into s power tyrannical. Stargpanan

When rogues like these (a sparrow cries) To honors and employments rise, I court no favor, ask no place.

In an extended application of the terms office and place, the latter has a much lower signification than that of the former, since the office is always connected with the State, or is something responsible; but the place may be a place for menial labor: the offices are multiplied in time of war; the places for domestic service are more numerous in a state of peace and prosperity. The office is frequently taken not with any reference to the place occupied, but simply to the thing done; this brings it nearer in signification to the term CHARGE (v. Care). An office Imposes a task, or some performance: a charge imposes a responsibility; we have always something to do in an office, always something to look after in a charge; the office is either public or private, the charge is always of a private and personal nature: a person performs the office of a magistrate, or of a minister; he undertakes the charge of instructing youth, or of being a guardian, or of conveying a person's property from one place to another.
'Tis all men's office to speak patience
To those that wring under the load of sorrow. Shakspeare.
Denham was made governor of Farnham Castle for the king, but he soon resigned that charge and retreated to Oxford.

Johnson.
The office is that which is assigned by another; FUNCTION is properly the act of discharging or completing an office or business, from fungor, viz., finem and ago, to put an end to or bring to a conclusion; it is extended in its acceptation to the office itself or the thing done. The office, therefore, in its strict sense is performed only by conscious or intelligent agents, who act according to their instructions; the function, on the other hand, is an oporation either of unconscious or of conscious agents acting according to a given rule. The office of a herald is to proclaim public events or to communicate circumstances from one public body to another : a minister performs his functions, or the body performs its functions.

[^92]The word office is sometimes employed in the same application by the personification of nature, which assigns an office to the ear, to the tongue, to the eye, and the like. In this case the word office is applied to what is occasional or partial; function to that which is habitual and essential. When the frame becomes overpowered by a sudden shock, the tongue will frequently refuse to perform its office; when the animal functions are impeded for a length of time, the vital power ceases to exist.

Nature within me seems, In all her functions, weary of herself. Milton.

The two offices of memory are collection aud distribution.

Jobnson.

## OFFSPRING, PROGENY, ISSUE.

OFFSPRING is that which springs off or from; PROGENY that which is brought forth or out of; ISSUE that which issues or proceeds from; and all in relation to the family or generation of the human species. Offspring is a familiar term applicable to one or many children; progeny is employed only as a collective noun for a number; issue is used in an indefinite manner without particular regard to number. When we speak of the children themselves we denominate them the offspring; when we speak of the parents, we denominate the children their progeny. A child is said to be the only offspring of his parents, or he is said to be the offspring of low parents; a man is said to have a numerous or a bealthy progeny, or to leave his progeny in circumstances of honor and prosperity. The issue is said only in regard to a man that is deceased: he dies with male or female issue, with or without issue; his property descends to his male issue in a direct line.
The same cause that has drawn the hatred of God and man npon the father of liars may justly entail it apon his offspring too.

SOUTE
The base, degen'rate iron offopring ends,
A golden progeny from Heav'n descends.
Dryden.
Next him King Leyr, in happy place long reigued, But had no iseue male him to succeed. Spencer.

## OFTEN, FREQUENTLY.

OFTEN, or its contracted form oft, is in all probability connected with the

Greek a $\boldsymbol{\psi}$, again, and signifies properly repetition of action. FREQUENTLY, from frequent, crowded or numeroua, reapects a plurality or number of objects.

An ignorant man often uses a word without knowing what it meana; ignorant people frequently mistake the meaning of the words they hear. A person goes out very often in the course of a week; he has frequently six or seven persons to visit him in the course of that time. By doing a thing often it becomea habitual: we frequently meet the same persons in the route which we often take.

[^93]
## OLD, ANCIENT, ANTIQUE, ANTIQUATED,

 OLD-FASHIONED, OBSOLETE.OLD, in German alt, low German old, etc., is connected with the Greek ew 10 , of yesterday. ANCIENT, in French ancien, and ANTIQUE, ANTIQUATED, all come from the Latin antiquus, and antea, before, signifying in general before our time. OLD-FASHIONED signifies after an old fashion. OBSOLETE, in Latin obsoletus, participle of obsoleo, signifies literally out of use.

Old respects what has long existed and still exists; anciert what existed at a distant period, but does not necessarily exist at present; antique, that which has been long ancient, and of which there remain but faint traces: antiquated, oldfashioned, and obsolete that which has ceased to be any longer used or esteemed. A fastion is old when it has been long in use; a custom is ancient when its use has long been passed; a bust or statue is antique when the model of it only remains; a person is antiquated whose appearance is grown out of date; manners which are gone quite out of fashion are old-fashioned; a word or custom is obsolete which is grown out of use.

The old is opposed to the new; some things are the worse for being old, other things are the better. Ancient and antique are opposed to modern; all things are valued the more for being ancient or
antique; hence we eateem the writings of the ancients above those of the moderns. The antiquated is opposed to the customary and established; it is that which we cannot like, because we cannot esteem it: the old-fashioned is opposed to the fashionable: there is much in the old-fashioned to like and esteem; there is much that is ridiculous in the fashionable: the obsolete is opposed to the current; the obsolete may be good; the current may be vulgar and mean.

The Venetians are tenacious of old laws and customs to their great prejudice. Admson. But sev'n wise men the ancient world did know. We scarce know sev'n who think themselves not so.

Denham
Under an oak whose antique root peeps out Under the brook that brawls along this wood, A poor sequester'd stag,
That from the hunters' aim had ta'en a hurt, Did come to languish. Shakspeare.
The swords in the arsenal of Venice are oldfashioned and unwieldy.

Andison.
Whoever thinks it necessary to regrulate his conversation by antiquated rules, will be rather despised for his futility, than caressed for his politeness. Joh nson.
Obsotete words may be laudably revised when they are more sounding or more significant than those in practice.

Dryden.

## OMEN, PROGNOSTIC, PRESAGE.

All these terms express some token or sign of what is to come. OMEN, in Latin omen, probably comes from the Greek oto $\mu a t$, to think, because it is what gives rise to much conjecture. PROGNOSTIC, in Greek $\pi \rho o \gamma \nu \omega \pi \tau \iota \kappa o \nu$, from $\pi \rho o \gamma \iota \nu \omega \sigma \kappa \omega$, to know before, signifies the sign by which one judges a thing beforehand, because a prognostic is rather a deduction by the use of the understanding. PRESAGE, v. Augur.

The omen and prognostic are both drawn from external objects; the presage is drawn from one's own feelings. The omen is drawn from objects that have no necessary connection with the thing they are made to represent; it ia the fruit of the imagination, and rests on superstition : the prognostic, on the contrary, is a sign which partakes in some degree of the quality of the thing denoted. Omens were drawn by the heaw thens from the flight of birds, or the entrails of beasts-" "Aves dant omina dira," Tibullus-and often from different inci
dents; thus Ulysses, when landed on his native island, prayed to Jupiter that be would give him a double sign, by which he might know that he should be perwifted to slay the suitors of his wife; and when he heard the thunder, and saw a maiden supplicating the gods in the temple, he took these for omens that he should immediately proceed to put in execution his design. Prognostics are discovered only by an acquaintance with the objects in which they exist, as the prog. nostics of a mortal disease are known to none so well as the physician; the prognostics of a storm or tempest are best known to the mariner.

A signal omen stopp'd the passing host. Pore. Though your propnootics run too fast, They must be verified at last.

SWIFT.
In an extended sense, the word omen is also applied to objects which serve as a sign, so as to enable a person to draw a rational inference, which brings it nearer in sense to the prognastic and presage; but the omen may be said of that which is either good or bad; the prognostic and presage, when it expresses a sentiment, mostly of that which is unfavorable. It is an omen of our sucuess, if we find those of whom we have to ask a favor in a good. humor: the spirit of discontent which pervades the countenances and discourse of a people is a prognostic of some popular commotion. The imagination is often filled with strange presages.
Hammond would steal from his fellows lnto places of privacy, there to say his prayers; omens of his future pacific temper and eminent devotion.

Fell.
Careful observers
By sure prognosties may foretell a shower.
Swift.
I know but one way of fortifying my soul against these gloomy prosages, that is, by securing to myself the protection of that Being who disposes of events.

Ampison.
When presage is taken for the outward sign, it is understood favorably, or in an indifferent sense.

Our's joy fill'd, and shout
Presage of victory.
Militon.

## ONE, SINGLE, ONLY.

Unity is the common idea of all these terms; and at the same time the whole signification of ONE, which is opposed to none; SINGLE, in Latin singulus, each or
one by itself, probably contracted from sine angulo, without an angle, becanse what is entirely by itself cannot form an angle, signifies that one which is abstracted from others, and is particularly opposed to two, or a double which may form a pair; ONLY, contracted from onely, signifying in the form of unity, is employed for that of which there is no more. A person has one child, is a positive expression that bespeaks its own meaning : a person has a single child conveys the idea that there ought to be or might be more, that more was expected, or that once there were more: a person has an only child implies that he never had more.
For shame, Rutilians, can you bear the sight, Of one exposed for all, in single fight ?

## Daydes.

Homely but wholesome roots
Mly daily food, and water trom the nearest spring My only drink.

Filmer.

## ONWARD, FORWARD, PROGRESSIVE.

ONWARD is taken in the literal sense of going nearer to an objeot: FORWARD is taken in the sense of going from an object, or going farther in the line before one: PROGRESSIVE has the sense of going gradually, or step by step, before one. A person goes onward who does net stand still; he goes forward who does not recede; he goes progressively who goes forward at certain intervals. Onward is taken only in the proper acceptation of travelling; the traveller who has lost his way feels it necessary to go onward with the hope of arriving at some point; forward is employed in the im. proper as well as the proper application; a traveller goes forward in order to reach his point of destination as quickly as pos. sible; a learner uses his ntmost endeavors in order to get formard in his learn ing: progressively is employed only in the improper application to what requires time and labor in order to bring it to a conclusion; every man goes on progres. sively in his art, until he arrives at the point of perfection attainable by him.
Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow, Or by the lazy Scheld, or wandering Po, Or onvoard where the rude Carinthian boor, Against the houseless stranger shats the door, Where'er I roam, whatever realms to see, My heart untravell'd fondly turns to thee.

Gогрямит

Harbord, tbe chairman, was much blamed for his rashness: he aaid the duty of the chair was always to set things forward. Bunnet. Reason progressive, instinct is complete.

Younc.

## OPAQUR, DARK.

OPAQUE, in Latin opacus, comes from ops, the earth, because the earth is the darkest of all bodies; the word opaque is to DARK as the species to the genus, for it expresses that species of darkness which is inherent in solid bodies, in distinction from those which emit light from themselves, or admit of light into themselves ; it is therefore employed scientifically for the more vulgar and familiar term dark. On this ground the earth is termed an opaque body in distinction from the sun, moon, or other luminous bodies: any solid substance, as a tree or a stone, is an opaque body, in distinction from glass, which is a clear or transparent body.
But all sunshine, as when his beams at noon, Culminate from th' equator as they now Shot upward still, whence no way round Shadow from body opaque can fall. Milton.

## OPENING, APERTURE, CAVITY.

OPENING signifies in general any place left open without defining any circumstances; the APERTURE is generally a specific kind of opening which is considered scientifically: there are openings in a wood when the trees are partly cut away; openings in strcets by the removal of houses; or openings in a fence that has been broken down; but anatomists speak of apertures in the skull or in the heart, and the naturalist describes the apertures in the nests of bees, ants, heavers, and the like; the opening or apcrture is the commencement of an enclosure; the CAVITY is the whole enclosure ; hence they are frequently as a part to the whole: many animals make a cavity in the earlh for their nest with only a small aperture for their egress and lngress.

The scented dew
Betrays her early labyrinth, and deep In scattered sullen openings, far biehind, With every breeze she hears the coming storm.

Thomson.
In less than a minute he had thrust his little person through the aperture, and again and ugain perches upon his neighbor's cage.

Copper.
In the centre of every floor, from top to bot-
tom, is the chief room, of no great cxtent, round which there are narrow cavities or recesses.

## Johnaon.

OPINIATED OR OPINIATIVE, COANCEITED, EGOISTICAL.
A fonnseas for one's opinion bespeaks the OPINILTED man; a fond conceit of one's selt bespeaks the CONCEITED man: a fond attachment to himself bespeaks the EGOISTICAL man: a liking for one's self or one's own is evident ly the common idea that runs through these terms; they differ in the mode and in the object.

An opiniated man is not only fond of his own opinion, but full of his own opinion; he has an opinion on everything, which is the best possible opinion, and is therefore delivered freely to every one, that they may profit in forming their own opinions. A conceited man has a conceit or an idle fond opinion of his own talent; it is not only high in competition with others, but it is so high as to be set above others. The conceited man does not want to follow the ordinary means of acquiring knowledge: his conceit suggests to him that his talent will supply labor, application, reading, and study, and every other contrivance which men have commonly employed for their improvement; he sees by intuition what another learns by experience and observation; he knows in a day what otbere want years to acquire; he learns of himself what others are contented to get by means of instruction. The egoistical man makes himsclf the darling theme of his own contemplation; he admires and loves himself to that degree that he can talk and think of nothing else; his children, his house, his garden, his rooms, and the like, are the incessant theme of his conversation, and become invaluable from the mere circumstance of belonging to him. An opiniated man is the most unfit for conversation, which only affords pleasure by an alternate and equable communication of sentiment. A conccit. ed man is the most unfit for co-operation, where a junction of talent and effort is essential to bring things to a conclusion; an egoistical man is the most unfit to be a companion or friend, for be does not know how to value or like anything out of himself.

Down was he cast from all hils greatness, as it Is pity but all such politic opiniators should.

Soutif.
No great measnre at a very difflenlt crisic can be pursned which is not attended with some mischief: none but conceited pretenders in pnblic bnsiness hold any other langnage. Brife.
To show their particular aversion to speaking in the firat person, the gentlemen of Port Royal branded thia form of writing with the name of egotism.

Adnison.

## OPINION, SENTIMENT, NOTION.

OPINION, in Latin opinio, from opinor, and the Greek $\varepsilon \pi i \nu 0 \varepsilon \omega$, to think or judge, is the work of the head. SENTIMENT, from sentio, to feel, is the work of the heart. NOTION, in Latin notio, from nosco, to know, is a simple operation of the thinking faculty.

We form opinions, we have sentiments: we get notions. Opinions are formed on speculative matters; they are the result of reading, experience, and reflection: sentiments are entertained on matters of practice; they are the consequence of habits and circumstances: notions are gathered upon sensible objects, and arise out of the casualties of hearing and seeing. One forms opinions on religion, as respects its doctrines; one has sentiments on religion as respects its practice and its precepts. The heathens formed opinions respecting the immortality of the soul, but they amounted to nothing more than opinions. Christians entertain sentiments of reverence toward God as their creator, and of dependence upon him as their preserver.

No, cousin (said Henry IV. when charged hy the Dnke of Bouillon with having changed his religion), I have changed no religion, but an opinion.

Howell.
There are never great numbers in any nation who can raise a pleasing discourse from their uwn stock of sentiments and images. Johnson.

Opinions are more liable to error than sentiments. The opinion often springs from the imagination, and in all cases is but an inference or deduction which falls short of certain knowledge: opinions, therefore, as individual opinions, are mostly false; sentiments, on the other hand, depend upon the moral constitution or habits; they may, therefore, be good or bad according to the character or temper of the person. Notions are still more liable to error than either;
they are the immatured decisions of the uninformed mind on the appearances of things. The difference of opinion among men, on the most important questions of human life, is a sufficient evidence that the mind of man is very easily led astray in matters of opinion: whatever difference of opinion there may be among Christians, there is but one sentiment of love and good-will among those who follow the example of Christ, rather than their own passions: the notions of a Deity are so imperfect among savages in general, that they seem to amount to lit. tie more than an indistinct idea of some superior invisible agent.

Time wears ont the fictions of opinion, and dath by degrees discover and unmask that fallacy of ungrounded persnasions, hint confirins the dictates and sention ents of nature.

Wilkina.
This letter comes to your lordship, accompanied with a small writing, entitled a notion; for sach alone can that piece be called which aspires no higher than to the forming a project.

Shaftesbtidy.
TO OPPOSE, RESIST, WITESTAND, THWART.
The action of setting one thing up against another is obviously expressed by all these terms, but they differ in the manner and the circumstances. To 0PPOSE ( $v$. To contradict) is the most gen eral and unqualified term; it simply de notes the relative position of two objects, and when applied to persons it does not necessarily imply any personal characteristic: we may oppose reason or force to force; or things may be opposed to each other which are in an opposite direction, as a house to a church. RESIST, signifying literally to stand back, away from, or against, is always an act of more or less force when applied to persons; it is mostly a culpable action, as when men resist lawful authority; resistance is, in fact, always hed, unless in case of actual self-defence. Opposition may be made in any form, as when we oppose a person's admittance into a house by our personal efforts: or oppose his admission into a society by a declaration of our opinions. Resistance is always a direct action, as when we resist an invading army by the sword, or resist the evidence of our senses by denying our assent ; or, in relation to things, when wood or any
hard substance resists the violent efforts of steel or irnn to make an impression.

So hot th' assault, so high the tumult rose, While ours defend, and whle the Greeks oppose.

Dryden. To do all onr sole dellght,
As being the contrary to his high will
Whom we resist.

Mmion.
With in WITHSTAND has the force of $r e$ in resist, and THW ART, from the German quer, cross, signifying to come across, are modes of resistance applicable only to conscious agents. To withstand is negative; it implies not to yield to any foreign agency: thus, a person withstands the entreaties of another to comply with a request. To thwart is positive; it is actively to cross the will of another : thus humorsome people are perpetually thwarting the wishes of those with whom they are in connection. It is a happy thing when a young man can withstand the allurements of pleasure. It is a part of a Christian's duty to bear with patience the untoward events of life that thwart his purposes.

Partcular instances of second-sight have been given with such evidence, as neither Bacon nor Boyle have been able to resist.

Johnson.
For twice flve days the good old seer withstood Th' intended treason, and was dumb to blood.

Dryden.
The understanding and will never disagreed (before the fall); for the proposals of the one never thooarted the inclinations of the other.

Sodtr.
OPTION, CHOICE.
OPTION is immediately of Latin derivation, and is consequently a term of less frequent use than the word CHOICE, which has been shown ( $v$. To choose) to be of Celtic origin. The former term, from the Greek onrouat, to see or consider, implies an uncontrolled act of the mind; the latter a simple leaning of the will. We speak of option only as regards one's freednm from external con3 traint in the act of choosing: one speaks of choice only as the simple. act itself. The option or the power of choosing is given; the choice itself is made: hence we say a thing is at a person's option, or it is his own option, or the option is left to him , in order to designate bis freedom of choice more strongly than is expressed by the word choice itstle,

While they talk, we must make our choice: they or the Jacohins. We have no other option.

вовия,

## ORDER, METHOD, RULE.

ORDER (v. To dispose) is applied in general to everything that is disposed; METHOD, in French méthode, Latin methodus, Greek $\mu \in \theta o \delta o s$, from $\mu \varepsilon r a$ and o $\delta 0$, signifying the ready or right way to do a thing; and RULE, from the Latin regula, a rule, and rego, to govern, direct, or make straight, the former expressing the act of making a thing straight or that by which it is made so, the latter the abstract quality of being so made, are applied only to that which is done; the order lies in consulting the time, the place, and the object, so as to make them accord; the method consists in the right choice of means to an end; the rule consists in that which will keep us in the right way. Where there is a number of objects there must be order in the disposition of them; where there is work to carry on, or any object to obtain, or any art to follow, there must be method in the pursuit; a tradesmas or merchant must have method in keeping his ac. counts; a teacher must have a method for the communication of instruction: the rule is the part of the method; it is that on which the method rests; there cannot be method without mule, but there may be rule without method; the method varies with the thing that is to be done; the rule is that which is permanent, and serves as a guide under all circumstances. We adopt the method and follow the mule. A painter adopts a certain method of pre. paring his colors according to the rules laid down by his art.
He was a mighty lover of regularity and order, and managed his atiairs with the ntmost exactness.

Birnet.
It will be in vain to talk to yon concerming the method I think best to be observed in schools.

Locke.
A rule that relates even to the smallest part of our life, is of great benefit to us, merely as it is a rule.

Law.
Order is said of every complicated machine, either of a physical or a morsl kind: the order of the universe, by which every part is made to harmonize to the other part, and all individually to tbe whole collectively, is that which consti.
tutes its principal beauty: as rational beings, we aim at introducing the same order into the moral scheme of society: order is, therefore, that which is founded upon the nature of things, and seems in its extensive scuse to comprehend all the rest. Method is the work of the understanding, mostly as it is employed in the mechanical process, sometimes, bowover, as respects intellectual objects. Rule is said either as it respects mechanical and physical actions or moral conduct. The term rule is, however, as before observed, employed distinctly from either order or method, for it applies to the moral conduct of the individual. The Christian religion contains rules for the guidance of our conduct in all the relations of buman society.
The order and method of nature is generally very different from our measures and proportions.

Bubke.
Their story I revolv'd; and reverent own'd
Their polish'd arts of rule, their humad virtues.
Mallet.
As epithets, orderly, methodical, and regular, are applied to persons and even to things according to the above distinccion of the nouns: an orderly man, or an orderly society, is one that adheres to the established order of things; the former in his domestic habits, the latter in their public capacity, their social mectings, and their social measures. A methodical man is one who adopts method in all he sets about; such a one may sometimes run into the extreme of formality, by being precise where precision is not necessary: we cannot speak of a methodical society, for method is altogether a personal quality. A man is regular, inasmuch as he follows a certain mule in his moral actions, and thereby preserves a uniformity of conduct: a regular society is one founded by a certain prescribed mule. So we say, an orderly proceeding, or an orderly course, for what is done in due order: a regular proceeding, or a regular course, which goes on according to a prescribed rule; a methodical grammar, a methodical delineation, and the like, for what is done according to a given method.

[^94]Chapman.

To begin methodically, I should enjoin yoa travel, for absence doth remove the cause, removing the object.

Suceling.
Upon her aearer approach to Hercules, she stepped before the other lady, who came forward with a regular composed carriage. Tatlea.

## orifice, perforation.

ORIFICE, in Latin orificium or orifo cium, from os and factum, signifies a made mouth, that is, an opening made, a it were. PERFORATION, in Latin per. foratio, from perforo, signifies a piercing through.

These terms are both scientifically em. ployed to designate certain cavlties in the human body; but the former re spects that which is natural, the latter that which is artificial: all the vessels of the human body have their orifices, which are so constructed as to open or close of themselves. Surgeons are fre. quently obliged to make perforations into the bones: sometimes perforation may describe what comes from a natural process, but it denotes a cavity made through a solid substance; but the orifice is par. ticularly applicable to such openings as most resemble the mouth in form and use. In this manner the words may be extended in their application to other bodies besides animal substances, and in other sciences besides anatomy: hence we speak of the orifice of a tube; the orifice of any flower, and the like; or the perforation of a tree, by means of a can. non-ball or an iron instrument.

Etna was bored through the top with a monstrous orifice.

ADDison.
Herein may be perceived slender perforations, at which may be expressed a hlack fecu* lent matter.

Sir Thomas Browne.

## ORAGIN, ORIGINAL, BIEGINNING, RISE, SOURCE.

The ORIGIN and ORIGINAL both come from the Latin orior, to rise; the former designating the abstract property of rising, the latter the thing that is risen; the first of its klnd from which others rise. Origin refers us to the cause as well as the period of beginning; original is said of those things which give an origin to another: the origin serves to date the existence of a thing; the term original serves to show the author of a thing, and is opposed to the copy. The
arigin of the world is described in the first chapter of Genesis; Adam was the original from whom all the human race has sprung.

Christianlty explains the origin of all the disorders which at present take place on earth.

Blatr.
And had his better half, his bride, Carv'd from th' original, his side. Butles.
i Origin has respect to the cause, BE GINNING simply to the period, of existence: everything owes its existence to the origin; it dates its existence from the beginning; there cannot be an origin without a beginning; but there may be a beginning where we do not speak of an origin. We look to the origin of a thing in order to learn its nature: we look to the beginning in order to learn its duration. When we have discovered the origin of a quarrel, we are in a fair way of becoming acquainted with the aggressors; when we trace a quarrel to the beginning, we may easily ascertain how long it has lasted.

The origin of forms, Pyropilus, as it is thought the noblest, 80 if I mistake not, it hath been found one of the most perplexing inquiries that belong to natural philosophy.

Boyle.
But wit and weaving had the same beginning, Pallas first tanght in poetry and spinning.

SwIFT.
Origin and RISE are both employed for the primary state of existence; but the latter is a much more familiar term than the former: we speak of the origin of an empire, the origin of a family, the origin of a dispute, and the like; but we say that a river takes its rise from a certain mountain, that certain disorders take their rise from particular circumstances which happen in early life: it is, moreover, observable that the term origin is confined solely to the first commencement of a thing's existence; but rise comprehends its gradual progress in the first stages of its existence; the origin of the noblest families is in the first instance sometimes ignoble; the largest rivers take their rise in small streams. We look to the origin as to the cause of existence: we look to the rise as to the situation in which the thing commences to exist, or the process by which it grows ap into existence.
If all the parts which were ever questioned
in our gospels were given up, it would not affect the origin of the religion in the smallest degree. Palez.
The friendship which is to be practised or expected by common mortals must take its rise from mutual pleasure. Johnson.

The origin and rise are said of only one object; the SOURCE is said of that which produces a succession of objects: the origin of evil in general has given rise to much idle speculation; the love of pleasure is the source of incalculable mischiefs to individuals, as well as to society at large: the origin exists but once; the source is lasting: the origin of every family is to be traced to our first parent, Adam; we have a never-failing source of consolation in religion.
Nature which contemns its origin
Cannot be bordered certain within itself.
Sharspears
One source of the sublime is inflity. Bureg.

## TO OUTLIVE, SURVIVE.

To OUTLIVE is literally to live out the life of another, to live longer: to SURVIVE, in French survivre, is to live beyond any given period; the former is employed to express the comparison between two lives; the latter to denote a protracted existence beyond any given term: one person is said properly to outlive another who enjoys a longer life; but we speak of surviving persons or things, in an indefinite or unqualified manner: it is not a peculiar blessing to outlive all our nearest relatives and friends; no man can be happy in surviving his honor.

A man never outlives his conscience, and that for this cause ooly he cannot outlive himself.

South.

Those that survive let Rome reward with love.
Shakspeare.

## OUTWARD, EXTERNAL, EXTERIOR.

OUTWARD, or inclined to the out, after the manner of the out, indefinitely describes the situation; EXTERNAL, from the Latin externus and extra, is more definite in its sense, since it is employed only in regard to such objects as are conceived to be independent of man as a thinking being: hence, we may speak of the outward part of a building, of a board, of a table, a box, and the like; but of external objects acting on the mind, or of an external agency. EXTERIOR is atill more
definite than either, as it expresses a higher degree of the outward or external; the former being in tbe comparative, and the latter two in the positive degree: when we speak of anything which has two coats, it is usual to designate the outermost by the name of the exterior; when we speak simply of the surface, without reference to anything behind, it is denominated external: as the exterior coat of a walnut, or the external surface of things. In the moral application, the external or outward is that which comes simply to the view; but the exterior is that which is prominent, and which consequently may conceal something: a man may sometimes neglect the outside, who is altogether mindful of the in: a man with a pleasing exterior will sometimes gain more friends than he who has more solid merit.

And though my outhourd state misfortune hath Depress'd thus low, it cannot reach my faith.

Denham.
The controversy about the reality of external ovils is now at an end.

Joynson.
Bnt when a monarch sins, it should be secret, To keep eaterior show of sunctity, Maintain respect, and cover bad example.

Dryden.
to overbalance, outweigh, prePONDERATE.
To OVERBALANCE is to throw the halance over on one side. To OUTWEIGH is to exceed in weight. To PREPONDERATE, from $p r c e$, before, and pondus, a weight, signifies also to exceed in weight. Although these terms approach so near to each other in their original meaning, yet they have now a different application: in the proper sense, a person overbalances himself who loses his balance and goes on one side; a heavy body outweighs one that is light, when they are put into the same pair of scales. Overbalance and outweigh are likewise used in the improper application ; preponderate is never used otherwise: things are said to overbalanee which are supposed to turn the scale to one side or the other; they are said to outweigh when they are to be weighed against each other; they are said to preponderate when one weighs everything else down: the evils which arise from innovations in society commonly overbalance the good; the will of a par.
ent should outweigh every personal consideration in the mind; which will al. ways be the case where the power of religion preponderates.

Whatever any man may have written or done: his precepts or his valor will scarcely overbalance the nnimportant uniformity which runs through his time.
If endless ages can outweigh an hour,
Let not the laurel hut the palm inspire. Youno.
Looks whicl do not correspond with the heart cannot be assumed without labor, nor continued without pain; the rootive to relinquish them must, therefore, soon preponderate.

HAWKESWORTH.

## TO OVERBEAR, BEAR DOWN, OVER-

 POWER, OVERWHELM, SUBDUE.To OVERBEAR is to bear one's self over another, that is, to make another bear one's weight; to BEAR DOWN is literally to bring down by bearing upon; to OVERPOWER is to get the power over an object; to OVERWHELM, from whelm or wheel, signifies to turn quite round as well as over; to SUBDDE (v. To conquer) is literally to bring or put underneath. A man overbears by carrying himself higher than others, and putting to silence those who might claim an equality with him; an overbearing demeanor is most conspicnous in narrow circles, where an individual, from certain casual advantages, affects a superiority over the members of the same community. To bear down is an act of greater violence: one bears down opposition; it is properly the opposing force to force until one side yields, as when one party bears another down. Overpower, as the term implies, belongs to the exercise of power which may be either physical or moral : one may be overpowered by another, who in a struggle gets one into his power ; or one may be overpowered in an argument, when the argu. ment of one's antagonist is such as to bring one to silence. One is overborne or borne down by the exertion of individuals; overpowered by the active efforts of indi. viduals, or by the force of circumstances; overwhelned by circumstances or things only: overborne by another of superior influence; borne down by the force of his attack; overpowered by numbers, by entreaties, by looks, and the like; and overwhelmed by the torrent of words, or tho impetuosity of the attack.

## Crowding on the last the frst impel

## Till ovorborne with weight the Cyprians fell.

Dixden.
The residue were so disordered as they could oot conveniently figlit or dy, and not oaly justled and bore down one another, but in their confused tumbling back, lurake a part of the avantguard.

Hayward.
After the death of Crassus, Pompey found himwelf outwitted by Cesar ; he broke with him, overpowered him in the senate, and caused many anjast decrees to pass against him. Dryden.
What age is this where honest men
Placed at the helm,
A sea of some foul mouth or pen
Shall overwhelm?
B. Jonson.

Overpower and overwhelm denote a partial superiority; subdue denotes that which is permanent and positive: we may overpower or overwhelm for a time, or to a certain degree; but to subdue is to get an entire and lasting superiority. Overpower and overwhelm are said of what passes between persons nearly on a level; but subdue is said of those who are, or may be, reduced to a low state of inferiority: individuals or armies are overpowered or overwhelmed; individuals or nations are subdued.

Nothing could have subdued nature To such a lowness, but his unkind daughter.

Shakepeare.
In the moral or extended application, overbear and bear down both imply force or violence, but the latter even more than the former: one passion may be said to overbear another, or to overbear reason. Whatever bears down carries all before it.

The duty of fear, like that of other passions, is not to overlear reasou, but to assist it.

Johneon.
Contention, like a horse
Full of high feeding, madly hath broke loose And bears down all before him. Shakspeari.

To overpower, overwhelm, and subdue, are likewise applied to the moral feelings, $3 s$ well as to the external relations of things; but the former two are the effects of external circumstances ; the latter follows from the exercise of the reasoning powers: the tender feelings are overpowered; the mind is overohelmed with painful feelings; the unruly passions are subdued by the force of religious contemplation: a person may be so overpowered on neeing s dying friend, as to be unable to
speak; a person may be so overwhelmed with grief, upon the death of a near and dear relative, as to be unable to attend to his ordinary avocations; the passion of anger has been so completely subdued by the influence of religion on the heart, that instances bave been known of the most irascible tempers being converted into the most mild and forbearing.
All colors that are more luminous (than greea)
overpower and dissipate the animal spirits which
are employed ia sight.
Snch implements of mischief as shall dash
To pieces, and overwhelni whatever stands
Adverse.
Mulut.
For what avails
Valor or streugth, though matchless, quell'd with pain,
Which all subdues.
Mmon.

## TO OVERFLOW, INUNDATE, DELUGE.

What OVERFLOWS simply flows over; what INUNDATES (from in and unda, a wave) flows into ; what DELUGES (from diluo) wasbes away.

The term overflow bespeaks abundance; whatever exceeds the measure of contents must flow over, because it is more tban can be held: to inundate bespeaks not only abundance, but vehemence; when it inundates it flons in faster than is desired, it fills to an inconvenient beight: to deluge bespeaks impetuosity; a deluge irresistibly carries away all before it. This explanation of these terms in their proper sense will illustrate their improper application: the heart is said to overflowo with joy, with grief, with bitterness, and the like, in order to denote the superabundance of the thing; a country is said to be inundated by swarms of inhabitants, when speaking of numbers who intrude themselves to the annoyance of the natives; the town is said to be deluged with publications of different kinds, when they appear in such profusion and in such quick succession as to supersede others of more value.
I am too full of you not to overfiono npou those I converse with.

Pope.
There was guch an inundation of speakers, yonng speakers in every sense of the word, that neither my Lord Germaine nor myself could find room for a single word.

Gisaon.
To all those who did not wish to deluge their country in blood, the accepting of EIng William was an act of pecessity.

Borix

## OVERTURN

## TO OVERRULE, SUPERBEDE.

To OVERROLE is literally to get the superiority of rule; and to SUPERSEDE is to get the upper or superior seat; but the former is employed only as the act of persons: the latter is applied to things as the agents: a man may be overruled in Lis domestic government, or he may be overruled in a public assembly, or he may be overruled in the cabinet; large works in general supersede the necessity of smaller ones, by containing that which is superior both in quantity and quality.

When fancy begias to be overmuled by reason, and corpected by experience, the most artful tale raises but little curiosity.

Jounson,
Christoval received a commission empowering him to supereade Cortes. Rosertson.

## OVERSPREAD, OVERRUN, RAVAGE.

To OVERSPREAD signifies simply to cover the whole surface of a body; but to OVERRUN is a mode of spreading, namely, by running; things in general, therefore, are said to overspread which admit of extension; nothing can be said to overrun but what literally or figuratively runs: the face is overspread with spots; the ground is overrun with weeds. To overrun and to RAVAGE are both employed to imply the active and extended destruction of an enemy; but the former expresses more than the latter: a small body may ravage in particular parts; but imnense numbers are said to overrun, as they run into every part; the Barbarians overran all Europe, and settled in different countries; detachments are sent out to ravage the country or neighborhood.

The storm of hail and fire, with the darknesa Lhat overspread the laod for three days, are desoribed with great streagth.

Andiaon.
Most despotic governments are naturally overmun with ignorance and barbarity. ADDIson.

While Herod was absent, the thieves of Trachonites ravaged with their depredations all the parts of Judea and Coolo-Syria that lay withio their reach.

Prideate.
TO OVERTURN, OVERTHROW, SUBVERT, INVERT, REVERSE.
To OVERTCRN is simply to turn over, which may be more or less gradual; but to OVERTHROW is to throw over, which will be more or less violent. To overturn is to turn a thing either with its side or
its bottom upward; but to SUBVERT is to turn that under which should be upward: to REVERSE is to turn that be fore which should be behind; and to INVERT is to place that on its head which should rest on its feet. These terms differ accordingly in their application and circumstances: things are overturned by contrivance and gradual means; infidels attempt to overturn Christianity by the arts of ridicule and falsebood: governments are overthrown by violence. To overturn is said of small matters; to subvert only of national or large concerns: domestic economy may be overturned; religious or political establishments may be subverted: that may be overturned which is simply set up; that is subverted which has been established: an assertion may be overturned; the best sanctioned principles may by artifice be subverted.

To overturn, overthrow, and subvert generally involve the destruction of the thing so overturned, overthrown, or subverted, or at least renders it for the time useless, and are, therefore, mostly unallowed acts; but reverse and invert, which have a more particular application, have a less specific character of propriety: we may reverse a proposition by taking the negative instead of the affirmative; a decree may be reversed so as to render it nugatory; but both of these acts may be right or wrong, according to circumstances: likewise, the order of particular things may be inverted to suit the convenience of parties; but the order of society canoot be inverted without subverting all the principles on which civil society is built.

An age is rip'ning in revolving fate, When Troy shall overturn the Grecian State. Drydey.
Thus prudes, by charactera o'erthrown, Imagine that they raise their own.

Gat.
Others, from puhlic spirit, labored to prevent a civil war; which, whatever party should prevail, must shake, and perhaps aubvert, the Spanish power.

Ropertion.
Our ancestors affected a certain pomp of style, and this affectation, I suspect, was tha true cause of their ao frequently inverting the natural order of their words, especially in poetry.

TyRfirtr.
He who walks not oprightly has neitber from the preaumption of Grod's mercy reversing the decree of his justice, nor from his own purposes of a future repentance, any aure ground to set his foot upon

Souta

## TO OVERWIIELM, CRUSH.

To OVERWHELM ( $v$. Tb overbear) is to cover with a heavy body, so that one should sink under it: to CRUSH is to destroy the consistency of a thing by violent pressure: a thing may be crushed by being overwhelmed, but it may be overwhelmed without being crushed; and it may be crushed without being overwhelmed: the girl Tarpeia, who betrayed the Capitoline Hill to the Sabines, is said to have been overwhelmed with their arms, by which she was crushed to death: when many persons fall on one, he may be overwhelmed, but not necessarily crushed: when a wagon goes over a body, it may be crushed, but not overwhelmed.

Let not the political metaphysies of Jacobins break prison, to burst like a Levanter, to sweep the earth with their hurricane, and to break up the fountains of the great deep to overwhelm us.

Burke,
Molt his cold heart, and wake dead nature in him, Crush him in thy arms.

Otway.

## P.

PACE, STEP.
PACE, in French pas, Latin passus, comes from the Hebrew pashat, to pass, and signifies the act of passing, or the ground passed over. STEP, which comes through the medium of the Northern languages, from the same source as the Greek $\sigma \tau \in \ell \beta \omega$, to tread, signifies the act of stepping, or the ground atepped over.

As respects the act, the pace expresses the general manner of passing on, or moving the body; the step implies the manner of setting or extending the foot: the pace is distinguished by being either $n$ walk or a run; and in regard to horses a trot or a gallop: the step is distinguished by heing long or short, to the right or left, forward or backward. The same pace may be modified so as to be more or less easy, more or less quick; the step may vary as it is light or heary, graceful or ungraceful, long or short: we may go a slow pace with long steps, or we may go a quick pace with short steps: a slow pace is hest suited to the solemnity of a funeral ; a long step must be taken hy soldiers in a slow march

To-morrow, to-morrow, and to-morrow, Creeps in a stealing paee from day to day.

Shakspeark
Grace was in all her steps, Heaven in her eye, In every gesture dignity and love. Muron.

As respects the space passed or step ped over, the pace is a measured distance, formed by a long step; the step, on the other hand, is indefinitely employed for any space stepped over, but particularly that ordinary space which one steps over withont an effort: a thnusand paces was the Roman measurement for a mile; a step or two designates almost the shortest possible distance.

## PAIN, PANG, AGONY, ANGUISH.

PAIN, in Saxon pin, German pein, ete., is connected with the Latin poena, and the Greek $\pi o t v \eta$, punishment, $\pi 0 \nu 0$, labor, and $\pi \varepsilon \nu 0 \mu a t$, to be poor or in trouble. PANG is but a variation of pain. AGONY comes from the Greek $a y \omega \nu L \zeta \omega$, to struggle or contend, signifying the labor or pain of a struggle. ANGUISH, from the Latin ango, contracted from ante and ago, to act against, or in direct opposition to, signifies the pain arising from severe pressure.

Pain, which expresses the feeling that is most repugnant to the nature of all sensible heings, is here the generic, and the rest specific terms: pain and agony are applied indiscriminately to what is physical and mental; pang and anguish mostly respect that which is mental : pain signifies either an individual feeling or a permanent state; pang is only a particular feeling: agony is sometimes employed for the individual feeling, but more commonly for the state; anguish is always employed for the state. Pain is indefinite with regard to the degree; it may rise to the higlest, or sink to the lowest possible degree; the rest are positively high degrees of pain: the pang is a sharp pain; the agony is a severe and permanent pain; the anguish is an overwhelming pain.

We should pass on from erime to crime, heedless and remorseless, if misery did not stand in our way, and our own pains sdmonish us of our folly.

JOHNBON.
What pangs the tender breast of Dido tore!
Drtden
Thon shalt behold him stretch'd in all the agonied Of a tormenting and a shameful death. OTwat.

## PaLE

## PALATE, TASTE.

PALATE, in Latin palatum, comes ei ther from the Greek $\pi a \omega$, to eat, or, which is more probable, from the Etruscan word farlantum, signifying the roof or arch of heaven, or, by an extended application, the roof of the mouth. TASTE comes from the German tasten, to touch lightly, because the sense of taste requires but the slightest touch to excite it.

Palate is, in an improper sense, employed for taste, because it is the seat of taste; but taste is never emplayed for palate: a person is said to have a nice palate when he is nice in what he eats or drinks; but his taste extends to all matters of sense, as well as those which are intellectual. A man of taste, or of a nice taste, conveys much more as a characteristic than a man of a nice palate: the former is said only in a good sense; but the latter is particularly applicable to the epicure.
No fruit our palate courts, or flow'r our smell. Jenys. In more exalted joys to fix our taste, And wean us from delights that cannot last.

Jenyms.

## PALE, PALLID, WAN.

PALE, in French pale, and PALLID, in Latin pallidus, both come from palleo, to turn pale, which probably comes from the Greek $\pi a \lambda \lambda \nu \nu \omega$, to make white, and that from $\pi a \lambda \eta$, flour. WAN is connected with want and wane, signifying, in general, a deficiency or a losing color.

Pallid rises upon pale, and wan upon pallid the absence of color in any degree, where color is a requisite quality, constitutes paleness; but pallidness is an excess of paleness, and wan is an unusual degree of pallidness: paleness in the countenance may be temporary; but pallidness and wanness are permanent; fear, or any sudden emotion, may produce paleness; but protracted sickness, hunger, and fatigue bring on pallidness; and when these calamities are combined and heigbtened by every aggravation, they may produce that which is peculiarly termed wanness.
Now morn, her lamp pale glimmering on the sight,
Scatter'd before her sun reluctant night.
FALCONE
Her spirits faint,
Her cheeks assnme a pallid tint.
ADDISOM.

## PART

And with them comes a third with regal pomp, But faded splendor wan.

Milton.

## TO PALPITATE, FLUTTER, PANT, GASP.

PALPITATE, in Latin palpitatus, from palpito, is a frequentative of the Greek $\pi \alpha \lambda \lambda \omega$, to vibrate. FLUTTER ia a frequentative of fly, aignifying to fly backward and forward in an agitated manner. PANT, probably derived from pent, and the Latin pendo, to hang in a atate of suspense, so aa not to be able to move backward or forward, as is the case with the breath when one pants. GASP is a variation of gape, which is the ordinary accompaniment in the action of gasping.
These terms agree in a particular manner, as they respect the irregular action of the heart or lungs : the former two are aaid of the heart; and the latter two of the lings or breath; to palpitate expresses that which is strong; it is a strong beating of the blood against the veasels of the heart: to futter expresses that which is rapid; it is a violent and alternate motion of the blood backward and forward: fear and suspense produce commonly palpitation, but joy and hope produce a fluttering; panting is, with regard to the breath, what palpitating is with regard to the heart ; panting is occaaioned by the inflated state of the reapiratory organs which renders this palpitating neceasary: gasping differs from the former, inasmuch as it denotes a direct stoppage of the hreath; a cessation of action in the respiratory organs.

No plays have oftener fllled the eyes with lears, and the breast with palpitation, than those which are variegated with interludes of mirth.

JOHNSON.
She springs aloft, with elerated pride, Above the tangling mass of low desires, That bind the fluttering crowd. Thomson.
All nature fades extinct, and she alone, Heard, felt, and seen, possesses every thought, Fills every sense, and pants in every vein.

Thomson.
Had not the soul thls outlet to the skies, In this vast vessel of the universe,
How shonld we gasp, as in an empty void I
Young.

## PARABIE, ALLEGORY.

Botr these terms imply a veiled mode of speech, which aerves more or less to conceal the main object of the diacourse by presenting it under the appearance of
something elae, which accords with It in most of the particulars: the PARABLE, in French parabole, Greek mapaßon $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, from $\pi a \rho a \beta a \lambda \lambda \omega$, signifying what ia thrown out or set hefore one, in lien of something which it reacmhlea, is mostly employed for moral purposes; the ALLEGORY ( $v$, F'igure) in deacribing historical eventa. The parable anhstitutes aome other subject or agent, who is repreaented under a character that is suita ble to the one referred to. In the allego. $r y$ are introduced strange and arbitrary persons in the place of the real personages, or imaginary characteristics, and circumstances are ascribed to real persons. The parable is principally employ. ed in the sacred writings; the allegory forms a grand feature in the productions of the Eastern nations.

What is thy fulsome parable to me?
My body is from all diseases free. Driden.
Neither must we draw out our allegory too long, lest either we make ourselves obscure, or fall iuto affectation which is childish.
B. Jonson.

PART, DIVISION, PORTION, SHARE.
PART, in Latin pars, from the Hebrew peresh, to divide, is a term not only of more general use, but of more comprehensive meaning than DIVISION (v. Ta divide); it is always employed for the thing divided, hat division may be either employed for the act of dividing, or the thing that is divided: but in all cases the word division has always a reference to some action, and the agent by whom it has been performed; whereas part, which is perfectly abatract, has altogether lost thia idea. We alwaya speak of the part as opposed to the whole, but of the division as it has been made of the whole. A part is formed of itself by accident, or made by deaign ; a division is alwaya the effect of design : a part is indefinite as to its quantity or nature, it may be large or amall, round or square, of any dimension, of any form, of any aize, or of any character; but a division is always regnlated by some certain principles, it depends upon the circumstances of the divider and thing to be divided. A page, a line, or a word, is the part of any hook; bnt the hooks, chaptera, sectiona, and paragraphs are the divisions of the book

Stones, wood, water, air, and the like, are parts of the world; fire, air, earth, and water are physical divisions of the globe; continents, seas, rivers, mountains, and the like, are geographical divisions, under which are likewise included its political divisions into countries, kingdoms, etc.

> Shall little haughty ignerance proneunce His works unwise, of which the smallest part Exceeds the narrew vision ef her mind.

Tномson.
A division (in a discourse) shonld be natural and simple.

Blain.
A part may be detached from the whole; a division is always conceived of in coonection with the whole; PORTION, in Latin portio, is supposed to be changed from partio, whieh comes from partior, to distribute, and originally from peresh, as the word part; and SHARE, in Saxon seyran, to divide, German scheren, to sheer, in all probability from the Hebrew karah, to break in pieees, are partieular species of divisions, which are said of sueh matters as are assiguable to individuals; portion respects individuals without any distinction; share respects individuals speeially referred to. The portion of happiness whieh falls to every man's lot is more equal than is generally supposed; the share which partuers have in the profits of any undertaking depends upon the sum whieh eaeh has contributed toward its completion. The portion is that which simply comes to any one; but the share is that which belongs to him by a certain right. According to the ancient customs of Normandy, the daughters could have no more than a third part of the property for their share, which was divided in equal portions between them.

The jars of gen'rous wine, Acestes' gift, He set abroacl, and for the feast prepar'd, In equal portions with the ven'son shar'd.

Dryden.
The menarch, en whom fertile Nile bestows All which that grateful earth can bear, Deceives himself, if he suppose
That more than this falls to his share.
Cowley.

## PaRt, PIECE, PATCH.

PART ( $v . P a r t$ ) in its strict sense is taken in eonnection with the whole; PIECE, in French pièce, in Hebrew pas, to diminish, siguifying the thing in its fiminished form, that which is less than
a whole, is the part detached from the whole; and the PATCH, which is a variation of piece, is that piece which is distinguished from others.

Things may be divided into parts without any express separation; but when divided into pieces they are aetually cut asunder. Hence we may speak of a loaf as divided into twelve parts when it is conceived only to be so ; and divided into twelve pieces when it is really so. On this ground we talk of the parts of a country, but not of the pieces; and of a piece of land, not a part of land; so, likewise, letters are said to be the component parts of a word, but the half or the quarter of any given letter is ealled a piece. The ehapters, the pages, the lines, ete., are the various parts of a book; certain passages or quantities drawn from the book are called pieces: the parts of matter may be infinitely decomposed; various bodies may be formed out of so ductile a piece of matter as clay. The piece is that whieh may sometimes serve as a wholc; but the patch is that which is always broken add disjointed, a something imperfect: many things may be formed out of a picce; but the patch only serves to fill up a ehasm.

I understand beth these sides te be net only returns, but purts of the frent.

Bacon.
These lesser recks or great bulky stenes, that lie scattered in the sea or upon the land, are they net manifest fragments and pieces of these greater masses?

Burnet.
It hath been much feared by the great critle Lipsins, lest some more impolitic hand hath sewed many patches of base cloth into that rich web, as his own metaphor expresses it. SElden.

## TO PARTAKE, PARTICIPATE, SHARE.

PARTAKE and PARTICIPATE, the one English, and the other Latin, signify literally to take a part in a thing, and may he applied either in the sense of having a part in more than one objeet at the same time, or to have a part with others in the same object. In the first sense partake is the more familiar and ordinary expression, as a body may be said to partake of the essence of a salt and an acid. Partieipate is also used in the same sense, sometimes in poetry.

This passion may partake of the nature ef these which regard self-preservation. Buser,

## PARTICULAR

Dur God, when heav'n and earth he did create, Form'd man, who should of both participate.

Denkam.
In the sense of having a part with others in the same object, to partake is a selfish action, to participate is either s selfish or benevolent action; we partake of that which pleases ourselves, we participate in that which pleases others, or in their pleasures.

Portia, go in awhile,
And by-and-hy thy hosom shall partake The secrets of my heart.

Shakspeare,
Of fellowship I speak,
Such as I seek fit to participate all rational delights
Wherein the brute cannot be hamal consort.
MrLTON.
To partake is the get of taking or getting a thing to one's self; to SHARE is the act of having a title to a share, or being in the habit of receiving a share: we msy, therefore, partake of a thing without sharing it, and share it without partaking. We partake of things mostly through the medium of the senses: whstever, therefore, we tske a part in, whether grstuitously or cssually, thst we msy be said to partake of; in this msmner we partake of sD entertsinment without sharing it: on the other hand, we share things thast promise to be of sdvantsge or profit, and what we share is whst we claim; in this msnner we share a sum of money which has been left to us in common with others.

All else of nature's common gift partake, Unhappy Dido was alone awake. Dryden.
Avoiding love, I had not fonnd despair,
Bnt ahcir'd with savage beasts the common air.
Dryden.
PARTICULAR, SINGULAR, ODD, ECCENTRIC, strange.
PARTICULAR, in French particulier, Lstin' particularis, from particula, a particle, signifies belonging to a particle or s very small part. SINGULAR, in French singulier, Latin singularis, from singulus, every one, very probably comes from the Hebrew igelet, peculium, or private. ODD, in Swedish $u d d$, without an equal, siguifies literslly unmatched ( $v$. Odd). ECCENTRIC, from $e x$ and centre, signifies out of the centre or direct line. STRANGE, in French étrange, Latid extra, snd Greek $\varepsilon \xi \xi_{j}$ out of, signifies out of
some other psit, or not belonging to this psrt.

All these terms are employed either as characteristics of persons or things. What is particular belongs to some small particle or point to which it is confined; whst is singular is single, or the only one of its kind; what is odd is without 80 equal or anything with which it is fit to pair; what is eccentric is not to be brought within soy rule or estimate, it devistes to the right snd the left ; what is strange is different from that which one is accustomed to see, it does not admit of comparison or sssimilstion. A persod is particular as it respects bimself; be is singular as it respects others; be is particular in his habits or modes of action; he is singular in that which is sbout him; we may be particular or singular in our dress; in the former case we study the minute points of our dress to plesse ourselves; in the latter case we adopt a mode of dress that distinguishes us from sll others.

There is such a particularity forever affect-
ed hy great beanties, that they are encumbered
with their charms in all they say or do.
Hooses.
Singularity is only vicious, as it makes men act contrary to reason.

Admison.
One is odd, eccentric, and strange, more as it respects established modes, forms, and rules, than individusl circumstances: a person is odd when his actions or bis words bear no resemblance to that of others; he is eccentric if he irregulsrly departs from the customary modes of proceeding; he is strange when that which he does makes him new or unknown to those who sre about him. Particularity and singularity sre not alwsys taken in a bsd sense; oddness, eccentricity, snd strangeness are never taken in a good one. A person ought to be particular in the choice of his society, his amusements, his books, and the like; he ought to be singular in virtue, when vice is unfortunstely prevslent: but particularity becomes ridiculous when it respects trifles; and singularity becomes culpable when it is not wsrrauted by the most imperious necessity. As oddness, eccentricity, and strangeness consist in the violation of good order, of the decencies of human life, or the more important
points of moral duty, they can never he justifiable and are often unpardonable. An odd man whom no one can associate with, and who likes to associate with no one, is an outcast by nature, and a hurden to the society which is trouhled with hia presence. An eccentric character, who distinguishes himself by nothing but the breach of every established rule, is a jeing who deserves nothing but ridicule or the more serious treatment of censure or rebuke. A strange person, who makes himself a stranger among those to whom he is bound by the closest ties, ia a being as unfortunate as he is worthless.

Evan parlicularities were becoming in him, as he had a natural ease, that immediately adopted, and saved them from the air of affectation. Lonn Orford.

> So prond, I am no slave ;

So impudent, I own myself no knave ;
So odd, my country's ruin makes me grava.
Pofe.
That acute though eccentric observer, Ronssean, had perceived that, to strike and interest the public, the marvellous must be produced.

Buree.
A atrange prond return you may think I maka yon, madam, when 1 tell you it is not from everybody I would be thus obliged.

Sucklina.
When applied to characterize inanimate objects, they are mostly used in an indifferent, but sometimea in a bad sense: the term particular serves to define or specify, it is opposed to the general or indefinite; a particular day or hour, a particular case, a particular person, are expreasions which confine one'a attention to one precise ohject in distinction from the reat; singular, like the word particular, marks but one object, and that which is clearly pointed out in distinction from the rest; but this term differa from the former, inasmuch as the particular is said only of that which one has arbitrarily made particular, but the singular ia 30 from its own properties: thus a place is particular when we fix upon it, and mark it out in any manner ao that it may be known from others; a place is singular if it have anything in itself which distinguishes it from others. Odd, in an indifferent sense, is opposed to even, and applied to objects in general; an odd number, an odd peraon, an odd book, and the like : but it is also employed in a had sense, to mark objects which are totally
dissimilar to others; thus an odd idea, an odd conceit, an odd whim, an odd way, an odd place. Eccentric is applied in ita proper sense to mathematical lines or circlea, which have not the same centre, and ia never employed in au improper sense: strange, in its proper sense, marks that which is unknown or unusual, as a strange face, a strange figure, a strange place; but in the moral application it is like the word odd, and conveys the unfavorable idea of that which is uncommon and not worth knowing; a strange noiae designates not only that which bas not been heard hefore, but that which it is not desirahle to hear; a strange place may signify not only that which we have been unaccustomed to see, but that which has also much in it that is objectionable.
Artists who propose only the imitation of such a particular person, without election of ideas, have been often reproached for that omission.

Dhyden.

## So singular a madness

Must have a cause as strange as the effect.
DENHAM.
History is the great looking-glass throngh which we may behold with ancestral eyes, not only the various actions of pest ages, and the odd accidents that attend time, bot also discern the different humors of men.

Howell.
Is it not strange that a rational man should worship an ox?

Souta

## PARTICULAR, INDIVIDUAL.

PARTICULAR, v. Peculiar. INDIVIDUAL, in French individuel, Latin individuus, signifies that which cannot he divided.

Both these terms are employed to express one object ; but particular is much more apecific than individual; the particular confines us to one object only of many; hut individual may he aaid of any one object among many. A particular object cannot he misunderstood for any other, while it remains particular; but the individual ohject can never be known from other individual objecta, while it remains only individual. Particular ia a term uaed in regard to individuals, and is opposed to the general: individual is a term used in regard to collectives; and is opposed to the whole or that which ia divisible into parts.
Those particular speeches which are commonly known by the name of rants, are blemishes in our English tragedy.

ADPIROK

## PEACE

To give thee being, 1 lent Out of my slde to thee, nearest my heart, Sobstantial life, to have thee by my side; Henceforth ad indioidual solace dear.

Mexton.

## Patience, endurance, regignaTION.

PATIENCE applies to any troubles or pains whatever, small or great; RESIGNATION is employed only for those of great moment, in which our dearest interests are concerned: patience, when compared with resignation, is somewhat negative; it consists in the abstaining from all complaint or indication of what one suffers: but resignation consists in a positive sentiment of conformity to the existing circumstances, he they what they may. There are perpetual occurrences which are apt to harass the temper, unless one regards them with patience; the misfortunes of some men are of so calamitous a nature, that if they have not acquired the resignation of Christians, they must inevitably sink under them. Patience applies only to the evils that actually hang over us; but there is a resignation connected with a firm trust in Providence which extends its views to futurity, and prepares us for the worst that may happen.

Thoogh the daty of patience and sabjection, where men suffer wrongfully, might possibly be of some force in those times of darkness, yet modern Christianity teaches that then only men are bound to suffer when they are not able to resist.

Socti.
My mother is in that dispirited state of reaignation which is the effect of a long life, and the loss of what is dear to us.

Pope.
As patience lies in the manner and temper of suffering, and ENDURANCE in the act, we may have endurance and not patience: for we may have much to endure, and consequently endurance: but if we do not endure it with an easy mind and without the disturhance of our looks and words, we have not patience: on the other hand, we may have patience but not endurance: for our patience may be exercised by momentary trifles, which are not sufficiently great or lasting to constitute endurance.

There was never yet philosopher
That could endure the toothache patiently.
Shaxspelize.

## PATIENT, PASSIVE, BUBMIBSIVE.

PATIENT, from the Latin patiens, sig. nifies literally suffering, and is applied to things in general, but especially to what is painful. PASSIVE, from the Latin passivus or passus, signifying literally suf fered or acted upon, applies to those matters in which persons have to act; he is patient who bears what he has to suffer without any expression of complaint; he is passive who abstains altogether from acting when he might act.

Patient of thirst and toil, Son of the desert, even the camel feels
Shoot through his wither'd heart the fiery blast. Thombon.
Some men have conceited that the soul has no knowledge or cotion but what is in a passivs way impressed or delineated opon her from the objects of sense.

Moze.
Patience is a virtue springing from principle; passiveness is always involuntary, and may be supposed to arise from want of spirit.

- All I coold end in with any satisfaction was patience and abstineoce ; and althoogh I easity resolved of the last, yet the first was hard to be foond in the circumstances of my business as well as of my health.

Temple.
I koow that we are sopposed a dull, sluggish race, rendered passive by findiag our situation tolerable.

Burie.
Patience is therefore applicable to conscious agents only; passiveness is applicable to inanimate objects which do not act at all, or at least not adversely.

For high above the gronod Their march was; and the passine air upbore Their oimble tread.

Miltos.
Passive and SUBMISSIVE both refer to the will of others; but passive signifies simply not resisting; submissive signifies positively conforming to the will of another.

Not those alone, who passive own ber laws, Bat who, weak rebels, more advance her cause

Pore
He , in delight
Bnth of her beanty and submissive charms, Smil'd with soperior love.

Mintof.

PEACE, QUIET, CALM, TRANQUILLITY.
PEACE, in Latin pax, may either come from pactio, an agreement or compact which produces peace, or it may be con
nected with pausa, and the Greek rave, to cease. QUIET, v. Easy. CALM, v. Calm. TRANQUILLITY, in Latin tranquillitas, from tranquillus, that is, trans, the intensive syllable, and quillus or quietus, signifying altogether or exceedingly quiet.

Peace is a term of more general application and more comprehensive meaning than the others; it respects either communities or individuals; but quiet respects only individuals or small communities. Nations are said to have peace, but not quiet; persons or families may have botin peace and quiet. Peace implies an exemption from public or private broils; quiet implies a freedom from noise or interruption. Every well-disposed family strives to be at peace with its neighbors, and every affectionate family will naturally act in such a manner as to promote peace among all its members: the quiet of a neighborhood is one of its first recommendations as $n$ place of residence.

A false person ought to be looked npon as a public enemy, and a disturber of the peace of mankind.

South.
A paltry tale-bearer will discompose the quiet of a whole family.

South.
Peace and quiet, in regard to individuals, have likewise a reference to the internal state of the mind; but the former expresses the permanent condition of the mind, the latter its transitory condition. Serious matters only can disturb our peace; trivial matters may disturb our quiet: a good man enjoys the peace of a good conscience; but he may have unavoidable cares and anxieties which disturb his quiet. There can be no peace where a man's passioos are perpetually engaged in a conflict with each other; there can be no quiet where a man is embarrassed in his pecuniary affairs.

> Religion directs us rather to secure inward peace than outward ease, to be more careful to woid everlasting torments that light afflictions.
> ThLotson.

Indulgent quiet; power serene,
Mother of peace, and joy, and love. Hognes.
Calm is a species of quiet, which respects objects in the natural or the moral world; it indicates the absence of violent motion as well as violent noise; it is that state which more immediately suc-
ceeds a state of agitation. As storms at sea are frequently preceded as well as succeeded by a dead calm, so political storms have likewise their calms which are their attendants, if not their precursors. Tranquillity, on the other hand, is taken more absolutely: it expresses the situation as it exists in the present moment, independently of what goes before or after; it is sometimes applicable to society, sometimes to natural objects, and sometimes to the mind. The tranquillity of the State cannot be preserved unless the authority of the magistrates be upheld; the tranquillity of the air and of all the surronnding objects is one thing which gives the country its peculiar charms; the tranquillity of the mind in the season of devotion contributes essentially to produce a suitable degree of religious fervor.
Cheerfulness banishes all anxious care and dis. content, soothes and composes the passions, and keeps the soul in a perpetual calm. Addison.

By a patient acquiescence under paioful events for the present, we sball be sure to contract a tranquillity of temper.

Cumberland.
As epithets, these terms bear the same relation to eavh other: people are peaceable as they are disposed to promote peace in society at large, or in their private relations; they are quiet, inasmuch as they abstain from every lond expression, or are exempt from any commotion in themselves; they are calm, inasmuch as they are exempt from the commotion which at any given moment rages around them; they are tranquil, inasmuch as they enjoy an entire exemption from everything which can discompose. A town is peaceable as respects the disposition of the inhabitants: it is quiet as respects its external circumstances, or freedom from bustle and noise: an evening is' calm when the air is lulled into a particular stillness, which is not interrupted by any loud sounds: a scene is tranguil which combines everything calculated to soothe the spirits to rest.

Having awed them into very peaceabls dispositions, and settled his coloay in a very growing condition, he returned home for the benefit of his health.

Burke.
Repntation, beanty, grandeur, nay, royalty itself, would have been gladly exchanged by the possessors for that more quiet and huinble station which you enjoy.

Blall:

Instead of resorting to Jews, computing the value of his father's life, and raising great sums by anticipation, methoda which are better suited to the calm unenterprising diasipation of the present age, Henry Clifford turued outlaw.

Whitagea.
I had been happy
So I had nothing known. Oh now forever Farewell the tranquil mind ! Farewell content. Shakgpeane.

## PEACEABLE, PEACEFUL, PACIFIC.

PEACEABLE is used in the proper sense of the word peace, as it expresses an exemption from strife or contest ( $v$. Peace); but PEACEFUL is used in its improper sense, as it expresses an exemption from agitation or commotion. Persons or things are peaceable; things, particularly in the higher style, are peaceful: a family is designated as peaceable in regard to its inhabitants; a house is designated as a peaceful abode, as it is remote from the bustle and hurry of a multitude. PACIFIC signifies either making peace, or disposed to make peace, and is applied mostly to what we do to others. Ws are peaceable when we do not eogage in quarrels of our own; we are pacific if we wish to keop peace, or make peace, between others. Hence the term peaceable is mostly employed for individual or private concerns, and pacific most properly for national concerns: subjects ought to be peaceable, and monarchs pacific.

I know that my peaceable disposition already ives me a very ill figure here (at Ratisbon). Lady W, Montaoue.
Still as the peaceful walka of ancient night, Silent as ara the lamps that burn in tombs.

Sharspeare.
The tragical and untimely death of the French monarch put an end to all paoifte measures with regard to Scotland.

Robebtson.

## PECULIAR, APPROPRIATE, PARTICULAR.

PECULIAR, in Latin peculiaris, from pecus, cattle, in which property consisted, is said of that which belongs to persons or things; APPROPRLATE, signifying appropriated (v. To ascribe), is said of that which belongs to things only: the faculty of speech is peceliar to man, in distinction from all other animals; an address may be appropriate to the circumstances of the individual. Peculiar and PARTICULAR ( $v$. Particular) are
both employed to distinguish objects; but the former distinguishes the object by showing its conncction with, or alliance to, others; particular distinguishes it by a reference to some acknowledged circumstance; hence we may say that a person enjoys peculiar privileges or particular privileges: in this case peculiar signifies such as are confined to him, and enjoyed by none else; particular signifies such as are distinguished in degree and quality from others of the kind.

Great father Bacchus, to my song repair,
For clust'ring grapes are tby peculiur care.
Dryden.
Modesty and difflence, gentlenesa and meeknesa, were looked upon as the appropriate virtuas of the sex.

Johnaon.
When we trust to the picture that objecta draw of theniselves on the mind, we deceive ourselves, without accurate and particular observation; it is but ill-drawn at first, the outlines are soon blurred, the colors every day grow fainter.

Gnar.

## TO PEEL, PARE.

PEEL, from the Latin pellis, a skin, is the same as to skin or to take off the skin: to PARE, from the Latin paro, to trim or make in order, signifies to smooth. The former of these terms denotes a natural, the latter an artificial process: the former excludes the idea of a forcible separation; the latter includes the idea of separation by means of a knife or sharp instrument: potatoes and apples are peeled after they are boiled; they are pared before they are boiled; an orange and a walnut are always peeled but not pared; a cucumber must be pared and not peeled: in like manner, the skin may sometimes be peeled from the flesh, and the nails are pared.

## PELLUCLD, TRANSPARENT.

PELLUCID, in Latin pellucidus, changed from perlucidus, signifies very shining. TRANSPARENT, in Latin transparens from trans, through or beyond, and pareo, to appear, signifies that which admits light through it. Pellucid is said of that which is pervious to the light, or of that into which the eye can penetrate; trans. parent is said of that which is throughout bright: a stream is pellucid; it ad. mits of the light so as to reflect objects but it is not transparent for the eye.

To Penetrate, Pierce, PERFORATE, BORE.

To PENETRATE (v.Disecrnment) is simply to make an entrance into any substance; to PIERCE, in French percer, Chaldee perek, to break or rend, is to go still deeper: to PERFORATE, from the Latin per, through, and foris, a door, aignifies to make a door through, and to BORE, in Saxon borian, probably changed from fore or foris, a door, signifying to make a door or passage, are to go through, or at all events to make a considerable hollow. To penetrate is a natural and gradual process; in this manner rust penetrates iron, water penetrates wood; to pierce is a violent, and commonly artificial, process; thus an arrow or a bullet pierces through wood. The instrument by which the act of penetration is performed is in no case defined; but that of piercing commonly proceeds by some pointed instrument: we may penetrate the earth by means of a spade, a plough, a knife, or various other instruments; but one pierces the flesh by means of a needle, or one pierces the ground or a wall by means of a pickaxe.

For if when dead we are but dust or clay, Why think of what posterity ahall say? Their praise or censure cannot na concern, Nor ever penetrate the silent urn. JENYna.
Subtle as lightning, bright, and quick, and fierce, Gold through doors and walls did pierce.

Cowley.
Po perforate and bore are modes of piercing that vary in the circumstances of the action, and the objects acted upon; to pierce, in its peculiar use, is a sudden action by which a hollow is produced in any substance; but to perforate and bore are commonly the effect of mechanical art. The body of an animal is pierced by a dart; but cahnon is made by perforating or boring the iron: channels are formed under ground by perforating the earth; holes are made in the ear by perforation; holes are made in the leather, or in the wood, by boring; these last two words do not differ in sense, but in application; the latter being a term of vulgar use, though sometimes used in poetry.

[^95]ever, I doubt; but certain it is that it pierced to a great depth.

Beydone.
But Capys, and the graver sort, thought fit, The Greeka' auspected present to commit To seas or flames, at least to search or bore The sides, and what that space containe t' ex. plore.

Denhay.
To penetrate and pierce are likewise employed in an improper sense; to perforate and bore are employed only in the proper sense. The first two bear the same relation to each other as in the former case: penetrate is, however, only employed as the act of persons; pierce is used in regard to things. There is a power in the mind to penetrale the looks and actions, so as justly to interpret their meaning; ihe eye of the Almighty is said to pierce the thickest veil of darkness. Affairs are sometimes involved in such mystery, that the most enlightened is unable to penetrate either the end or the beginning; the shrieks of distress are sometimes so loud as to seem to pierce the ear.
Inveterate habits choke the unfruitful heart, Their fibres penetrate its tenderest part.

Cowper.
These metaphysie rights entering into common life, like rays of light which pierce into a dense medium, are by the laws of nature refracted from their straight line.

Buree.

## PENETRATION, ACUTENESS, SAGACITY.

As characteristics of mind, these terms have much more in them in which they differ than in what they agree: PENETRATION is a necessary property of mind; it exists to a greater or less degree in every rational being that has the due exercise of its rational powers: ACUTENESS is an accidental property that belongs to the mind only, under certain circumstances. As penetration (v. Discernment) denotes the process of entering into substances physically or morally, so acuteness, which is the same as sharpness, denotes the fitness of the thing that performs this process: and as the mind is in both cases the thing that is spoken of, the terms penetration and acuteness are in this particular closely allied. It is clear, however, that the mind may have penetration without having acuteness, although one cannot have acuteness without penetration. If by penetration we are commonly enabled to get at

## PEOPLE

the truth which lies concealed, by acuteness we succeed in piercing the veil that hides it from our view; the former is, therefore, an ordinary, and the latter an extraordinary gift.

He saw the strong and the fechle of a question with much penstration.

Cumaerland.
Their affaira lay in a narrower compaas, their Ibraries were indifferently furnished, and philoaophical researches were carried on with much less induatry and acuteness of penetration.

Cowpea.
SAGACITY, in Latin sagacitas, from sagio, to perceive quickly, comes in all probability from the Persian sag, a dog, whence the term has been peculiarly applied to dogs, and from thence extended to all brutes which discover an intuitive wisdom, and also to children, or uneducated persons, in whom there is more penetration than may be expected from the narrow compass of their knowledge; heoce, properly speaking, sagacity is natural or uncultivated acuteness.

Activity to selze, not sagacity to discern, is the requisite which youth value.
blaib.

## PEOPLE, NATION.

PEOPLE is in Latin populus, which is connected with the Greek $\lambda a 0 \mathrm{~s}$, people, $\pi \lambda \eta \theta v_{\varsigma}$, a multitude, and $\pi 0 \lambda v \varsigma$, many. Hence the simple idea of numbers is expressed by the word people: but the term NATION, from natus, marks the connection of numbers by birth ; people is, therefore, the generic, and nation the specific term. A nation is a people connected by hirth; there cannot, therefore, strictly speaking, be a nation without a people: but there may be a people where there is not a nation. The Jews, when considered as an assemblage, under the special direction of the Almighty, are termed the people of God; but when considered in regard to their common origin, they are denominated the Jewish nation. The Americans, when spoken of in relation to Britain, are a distinct people, because they have each a distinct government; but they are not a distinct nation, because they have a common descent. On this ground the Romans are not called the Roman nation, becanse their origin was so various, but the Roman people, that is, an assemblage, living under one form of government.

It is too flagrant a demonstration how much vice is the darling of any poople, when many among them are preferred for those practices for which in other placea they can scarce be pardoned.

Soute.
When we read the hiatory of natione, what do we read but the crimes and folliea of men?

Blait.
In a still closer application, people is taken for a part of the State, namely, that part of a state which consists of a multitude, in distinction from its government; whence arises a distinction in the use of the terms; for we may speak of the British people, the French or the Dutch people, when we wish merely to talk of the mass, but we speak of the British nation, the French nation, and the Dutch nation, when public measures are in question, which emanate from the government, or the whole people. The English people have ever been remarkable for their attachment to liberty: the abolition of the slave-trade is one of the most glorious acts of public justice which was ever performed by the British nation. Upon the same ground republican States are distinguished by the name of people: but kingdoms are commonly spoken of in history as nations. Hence we say the Spartan people, the Athenian people, the people of Genoa, the people of Venice; but the nations of Europe, the African nations, the English, French, German, and Italian nations.
You speak o' the poople
As if you were a god to punish, not
A man of their infirmity.
Shargpeare.
It was the resolution of the present ministry to put an end to it (the war), as it had involved the nation in debt almost to bankruptcy.

Goldsmita
PEOPLE, POPULACE, MOB, MOBILITY.
PEOPLE and POPULACE are evidently changes of the same word to express a number. The signification of these terms is that of a number gathered together. People is said of any body supposed to he assembled, as well as really assembled: populace is said of a body only, when actually assembled. The voice of the people is sometimes too loud to be disregarded; the populace in Eng. land are fond of dragging their favoriten in carriages.
The poople like a headlong torrent go, And every dam they break or overflow.

Shambpeare

## PERCEIVE

The pliant populace, rhose dupes of novelty, will bend before ns.

Mallet.
MOB and MOBILITY are from the Latin mobilis, signifying movableness, which is the characteristic of the mulvitude: hence Virgil's mobile vulgus. These terms, therefore, designate not only what is low, but tumultuous. A $m o b$ is at all times an object of terror: the mobility, whether high or low, are a futtering order that mostly run from bad co worse.
By the senseless and insignificant clink of misapplied words, some restless demagogues had inflamed the mind of the sottish mobile to a strangc, unaccountable abhorrenee of the best of men.

SoutiI.

## PEOPLE, PERSONS, FOLKS.

The term PEOPLE has already been considered in two acceptations (v. People, Nation; Peoplc, Populace), under the general idea of an asscinbly; but in the present case it is employed to express a small number of individuals: the word people, however, is always considered as one undivided body, and the word PERSON may be distinctly used cither in the singular or plural; as we cannot say one, two, three, or four people: but we may say one, two, three, or four persons: yet, on the other hand, we may indifferently say, such people or perwous; many people or persons; some pcople or persons, and the like.

With regard to the use of these terms, which is altogether colloquial, people is employed in general propositions; and persons in those which are specific or referring directly to some particular individuals: people are generally of that opinion; some people think so; some people attended: there were but few persons present at the entertainment; the whole company consisted of six persons.

As the term people is employed to designate the promiscuous multitude, it has acquired a certain meanness of acceptation which makes it less suitable than the word persons, when people of respectability are referred to: were I to say, of any individuals, I do not know who the people are, it would not be so respectful as to say, I da not know who those persons are: in like manner one says, from people of that stamp, better is not to be
expected ; persons of their appearance do not frequent such places.

FOLKS, through the medium of the Northern languages, is connected with the Latin vulgus, the common people: it is not unusual to say good people, or good folks; and in speaking jocularly to one's friends, the latter term is likewise admissible: but in the serious style it is never employed except in a disrespectful manner: such folks (speaking of game sters) are often put to sorry shifts.
Performance is even the dnller for
His act ; and, but in the plainer and simple Kind of the people, the deed is quite out of

Shakstearis.
You may observe many honest, inoffensive per. sons strangely run down by an ugly word.

South.
I paid some compliments to great folks, who like to be complimented.

Herblig.

## TO PERCEIVE, DISCERN, DISTINGUISH.

Tc JERCEIVE, in Latin percipio, or per and capio, signifying to take hold of thoroughly, is a positive, to DISCERN (v. Discernment) a relative, action: we perccive things by themselves; we discern them amidst many others: we perceive that which is obvious; we discern that which is remote, or which requires mucb attention to get an idea of it. We perceive by a person's looks and words what he intends; we discern the drift of his actions. We may perceive sensible or spiritual objects; we commonly discern only that which is spiritual: we perceive light, darkness, colors, or the truth or falsehood of anything; we discern characters, motives, the tendency and consequences of actions, etc. It is the act of a child to perceine according to the quickness of its senses; it is the act of a man to discern according to the measure of Bis knowledge and understanding.
And lastly, turning inwardly her eyes,
Perceives how all her own ideas rise. Jenins.
He was not only of a very keen conrage in tbe exposing of his person, but an excellent discerner and pursuer of advantage upon the enemy.

## Clabendon.

To discern and DISTINGUISH ( $v . D_{i f}$ : ference) approach the mearest in sense to each other; but the former signifies to see only one thing, the latter to see two or more in quick succession so as to compare them. We discern what lie in things;

## PERISH

we distinguish things according to their outward marks ; we discern thinga in order to underatand their essences ; we distinuuish in order not to confound them together. Experienced and discreet people may disecrn the aigns of the times; it is juat to distinguish between an action done from inadvertence, and that which is done from design. The conduct of people is sometimes eo veiled by art, that it is not easy to discern their object : it is necesaary to distinguish between practice and profession.
One who is actuated by party spirit is almost nnder an incapacity of discerning either real blemishes or beauties.

Adition.
Mr. Boyle observes that though the mols be not totally blind (es is generally thought), she has not sight enough to distinguidh objects.

ADDIGON.

## PERCEPTION, IDEA, CONCEPTION, NOTION.

PERCEPTION expresses either the act of perceiving ( $v$. To perceive), or the impression produced by that act; in this latter sense it is analogous to an IDEA (v. Idea). The impression of an object that is present to us is termed a perception; the revival of that impression, when the object is removed, is an idea. A combination of ideas by which any image is presented to the mind is a CONCEPTION (v. To comprehend); the association of two or more ideas, so as to constitute a deciaion, is a NOTION (v. Opinion). Perceptions are clear or confused, according to the state of the sensible organs, and the perceptive faculty; ideas are faint or vivid, vague or distinct, according to the nature of the perception; conceptions are gross or refined, according to the number and extent of one's ideas; notions are true or falae, correct or incorrect, according to the extent of one's knowledge. The perception which we have of remote objects is sometimes so indistinct as to leave hardly any traces of the image on the mind; we bave in that case a perception, but not an idea: if we read the description of any object, we may have an idea of it ; but we need not have any immediate perception: the idea in this case being complex, and formed of many imagea of which we have already had a perception.

If we present objects to our minds, according to different jomages which have
already been impreased, we are said to bave a conception of them : in this caae, bowever, it ia not necessary for the objects really to exist; they may be the offapring of the mind's operation within itself : but with regard to notions it ia different, for they are formed respecting objecta that do really exiat, although perhaps the properties or circumatances which we assign to them are not real. If I look at the moon, I have a perception of it; if it disappear from my aight, and the impression remains, I have an idea of it; if an object, differing in ahape and color from that or anything else which I may have aeen preaent itself to my mind, it ia a conception; if of this moon I conceive that it is no bigger than what it appears to my eye, thia is a notion, which, in the present instance, assigns an unreal property to a real object.
What can the fondsst mother wish for more, Ev'n for her darling son, than solld sense, Peroaptions clear, and flowing eloquence ?

Wynne.
Imagination sslects ideas from the treasures of remembrance. Jobnson.
It is not a head that is filled with extravagant conceptions which is capable of furnishing the world with diversions of this nature (from humor).

Addison.
Those notions which are to be collected by reason, in opposition to the senses, will seldom stand forward in the mind, but be treasured in the remoter repositories of the memory.

Johnsos.

## TO PERISH, DIE, DECAY.

To PERISH, in French périr, in Latin pereo, compounded of per and eo, signifying to go thoroughly away, expresses more than to DIE ( $v$. To die), and is applicable to many objects; for the lattor is properly applied only to express the extinction of animal life, and figuratively to expreas the extinction of life or spirit in vegetables, or other bodies; but the former is appiied to express the dissolution of substances, so that they lose their existence as aggregate bodies. What perishes, therefore, does not always die, although whatever dies, by that very act perishes to a certain extent. Hence we say that wood perishes, although it does not die; people are said eitber to perish or die: but as the term perish expresses even more than dying, it is possible for the aame thing to die and not perish; thus a plant may be
said to die when it loses its vegetative power; but it is said to perish if its substance crumbles into dust.

To perish expresses the end; to DECAY (v. To decay) the process by which this end is brought about: a thing may be long in decaying, but when it perishes it ceases at once to act or to exist : things may, therefore, perish without decaying; they may likewise decay without perishing. Things which are altogether new, and have experienced no kind of decay, may perish by means of water, fire, ligbtning, and the like: on the other hand, wood, iron, and other substances may begin to decay, but may be saved from immediately perishing by the application of preventives.
Beanty and youth about to perish, finds Such noble pity in brave English minds.

Waller.
The steer, who to the yoke was bred to bow, (Studious of tillage and the crooked plough), Falls down and dies.

DRYOEN,
The soul's dark cottage, batter'd and decay'd, Lets in new light through chinks that time has made.

Waller,

## TO PERPETRATE, COMMIT.

The idea of doing sometbing wrong is common to these terms; but PERPETRATE, from the Latin perpetro, compounded of per and petro, in Greek $\pi \rho a r$ $\tau \omega$, signifying thoroughly to compass or bring about, is a much more determined proceeding tban that of COMMITTING. One may commit offences of various degrees and magnitude; but one perpetrates crimes only, and tbose of the more heinous kind. A lawless banditti, who spend their lives in the perpetration of the most horrid crimes, are not to be restrained by the ordinary course of justice; he wbo commits any offence against the good order of society exposes himself to the censure of others, who may be his inferiors in certain respects.
Then shows the forest wbich, in after-times, Fierce Romulus, for perpetrated crimes,

## A refuge made.

Dryden.
The miscarriages of the great designs of princes are of little use to the bulk of mankind, who seem very little interested in admonitions against ercors which they cannot commit.

Johngon.
TO PERSUADE, ENTICE, PREVAIL UPON.
PERSUADE (v. Conviction) and ENTICE (v. To allure) are employed to ex-
press different means to the same end; namely, that of drawing any one to a thing: one persuades a person by means of words; one entices him either by words or actions ; one may persuade either to a good or bad thing; but one entices commonly to that which is bad; one uses arguments to persuade, and arts to entice.

Persuade and entice comprehend either the means or the end, or both; PREVAIL UPON comprehends no more than ths end: we may persuade without prevailing upon, and we may prevail upon without persuading. Many will turn a deaf ear to all our persuasions, and will not be prevailed upon, although persuaded: on the other hand, we may be prevailed upon by the force of remonstrance, authority, and the like; and in this case we are prevailed upon withont being persuaded. We should never persuade anotber to do that which we are not willing to do ourselves; credulous or good-natured people are easily prevailed upon to do things which tend to their own injury.

I beseech you let me have so much credit with you as to perauade yon to communicate any doubt or scruple which occurs to you, before you suffer them to make too deep an impression upon you.

Clarendon.
If gaming does an aged sire entice, Then my young master swiftly learns the vice.

Dayden.
Herod hearing of Agrippa's arrival in Upper Asia, went thither to him, and prevailed with him to accept an invitation.

Paideaux.

## picture, PRINT, ENGRAVING.

PICTURE ( $v$. To paint) is any likeness taken by the hand of the artist: the PRINT is the copy of the painting in a printed state; and the ENGRAVING is tbat which is produced by an engraver: every engraving is a print; but every print is not an engraving; for the picture may be printed off from something beside an engraving, as in the case of woodcuts. The term picture is sometimes used for any representation of a likeness, witbout regard to the mode by which it is formed: in this case it is employed mostly for the representations of the common kind that are found in books; but print and engraving are said of the bigher specimens of the art. On certain occasions the word engraving is most appropriate, as fa tabe an engrav.
ing of a particular object; on other occaeions the word print, as a bandsome print, or a large print.
The pioturee piac'd for ornament and use, The twelve good rules, the royal game of gouse.

Goldsmith.
Tim, with surprise and pleasure staring,
Ran to the glass, and then comparing
His own sweet flgure with the print, Distinguish'd every feature in't.

Swift.
Since the puhlic has of late begun to axpress 2. relish for ongravings, drawings, copyings, and for the origioal paintlogs of the chiof italian school, I doubt not that in very few years we shall make ao equal progress to this other science.

Sbaftesbuay.

## PILLAR, COLUMN.

PILLAR, from pile, aignifies that which is piled up. COLUMN, which comes immediately from the Latin columna, is of Celtic origin, being in the Welah colov, and the Irieh coll, which signifies a atem or atalk. Though very different in their original meaning, they are both applied to the aame object, namely, to whatever is artificially aet up in wood, atone, or other hard material ; but the word pillar having come first into use, is the most general in its application to any structure, whether rude or othorwise; the term column, on the other hand, is applied to whatever is ornamental, as the Grecian order of columns.

Pillars, which we may likewise call columnes, for the word among artificers is almost naturalized, I could distinguish into simple and compound.

Wotton.
So in poetry, where simply a aupport is spoken of, the term pillar may be used.
The palace huilt by Picus vast and proud, Supported by a handred pillare stood.

Dityden.
But where grandeur or embellishment is to be expressed, the term column.

Whate'er adorns
The princeiy dome, the column, and the arcb, The breathing marbles, and the scuiptur'd gold, Beyond the proud possessor's narrow claim His toneful breast enjoys.

Akenside.
Both terms are applied to other objecta having a aimilarity either of form or use. Whatever ia set up in the form of a pillar is so denominated; as stone pillars in croas-ways, or over graves, and the like.

In the court of a mosque there stands a pil lar, on which is marked the Nile's increase.

## Rollin.

Whatever is drawn out in the form of a column, be the material what it may of which it is composed, it ia denominated a column; as a column of water, smoke, etc.; a column of men, a column of a page.
I see a column of slow rising smoke Overtop the lofty wood, that skirts the wild.

Cowper.
Pillar is frequently employed in a moral application, and in that caee it al. ways implies a support.
Withdraw religlon, and you shake all the pil lars of society.

Blait.

## PITEOUS, DOLEFUL, WOFUL, RUEFUL.

PITEOUS signifies moving pity ( $v$. Pity). DOLEFUL, or full of dole, in Latin dolor, pain, signifies indicative of much pain. WOFUL, or full of woe, signifies likewige indicative of woe, which from the German weh, impliea pain. RUEFUL, or full of rue, from the German reuen, to repent, aignifies indicative of much sorrow.

The close alliance in senge of these words one to another is obvioua from the above explanation; piteous ia applicable to one's external expreasion of bodily or mental pain; a child makea piteous lamentations when it suffers for hunger, or has lost its way; doleful applieg to those aounds which convey the idea of pain; there is something doleful in the tolling of a funeral bell or in the sound of a muffled drum: woful applies to the circumstances and situations of men; a scene is woful in which we witness a large family of young children suffering under the complicated horrors of sickness and want; rueful applies to the outward indications of inward sorrow depicted in the looks or countenance. The term is commonly applied to the aorrows which spring from a gloomy or distorted imagination, and has therefore acquired a somewhat ludicrous acceptation; hence we find in Don Quixote, the knight of the rueful countenance introduced.
Entreat, pray, beg, and raise a doleful cry.
Drydek.
A bratish temptation made Samson, from a judge of Israel, a wofwl judgment upon it.

Souta

## PITY


#### Abstract

With pond'rous clubs, As weak against the monntain heaps they push Their beating breast in vain and piteous bray, He lays them quivering on th' ensanguin'd plain.

THomson. Cocytus nam'd, of lamentation loud, Heard on the mueful stream,

Milton.


## PITLABLE, PITEOUS, PITIFUL.

These three epithets drawn from the same word have shades of difference in sense and application. PITIABLE signifies deserving of pity; PITEOUS, moving pity; PITIFUL, full of that which uwakens pity: a condition is pitiable which is so distressing as to call forth pity; a cry is piteous which indicates such distress as can excite pity; a couduct is pitiful which marks a character entitled to pity. The first of these terms is taken in the best sense of the term pity; the last two in its unfavorable sense: what is pitiable in a person is independent of anything in himself; circumstances have rendered him pitiable; what is piteous and pitiful in a man arises from the helplessness and imbecility or worthlessness of his character; the former respects that which is weak; the latter that which is worthless in him: when a poor creature makes piteous moans, it indicates his incapacity to help himself as he ought to do out of his troubles; when a man of rank has recourse to pitiful shifts to gain his ends, he betrays the innate meanness of his soul.
Is it then impossible that a man may be found who, withont criminal ill intention or pitiable absurdity, shall prefer a mixed government to eitlier of the extremes?

Bunke.
I have in view, calling to mind with heed
Part of our sentence, that thy seed shall bruise The serpent's head ; piteous amends, unless Be meant, whom I conjecture, our grand foe.

Militon.
Bacon wrote a pitiful letter to King James I. not long before his death.

Howell.

## PITY, COMPASSION.

PITY is in all probability contracted from piety. COMPASSION, in Latin rompassio, from con and patior, signifies to suffer in conjunction with another.

The pain which one feels at the distresses of another is the idea that is common to the signification of both these terms, but they differ in the object that causes the distress: the former is ex-
cited principally by the weakness or de graded condition of the subject; the lat. ter by bis uncontrollable and inevitable misfortunes. We pity a man of a weak understanding who exposes his weakness: we compassionate the man who is reduced to a state of beggary and want. Pity is kindly extended by ihose in higher condition to such as are bumble in their outward circumstances; the poor are at all times deserving of pity, even when their poverty is the positive fruit of vice: compassion is a sentiment which extends to persons in all conditions; the good Samaritan had compassion on the traveller who fell among thieves. Pity, though a tender sentiment, is so closely allied to contempt, that an ingenuous mind is always loath to be the subject of it, since it can never be awakened but by some circumstance of inferiority; it hurts the honest pride of a man to reflect that he can excite no interest but by provoking a comparison to his own disadvantage: on the other hand, such is the general infirmity of our natures, and such our exposure to the casualties of human life, that compassion is a pure and delightful sentiment, that is reciprocally bestowed and acknowledged by all with equal satisfaction.

Others extended naked on the floor, Exil'd from limman pity here they lie, And know no end of mis'ry till they die.

Pompret.
His fate compassion in the victor bred; Stern as he was, he yet rever'd the dead. Pope.

## PITY, MERCY.

The feelings one indulges, and the conduct one adopts, toward others who suf. fer for their demerits, is the common idea which renders these terms spnonymous; but PITY lays hold of those circum. stances which do not affect the moral character, or which diminish the culpability of the individual: MERCY lays hold of those external circumstances which may diminish punishment. Pity is often a sentiment unaccompanied with action; mercy is often a mode of action unaccompanied with sentiment: we have or take pity upon a person, but we show mercy to a person. Pity is bestowed by men in their domestic and private capac. ity; mercy is shown in the exercise of
power: a master has pity upon his offending servant by passing over his offences, and affording him the opportunity of amendment; the magistrate shows mercy to a crimiual by abridging his punishment. Pity lies in the breast of an individual, and may he bestowed at his discretion: mercy is restricted by the rules of civil society; lt must not interfere with the administration of justice. Young offenders call for great pity, as their offences are often the fruit of inexperience and bad example, rather than of depravity: mercy is an imperative duty in those who have the power of inflicting punishment, particularly in cases where lifc and death are concerned.

I pity from my soul unhappy men,
Compell'd by want to prostitute their pen.
Roscommon.
Examples of justice must be made for terror to some, examples of mercy for comfort to others.

Bacon.
Pity and mercy are likewise applied to the brute creation with a similar distinction: pity shows itself in relieving real misery, and in lightening burdens; mercy is displayed in the measure of pain which one inflicts. One takes pity on a poor ass to whom one gives fodder to relieve hunger; one shows it merey by abstaining from laying heavy stripes upon its back.
An ant dropped into the water, a wood-pigeon took pity on him, and threw him a little bough. L'Estranoe.
Cowards are cruel, but the brave
Love mercy, and delight to save.
Gay.
These terms are moreover applicable to the Deity, in regard to his creatures, particularly man. God takes pity on us as entire dependents upon him: he extends his mercy toward us as offenders against him: he shows his pity by reliering our wants; he shows his mercy by forgiving our sins.
place, station, situation, position, POST.
PLACE, in Germau platz, from platt, even or open, is the abstract or general term that comprehends the idea of any given space that may be occupied: STATION ( $\%$. Condition) is the place where one stands or is fixed; SITUATION, in Latin situs, from the Hebrew sat, to put,
and POSITION, which is a variation of the same, respect the object as well as the place; that is, they signify how the object is put, as well as where it is put. A place or a station may be either vacant or otherwise; a situation and a position necessarily suppose some occupied place. A place is either assigned or not assigned, known or unknown, real or supposed: a station is a specifically assigned place. We choose a place according to our convenience, and we leave it again at pleasure; but we take up our station, and hold it far a given period. One inquires for a place which is known only by name; the station is appointed for us, and in, therefore, easily found out. Travellera wander from place to place; soldiers have always some station.
Surely the church is a place where one day's truce ought to be allowed to the dissensions and animosities of mankind.

Bdree.
The seditious remained within their statiof, which, by reason of the nastiness of the berastly multitude, might more fitly be termed a kennel than a camp.

Hayward.
The terms place and situation are said of objects animate or inanimate; station only of animate objects, or those which are figuratively considered as such; position properly of inanimate objects, or those which are considered as such: a person chooses a place; a thing occupies a place, or has a place set apart for it: a station or stated place must always be assigned to each person who has to act in concert with others; a situation or position is chosen for a thing to suit the convenience of an individual: the former is said of things as they stand with regard to others; the latter of things as they stand with regard to themselves. The situation of a house comprehends the nature of the place, whether on high or low ground; and also its relation to other objects, that is, whether higher or lower, nesrer or morc distant: the position of a window in a house is considered as to whether it is straight or crooked; the position of a book is considered as to whether it stands leaning or upright, with its face or back forward. Situation is moreover said of things that come there of themselves; pasition only of those things which have been put there at will. The situation of some tree or rock, on
some elevated place, is agreeable to be looked at, or to be looked from. The faulty position of a letter in writing sometimes spoils the whole performance.
Hope, with uplifted foot set free from earth, Pants for the place of her ethereal birth.

Cowper.
The planets in their station listening stood.
Milton.
Prince Cesarini has a palace in a pleasant sitwation, and set off with many beautiful walks.

Andison.
By varying the position of my eye, and moving it nearer to, or farther from, the direct beam of the sun's light, the color of the sun's reflected light constantly varied upon the speculum as it did opon my eye.

Nefton.
Stuation and position, when applied to persons, are similarly distinguished; the situation is that in which a man finds himself, either with or without his own choice; the position is that in which he is placed without his own choice.

A situation in which I am as unknown to all the world as I am ignorant of all that passes in it would exactly suit me.

Cowper.
Every step in the progression of existence changes our position with respect to the things about us.

Johnson.
Place, situation, and station have an extended signification in respect to men in civil society, that is, either to their circumstances or actions; POST has no other sense when applied to persons. Place is as indefinite as before; it may be taken for that share which we personally have in society either generally, as when every one is said to fill a place in society; or particularly for a specific share of its business, as to fill a place under government: situation is that kind of place which specifies either our share in its business, but with a higher import than the general term place, or a share in its gains and losses, as the prosperous or adverse situation of a man: a station is that kind of place which denotes a share in its relative consequence, power, and honor; in which sense every man holds a certain station; the post is that kind of place in which he has a specific share in the duties of society; the situation comprehends many duties; but the post includes properly one duty only; the word being figuratively employed from the post or particular spot which a soldier is said to occupy. A clerk in a counting-house fills a
place: a clergyman holds a situation by virtue of his office; he is in the station of a gentleman by reason of his educa. tion, as well as his situation: a faithful minister will always consider that his post where good is to be done.

These two sorts of men (rich and poor) move in the same direction, though in a different place They both move with the order of the universe.

## Bonee.

Though this is a situation of the greatest ease and tranquillity in human life, yet this is by no means fit to be the subject of all men'a petitions to God.

Rocebs.
It has been my fate to he engaged in business much and often, by the stations in which I have been placed.

Atterbory.
I will never, while I have health, be wanting to my duty in my post.

Attembiey.

## TO PLACE, DIBPOBE, ORDER.

To PLACE is to assign a place ( $v$. Place) to a thing; to DISPOSE is to place according to a certain rule; to ORDER is to place in a certain order. To place is an unqualified act both as to the manner and circumstances of the action; to dispose is a qualified act, it is qualified as to the mander; the former is an act of expediency or necessity; the latter is an act of judgment or discretion. Things are often placed from the necessity of being placed in some way or another: they are disposed so as to appear to the best advantage. We may place a single object, but it is necessary that there should be several objects to be disposed. One places a book on a shelf, or disposes a number of books according to their sizes on different shelves.
If I have a wish that is prominent above the rest, it is to see you placed to your satisfaction near me.

Shenstone
And last the relics by themselves diopose,
Which in a brazen urn the priests enclose. Dryden
To order and dispose are both taken in the sense of putting several things in some order, but dispase may be simply for the purpose of order and arrangement; ordering, on the other hand, comprehends command as well as regulation. Things are disposed in a shop to the best advantage, or in the moral application, the thonghts are disposed; a man orders his family, or a commander orders the battle,

On Tuasdey, the 16th of May, ahont five of the elock in the morning, they disposed themselves to their work.

Clarendon.
Major-general Chudleigh, who ordered the battle, failed in no part of a noldier.

Clazendon.

## PLACE, BPOT, BITE.

A particular or given space is the idea common to these terms; but the former is general and indefinite, the latter specific. PLACE is limited to no size or quantity, it may be large: but SPOT implies a very small place, such as, by a figure of speech, is supposed to be no larger than a spot: the term place is employed upon every occasion; the term spot is confined to very particular cases: we may often know the place in a general way where a thing is, but it is not easy after a course of years to find out the exact spot on whicl it has happened. The place where our Saviour was buried is to be seen and pointed out, but not the very spot where he lay.
Oh how unlike the place from whence they fell !
Milton.
My fortune leads to traversc realms alone, And find no apot of all the world my own.

GoLD8MTE.
The SITE is the spot on which anything stands or is situated; it is more commonly applied to a building, or any place marked out for a specific purpose; as the site on which a camp had been formed.
This place is celcbrated for being the site of the moat ancicnt British monastery. Pennart.

## PLAY, GAME, SPORT.

PLAY, in French plaire, to please, signifies in general what one does to please one's self. GAME, in Saxon gaming, is very probably connected with the Greek $\gamma^{\mu} \mu \epsilon \omega$, to marry, which is the season for games; the word $\gamma$ 前 $\mathrm{\omega}$ itself comes from $\gamma a t \omega$, to be buoyant or boasting, whence comes our word gay. SPORT is in German spass or posse, which is connected xith the Greek $\pi a L^{2} \zeta \omega$, to jest.

Play and game both include exercise, corporeal or mental, or both; but play is an unsystematic, game a systematic, exercise : children play when they merely run after eacb other, but this is no game; on the other hand, when they exercise with the ball according to any rule, this is a game: every game, therefore, is a
play, but every play is not a game: trun. dling a hoop is a play, but not a game: cricket is both a play and a game. One person may have his play by himself, but there must be more than one to have a game. Play is adapted to infants; games to those who are more advanced in years.
Boys and girls come ont to play, Moon slines as bright as day.

Old Sono.
If I play at piquet for aixpence with a man or a woman two yeara younger than myself, I atways lose ; and there ia a young girl of twenty who never faila winning my money at backgammon, though she is a bungler and the game eccleaiastic.

Swift.
Play is sometimes taken for the act of amusing one's self with anything intellectual, and game for the act with which any game is played.
Play is not unlawful merely as a contest.

## HAWKERWOATH.

There is no man of sense and honeaty but must aee and own, whether he understanda the game or not, that it is an evident folly for any people, inatead of prosecuting the old honest methods of induatry and frugality, to sit down to a public gaming-tahle and play of their money to one another

Berkeley
Play and sport signify any action or motion for pleasure whether as it regardy man or brute; but play refers more to the action, and sport to the pleasure produced by the action.
The squirrel flippant, pert, and full of play.
Cowper.
So Eden was a scene of harmless sport,
Where kindness on his part who ruled the whola Begat a tranquil confidance in all,
And fear as yet was not, nor cause for fear.
Cowper.
Qame and sport both imply an object pursued, but game comprehends an object of contest which is to be obtained by art, as the Olympic and other games of antiquity.

The Olympian games were celebrated once in five years.

Potter.
Sport comprehends a pleasurable object to be obtained by bodily exercise; as field sports, rustic sports, and the like.
Now for our mountain sport op to yon hill; Your legs are young.

Shakapeare.
Game may be extended figuratively to any object of pursuit; as the game is lost, the game is over.
War! that mad game the Forld so loves to play.
Swirt

Sport is sometimes used for the subject of sport to another.
Commit not thy prophetic mind
To flitting leaves, the sport of every wind,
Lest they disperge in air.
Dryden.

## PLAYFUL, GAMESOME, SPORTIVE.

PLAYFUL, or full of play, GAMESOME, having game, or a disposition to game, and SPORTIVE, disposed to sport, are taken in a sense similar to the primitive (v. Play). Playful is applicable to youth or childhood, when there is the greatest disposition to play. Gamesome and sportive are applied to persons of maturer years; the former in the bad sense, and the latter in the good sense. A person may be said to be gamesome who gives into idle jests, or sportive who indulges in harmless sport.

He ia acandalized at yonth for being lively, and childhood at being playful. Addison.
Belial in like gamesome mood.
Milton.
I am not in a aportive humor now;
Tell me, and dally not, where is the money ?
SHaRspeare.

## PLEASURE, JOY, DELIGHT, CHARM.

PLEASURE, from the Latin placeo, to please or give content, is the generic term, involving in itself the common idea of the other terms. JOY, o. Glad. DELIGHT, in Latin deliciee, from delicio, to allure, signifies what allures the mind.

Pleasure is a term of most extensive use; it embraces one grand class of our feelings and sensations, and is opposed to nothing but pain, which embraces the second class or division: joy and delight are but modes or modifications of pleasure, differing as to the degree, and as to the objects or sources. Pleasure, in its peculiar acceptation, is smaller in degree than either joy or delight, but in its universal acceptation it defines no degree: the term is indifferently employed for the highest as well as the lowest degree: whereas joy and delight can be employed only to express a positively high degree. Pleasure is produced by any or every object; everything by which we are surrounded acts upon us more or less to produce it; we may have pleasure either from withont or from within : pleasure from the gratification of our senses, from the exercise of our affections, or the exercise of
our understandings; pleasures from out own selves, or pleasures from others: but joy is derived from the exercise of the affections; and delight either from the affections or the understanding. In this manner we distinguish the pleasures of the tahle, social pleasures, or intellectual pleasures; the joy of mecting an old friend; or the delight of pursuing a favorite object.

Pleasures are either transitory or otherwise: joy is in its nature commonly short of duration, it springs from particular events; it is pleasure at bigh tide, but it may come and go as suddenly as the events which caused it; one's joy may be awakened and damped in quick succession. Delight is not so fleeting as joy, but it may be less so than simple pleasure; delight arises from a state of outward circumstances which is natural. ly more durable than that of joy; but it is a state seldomer attainable and not so much at one's command as pleasure.

My young men have the pleasure of hearing themselvea praised hy those who are in years.

Addigon.
While he who virtue's radiant course has run, Descends like a serenely setting sun;
His thoughts trimmphant heav'n alone employa, And hope anticipates his future joys. Jenyna.
Vain are all sudden sallies of delight,
Convulsions of a weak distemper'd joy. Youno.
Pleasure, joy, and delight are likewise employed for the things which give pleasure, joy, or delight. CHARM (v. Attraction) is used only in the sense of what eharms, or gives a high degree of pleasure; but not a degrce equal to that of joy or delight, though greater than of ordinary pleasure ; pleasure intoxicates; the joys of heaven are objects of a Christian's pursuit; the delights of matrimony are lasting to those who are susceptible of true affection; the charms of rural sce nery never fail of their effect whenever they offer themselves to the eye.

That every day has its pains and sorrowa is universally experienced; but if we look impartially about us, we shall flnd that every day has likewise its pleasures and its joye. Johngon.

Before the day of departure (fron the country) a week is always appropriated for the payment and reception of ceremonial visits, at which nothing can be mentioned but the delights of London.

Johngon.
When thus ereation's oharma around combina,
Amid the store should thankless pride repine?
Goldamity

PLENTIFUl, Plenteous, abundant, COPIOUS, AMPLE.
PLENTIFUL and PLENTEOUS, signifying the presence of plenty, plenitude, or fulness, differ only in use: the former being mostly employed in the familiar, the latter in the grave style. Plenty fills; ABUNDANCE, in Latin abundantia, from abundo, to overflow, compounded of the intensive $a b$ and unda, a wave, signifying literally overflowing, does more, it leaves a superfluity; as that, however, which fills suffices as much as that which flows over, the term abundance is often employed promiscuously with that of plenty; we can indifferently say a plentiful harvest, or an abundant harvest. Plentiful is, however, a more familiar term than abundant: we say, therefore, most commonly, a plen. ty of provisions ; a plenty of food; a plen$t y$ of corn, wine, and oil: 'but an abundance of words; an abundance of riches; an abundance of wit or humor. In certain years fruit is plentiful, and at other times grain is plentiful; in all cases we have abundant cause for gratitude to the Giver of all good things.
The resty knaves are overrun with ease, As plenty ever is the nurse of faction.

Rowe.
And God said, let the waters generate
Keptile with spawn abundant, living soal.
Militon.
COPIOUS, in Latin copiosus, from copia, or con and opes, wealth, signifying Laving a store, and AMPLE ( $v$. Ample) are modes either of plenty or abzondance: the former is employed in regard to what is collected or brought into one point; the term ample is employed only in regard to what may be narrowed or expanded; a copious stream of blood, or a copious flow of words, equally designate the quantity which is collected together, as an ample provision, an ample store, an ample share, marks that which may at pleasure be increased or diminished.
Smooth to the shelving brink a copious flood Rolls fair and placid.

Thomson.
Peaceful beneath primeval trees, that cast
Their ample shade o'er Niger's yellow stream,
Leans the hage elephant, wisest of brutes.
Thomson.

## to Plunge, dive.

PLUNGE is but a variation of pluck, pull, and the Latin pello, to drive or force farward DIVE is but a variation of $d i p$,
which is, under various forms, to he found in the Northern languages.

One plunges sometimes in order to dive; hut one may plunge without div. ing, and one may dive without plunging: to plunge is to dart head-foremost into the water: to dive is to go to the bottom of the water, or toward it: it is a good practice for bathers to plunge into the water when they first go in, although it is not advisable for them to dive; ducks frequently dive into the water without ever plunging. Thus far they differ in their natural sense ; but in the figurative application they differ more widely: to plunge, in this case, is an act of rashness: to dive is an act of design : a young man hurried away by his passions will plungo into every extravagance when he comes into possession of lis estate: people of a prying temper seek to dive into the secrets of others.

The French plunged themselves into these c lamities they suffer, to prevent themselves from settling into a British constitution. Buage.
How he did seem to dive into their bearts With humble and familiar courtesy.

Shakspeare.
to poise, balance.
POISE is in French poids, a weight, and peser, to weigh. BALANCE is in French balancer, from the Latin bilanx, or bis and lanx, a pair of scales.

To poise is properly to keep the weight from pressing on either side; to balance is to keep the balance even. The idea of bringing into an equilibrium is common to both terms, but a thing is poised as respects itself; it is balanced as respects other things; a person poises a plain stick in his hand when be wants it to lie even; he balances the stick if it has a particular weight at each end: a person may poise himself, but he balances others: when not on firm ground, it is necessa. ry to poise one's self; when two persons are situated one at each end of a beam, they may balance one another. In the moral application they are similarly distinguished.
Some evil, terrible and unforeseen, Mnst sure ensue to poise the scale against This vast profusion of exceeding pleasure.

Rown.
This, oh 1 thls very moment let me die,
While hopes and fears in equal balance lie.
D.fdek

## POISON, VENOM.

POISON, in French poison, Latin potio, a potion, is a general term; in its original meaning it signifies any potion which acts destructively upon the system. VENOM, in French venin, Latin venenwm, is a species of deadly or malignant poison : a poison may be either slow or quick; a venom is always most active in its natnre: a poison must be administered inwardly to have its effect; a venom will act by an external application : the juice of the hellebore is a poison; the toogue of the adder and the tooth of the viper contain venom; many plants are unfit to be eaten on account of the poisonous quality which is in them; the Indians are in the habit of dipping the tips of their arrows in a venomous juice, which renders the slightest wound mortal.
Hemlock was formerly supposed a deadly poison.

Goldsmith.
As the venom spread,
Frightful convulaions writh'd his tortur'd limbs.
Fenton.
The moral application of these terms is clearly drawn irom their proper acceptation: the poison must be infused or injected into the subject; the venom acts upon him externally: bad principles are justly compared to a poison, which some are so unhappy as to suck in with their mother's milk ; the shafts of envy are peculiarly venomous when directed against those in elevated stations.

The devil can convey the poison of his snggestions quicker than the agitation of thonght or the strictures of fancy.

Souta.
Your eyes, which hitherto have horne in them The fatal balls of murthering basilisk, The venom of auch looks we fairly hope Have lost their quality.

Sharapeare.

## POLITE, POLISHED, REFINED.

POLITE (v. Civil) denotes a quality; POLISHED, a state: he who is polite is so according to the rules of politeness; he who is polished is polished by the force of art: a polite man is, in regard to his behavior, a finished gentleman; but a rude person may be more or less polished or freed from rudeness. REFINED risos in sense, both in regard to polite and polished: a man is indebted to nature, rathor than to art, for his refinement; but his
politeness, or his polish, is entirely the fruit of education. Politeness and polish do not extend to anything but externals; refinement applies as much to the mind as the body : rules of conduct, and good society, will make a man polite; lessons in dancing will serve to give a polish; refined manners or principles will naturally arise out of refinement of men.

As polish extends only to the exterior, it is less liable to excess than refinement: when the language, the walk, and deportment of a man is polished, he is divested of all that can make him offensive in social intercourse; but if his temper be refined beyond a certain boundary, he loses the nerve of character which is essential for maintaining his dignity against the rude shocks of human life.

A pedant among men of learning and sense is like an ignorant servant giving an account of polite conversation.

Steele.
In rude nations the dependence of children on their parents is of shorter continuance than in polished societiea.

Robettson.
What is honor hut the height and flower of morality, and the ntmost refinement of conversation?

Soutr.

## POLITICAL, POLITIC.

POLITICAL has the proper meaning of the word polity, which, from the Greek $\pi 0 \lambda_{t} \varepsilon t a$ and $\pi \mathrm{o} \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\iota}$, a city, signifies the government either of a city or a country. POLITIC, like the word policy, has the improper meaning of the word polity, namely, that of clever management, because the affairs of states are sometimes managed with considerable art and fincsse: hence we speak of political government as opposed to that which is ecclesiastic; and of politic conduct as opposed to that which is unwise and without foresight: in political questions, it is not politic for individuals to set themselves up in opposition to those who are in power ; the study of politics, as a science, may make a man a clever statesman; but it may not always enable him to discern true policy in his private concerns.

Machlavel laid down this for a master rule, in his political scheme, that the show of religion was helpful to the politician.

Soute.
A politic cantion, a guarded circumspectlon were aquong the ruling principlea of our fore. fathers.

Benkr

## POOR, PAUPER.

POOR and PAUPER are both derived from the Latin pauper, which comes from the Greek ravpog, small. Poor is a term of general use; pauper is a term of particular use: a pauper is a poor man who lives upon alms or the relief of the parish: the former is, therefore, indefinite in its meaning; the latter conveys a reproachful idea. The word $p$ oor is used cs a substantive only in the plural number; pauper is a substantive both in the singular and plural: the poor of the parish are, in general, a heavy burden upon the inbabitants: there are some persons who are not ashamed to live and die as paupers.

## POSITION, POSTURR.

POSITION ( $v$. Place) is here the general term, POSTURE the particular term. The position is that in which a body is placed in respect to other bodies; as the standing with one's face or back to an object is a position; but a posture is that position which a body assumes in respect to itself, as a sitting or reclining posture.

Every step in the progression of existence changes our position with respect to the things nbout $u s$. Johnson
When I entered his room he was sltting in a contemplative posture, with his eyes fixed on the ground.

Hawkesworth.

## POSITIVE, ABSOLUTE, PEREMPTORY.

POSITIVE, in Latin positivus, from pono, to put or place, signifies placed or fixed, that is, fixed or established in the mind. ABSOLUTE (v. Absolute) signifies uncontrolled by any external circumstances. PEREMPTORY, in Latin peremptorius, from perimc, to take away, signifies removing all further question.

Positive and absolute are employed either for things on persons; peremptory for persons only, or for that which is personal. What is positive has a determinate existence, it is opposed to what is negative, indeterminate, or precarious; as positive good, positive pleasure or pain; what is absolute is without dependence or connection, it is opposed mostly to the relative or conditional, as absolute existence, absolute justice.

[^96]Those parts of the moral world which have not an absolute, may yet have a relative beanty, in respect of some other parts concealed from us.

Addison.
In regard to persons or what is personal, positive either applies to the assurance of a man, or to the manner of his expressing that assurance; a person may be positive in his own mind (v. Confident), or he may make a positive assertion; absolute applies either to the mode of acting or the circumstances under which one acts, as to have an absolute possession or command, to make an $a b$ solute promise ; peremptory is applied to the nature of the action, or the manner of performing it; a command may be peremptory, and a tone peremptory. A positive assertion will remove doubt if made by one entitled to credit; an absoo lute promise will admit of no reservation on the part of the person making it. A peremptory command admits of no demur or remonstrance; a peremptory answer satisfies or puts to silence.

This he very confidently and positively de. nied, being well assured it could never be proved. Clarendon.
Many things might have happened to render an absolute engagement of this nature highly inexpedient.

Sif W. Scott.
The Highlander gives to every question an answer so prompt and peremptory, that scepticism is dared into silence.

JoHNson.

## POSSESSOR, PROPRIETOR, OWNER, MASTER.

The POSSESSOR bas the full power, if not the right, of the present disposal over the object of possession; the PRO. PRIETOR and OWNER bave the unlimited right of transfer, but not always the power of immediate disposal. The proprietor and the owner are the same in signification, though not in application: the first term being used principally in regard to matters of importance; the latter on familiar occasions: the pro. prietor of an estate is a more suitable expression than the owner of an estate: the owner of a book is more becoming than the proprietor. The possessor and the MASTER are commonly the same person, when those things are in question which are subject to possession; but the terms are otherwise so different in their original meaning, that they can
scarcely admit of comparison: the posmessor of a honse is naturally the master of the house; and, in general, whatever a man possesses that he bas in his power, and is consequently master of; but we may have, legally, the right of possessing a thing over which we bave actually no power of control: in this case, we are nominally possessor, but virtually not master. A minor, or insane person, may be both possessor and proprietor of that over which he has no control; a man is, therefore, on the other hand, appropriately denominated master, not possessor of his actions.

I am convinced that a poetic talent is a blessIng to its possessor.

Sewam.
Death ! great proprietor of all ! 'tis thine To tread out empire and to quench the stars.

Yonna.
One cansa of the insufficienoy of riches (to produce happiness) is, that they very seldom make their owner rich.

Johnson.
There Cæsar, grac'd with both llinervas, shone, Cesar, the world's great master, and his own.

Pope.

## POSEIBLE, PRACTICABLE, PRACTICAL.

POSSIBLE, from the Latin possum, to be able, signifies properly to be able to be done: PRACTICABLE, from practice ( $v$. To excrcise), signifies to be able to put in practice: hence the difference between possible and practicable is the same as between doing a thing at all, or doing it as a rule. There are many things possible which cannot be called practicable; but what is practicable must, in its nature, be possible. The possible depends solely on the power of the agent; the practicable depends on circumstances: a child cannot say how much it is possible for him to learn until he has tried; schemes have sometimes everything apparently to recommend them to notice but that which is of the first importance, namely, their practicability.

[^97]The practicable is that which may or can be practised; the PRACTICAL is
that which is intended for practzce: the former, therefore, applies to that which men devise to carry into practice: the latter to that which they bave to practise: projectors onght to consider what is practicable; divines and moralists have to consider what is practical. The practicable is opposed to the impracticable; the practical to the theoretical or specu. lative.

Practical cunning shows itself in politicsi matters.

Sodtr.

## POVERTY, WANT, PENURY, INDIGENCE, NEED.

POVERTY, which marks the condition of being poor, is a general state of fortune opposed to that of riches.

Poverty is apt to betray a man into envy, riches into arrogance.

ADDIgON.
Poverty admits of different states or degrees which are expressed by the other terms. WANT, from the verb to want, denotes, when taken absolutely, the want of the first necessaries, which is a permanent state, and a low state of poverty; but it may sometimes denote an occasional want, as a traveller in a desert may be exposed to want; or it may imply the want of particular things, as when we speak of our wants.

Want is a bitter and a hateful good, Because its virtnes are not nnderstood; Yet many things, impossible to thonght, Have been by need to full perfection brought.

Daxden.
PENURY, in Latin penuria, signifying extreme want, is poverty in its most abject state, which is always supposed to be as permanent as it is wretched, to which those who are already poor are brought, either by misfortune or impru. dence.
Thus tender Spenser lived with mean repast, Content, depress'd by penury, and pined In foreign realm.
S. Philifs

INDIGENCE, in Latin indigentia, from indigeo, and the Greek $\delta$ हo $\mu$ ach, to want, signifies the state of wanting sucb things as one has been habituated to, or are suited to one's station, and is properly applied to persons in the superior walks of life.

[^98]sufficient to open his way to whatever else we can wish him to obtain.

Mefmotié Lettens of Cicero.
NEED ( $v$. Necessity) implies a present want, or the state of wanting sucl things as the immediate occasion calls for: a temporary state to which persons of all conditions are exposed.

All men deem thus, that to have need goeth before indigence, aupposing him that standeth in need of thinga which are not ready at hand, nor easy to be gotten, is indigent. To make this more plain, no man is said to be indigent of horis or winga, for that he hath no nesd of them; but we aay truly and properly that some have neerl of armor, of money, and of apparel; when in the want of these things, they neither have them, nor can come by the means to aupply their uecessities.

Holland.

## TO POUR, SPILL, SHED.

POUR is probably connected with pore, and the Latin preposition per, through, signifying to make to pass, as it were, through a chanuel. SPILL and splash, and the German spüllen, are probably onomatopœias. SHED comes from the Germun scheiden, to separate, signifying to cast from.

We pour with design; we spill by accident: we pour water over a plant or a bed; we spill it on the ground. To pour is an act of convenience; to spill and shed are acts more or less hurtful; the former is to cause to ron in small quantities, the latter in large quantities: we pour wine out of a bottle into a glass; but the blood of a person is said to be spilled or shed when his life is violently taken away: what is poured is commonly no part of the body from whence it is pourcd; but what is shed is no other than a compouent part; hence trees are said to shed their leaves, animals their hair, or human beings to shed tear's. Hence the distiaction between these words in their moral application.

Poesy is of so subtle a spirit, that, in the pouring out of one language into another, it will zvaporate.

Deniam.
0 reputation ! dearer far than life,
Thon precions balsam, lovely, sweet of smell,
Whose cordial drops once bpilt by some rash haod,
Not all the owner's care, nor the repenting toil Of the rude spilles, can collect.

Sewel.
Herod acted the part of a great mourner for the deceased Aristobulus, alhadding abundance of tears.

Prideaux.

POWER, STRENGTH, FORCE, AUTHORI TY, DOMINION.
POWER, in French pouvoir, Latin pos sum, to be able, is the generic and uni. versal term, comprehending in it that simple principle of nature which exists in all subjects. STRENGTH, or the abstract quality of strong, and FORCE (v. Einergy) are modes of power. These terms are all used either in a plysical or moral application, Power, in a physical sense, respects whatever causes motion: strength respects that species of power that lies in the vital and muscular parts of the body. Strength is therefore interaal, and depends on the internal organization of the frame; power on the external circumstances. A man may have strength to move, but not the power, if he be bound with cords. Our strength is proportioned to the health of the body and the firmness of its make: our power may be increased by the help of iustrumeuts.
Observing in ourselves that we can at pleasure move beveral parts of our bodies, which were at rest; the effects also that naturul bodies are able to produce in one another occuring cvery moment to our senses, we by both these waya get the idea of power.

Locee.
Not founded on the brittle atrength of bones.
Milton.
Power may be exerted or otherwise; force is power exerted or active; bodies have a power of resistance while in a state of rest, but they are moved by a certain force from other bodies.
A ship which hath struck aail doth run By force of that force which before it won.

Donse,
The word power is used technically for the moving force.

By understanding the true difference between the weight and the power, a man may add sucb a fitting supplement to the strength of the power, that it shall move any conceivable weight, though it should never so much exceed that fores which the power is naturally endowed with. Wimeina,

In a moral acceptation, power, strength, and force may be applied to the same obs jects with a similar distinction: thus we may speak of the power of language generally; the strength of a person's expressions to convey the state of his own mind; and the force of terms, as to the extent of their meaning and fitness to convey the ideas of those who use them

All power of fancy over reason is a degree of Inssnity: but, while this power is such as we can control and repress, it is not visible to others nor considercd as any deprivation of our faculties.

Jounson.
Thus we are affected by strength, which is natural power.

BURRE.
Bound by no prineiple, and restrained by no ties, his uncommon parts having room to play, appeared in their utmost foree to the world.

Macpuerson.
Power is either public or private, which brings it in alliance with AUTHORITY (v. Influence). Civil power includes in it all that which enables us to bave any influence or control over the actions, persoos, property, etc., of others; authority is confined to that species of power which is derived from some legitimate source. Power exists independently of all right; authority is founded only on right. A king has often the power to be cruel, but he has never the authority to be so. Subjents have sometimes the power of overturning the government, but they can in no case have the authority.
Hence thou shalt prove my might and curse the hour
Thou stoodst a rival of imperisl pon'r. Pope.
Power arising from strength is always in those who are governcd, who are many; but authority arising from opinion is in those who govern, who are few.

TEmple.
Power is indefinite as to degree; one may have little or much power: dominion is a positive degree of power. A monarch's power may be limited by various circumstances; a despot exercises dominion over all his subjects, high and low. One is not said to get a power over any object, but to get an object into ooe's power: on the other hand, we get a dominion over an object; thus some men have a dominion over the consciences of others.

> Naturally restless in his temper, he loved trouble frnm its amnsement, and, though ambitinus, was fond of confusion, mure as a field of action than as a means of acquiring power. Macpherson. And each of these must will, perceive, design, And draw confus'dly in a diffrent line; Which then can claim dominaion, o'er the rest, Or stamp the ruling passion in the breast?

POWERFUL, POTHNT, MIGHTY.
POWERFUL is full of powcr; POTENT, from the Latin potens, signifies
literally being able, or having power; and MIGHTY signifies having might. Powerful is applicable to strength as well as power: a powerful man is ons who by size and make can easily over. power another; and a powerful person is one who has much in his power: potent is used only in this latter sense, in which it expresses a larger extent of poner: a potent monarch is much more than a powerful prince: mighty expresses a still higher degree of power; might is power unlimited by any consideration or circumstance; a giant is called mighty in the physical sense, and genius is said to be mighty which takes everything within its grasp; the Supreme Being is entitled either Omnipotent or Almighty; but the latter term seems to convey the idea of houndless extent more forcihly than the former.

It is certain that the senses are more pozoerful as the reason is weaker.

Johnson.
Now, flaming up the hearens, the potent sun
Melts into limpid air the higb-raised clouds.
Thomson.
He whn lives by a mighty principle within, which the world about him neither sees nor understands, he only ought to pass for godly.

South.
to PRAISE, COMMEND, APPLAUD, EXTOL.
PRAISE, in the German preisen, to value, is connected with our own word price, signifying to give a value to a thing. COMMEND, in Latin commendo, compounded of com and mando, signifies to commit to the good opinion of others. APPLAUD, v. Applause. EXTOL in Latin extollo, signifies to lift up very high.

All these terms denote the act of expressing approbation. To praise is the most general and indefinite; it may rise to a high degree, but it generally implies a lower degree: we praise a person generally; we commend him particularly: we praise him for his diligence, sobriety, and the like; we commend him for his performances, or for any particular instance of prudence or good conduct. To applaud is an ardent mode of praising; we applaud a person for bis nobleness of spirit: to extol is a reverential mude of praising; we extol a man for his heroic exploits. Praise is confined to $n \mathrm{n}$

## PRELUDE

utation, though with most propriety besrowed by superiors on equals: commendation is the part of a superior; a parent commends his child for an act of charity: applause is the oct of many as well as of one; theatrical performances are the frequent subjects of public applause: to extol is the act of inferiors, who declare thus decidedly their sense of a person's superiority.

How happy thou we find Who know by merit to engage mankind; r'rais'd by each tongue, by every heart belov'd, For virtnes practis'd, and for arts improv'd.

Jenyss.
When school-boys write verse, it may indeed suggest an expectation of something better hereafter, but deserves not to be commended for any real merit of their own.

Cowper.
While from both benches, with redoubled sounds, Th' applause of lords and commoners abonods.

Dayden.
The gervile rout their careful Cxsar praise; Him they extol; they worship him alone.

Dayoen.

## prayer, petition, request, enTREATY, SUIT.

PRAYER, from the Latin preco, and the Greek $\pi$ тарєvхо $\mu a t$, to pray, is a general term, including the common idea of application to some person for any favor to be granted: PETITION, from peto, to seek; REQUEST (v. To ask); ENTREATY (v. To beg); SUIT, from sue, in French suiure, Latin sequor, to follow after, denote different modes of prayer, varying in the circumstances of the action and the object acted upon.

The prayer is made more commonly to the Supreme Being; the petition is made more generally to one's fellow-creatures; we may, however, pray our fellow-creatures, and petition our Creator : the prayer is made for everything which is of the first importance to us as living beings ; the petition is made for that which may satisfy our desires: hence our prayers to the Almighty respect all our circumstances as moral and responsible agents ; our petitions respect the temporary circumstances of our present existence.
Prayer among men is supposed a means to
change the person to whom we pray, bot prayer
to God doth not change him, but fits us to re-
ceive the thing prayed for.
When the term prayer is applied to
Wen, it carries with it the idea of ear-
nestness and submission; the petition is a public act, in which many express their wishes to the Supreme Authority; the re. quest and entreaty are individual acts between men in their private relations: the people petition the king or the parliament ; a child makes a request to its parent ; one friend makes a request to another. The request marks an equality, but the entreaty defines no condition; it differs, however, from the former in the nature of the object and the mode of preferring; the request is but a simple expression; the entreaty is urgent: the request may be made in trivial matters; the entreaty is made in matters that deeply interest the feelings: we request is friend to lend us a book; we use every entreaty in order to divert a person from those purposes which we think detrimental: one complies with a request; one yields to entreaties. It was the dying request of Socrates that they would sacrifice a cock to Asculapius; Regulus was deaf to every entreaty of his friends, who wished him not to return to Carthage.

Torture him with thy softness, Nor, till thy prayers are granted, set him free.

OTw 4 .
She takes petitions and dispenses laws,
Hears and determines every private canse.
Daypen.
Thus spoke Illionens; the Trojan crew,
With cries and clamors, bis request renew.
DAYDEN.
Arguments, entreaties, and promises were employed in order to soothe them (the followers of Cortes).

Roaertbon.
The suit is a higher kind of prayer, varying both in the nature of the subject and the character of the agent. A gentleman pays his suit to a lady; a courtier makes his suit to the prince.
Seldom or never is there much spoke, whenever any one comes to prefer a suit to another.

South.

## PRELUDE, PREFACE.

PRELUDE, from the Latin ludo, to play, signifies the garne that precedes another; PREFACE, from the Latin for, to speak, signifies the speech that precedes. The idea of a preparatory introduction is included in both these terms; but the former consists of actions, the latter of words: the throwing of stones and breaking of windows is the preluds on the part of a mob to a general riotr
an apology for one's ill behavior is some. times the preface to soliciting a remission of punishment. The prelude is frequently, though not always, preparatory to that which is in itself actually bad: the preface is either to guard against something objectionable or to secure something desirable. Intemperance in liquor is the prelude to every other extravagance; when one wishes to insure compliance with a request that may possibly be unreasonable, it is necessary to pave the way by some suitable preface.

The moving storm Thickens amain, and loud triumphant shonts, And horns shrill warbling in each glade, prelude To his approaching fate.

Somerville.
He had reason to nsher this in with a prefatory caution against philosophy and vain deceit.

Waterland.
In the exteuded application, they are both taken in an indifferent sense.

At this time there was a general peace all over the world, which was a proper prelude for ushering in his coming who was the Prince of peace.

Prideatx.
As no delay
Of preface brooking through his zeal of right.
Militon.

## TO PREMISE, PRESUME.

PREMISE, from pre and mitto, signifies to set down beforehand; PRESUME, from sumo, to take, signifies to take beforehand. Both these terms are employed in regard to our previous assertions or admissions of any circumstance; the former is used for what is theoretical or belongs to opinions; the latter is used for what is practical or belongs to facts: we premise that the existence of a Deity is unquestionable when we argue respecting his attributes; we pressume that a person has a firm belief in Divine revelation when we exhort him to follow the precepts of the Gospel. No argument can be pursued until we have premised those points upon which both parties are to agree; we must be careful not to presume upon more than what we are fully authorized to take for certain.

Here we must first premise what it is to enter Into temptation.

Sonth.
In the long iambic meter it does not appear that Chancer ever composed at all; for I preoume no one can imagine that he was the anthor of Gamelyn.

Tұвwhitr.

## TO PRESS, SQUEEZE, PINCE, GRIPE.

PRESS, in Latin pressus, participle of premo, probably comes from the Greek $\beta a \rho \eta \mu a$, heaviness. SQUEEZE, in Saxon squizsa, Latin quasso, Hebrew reshah, to press together. PINCH is but a variation from pincer, pin, spine. GRIPE, from the German greifen, signifies to seize, like the word grapple or grasp, the Latin ra$p i o$, the Greek $\gamma \rho \iota \pi \iota \zeta_{\omega}$, to fish or catch, and the Hebrew geraph, to catch.
The forcible action of one body on another is included in all these terms. In the word press this is the only idea; the rest differ in the circumstances. We may press with the foot, the hand, the whole body, or any particular limb; one squeezes commonly with the hand; one pinches either with the fingers or an instrument constructed in a similar form; one gripes with teeth, claws, or any instrument that can gain hold of the object. Inanimate as well as animate objects press or pinch; but to squesze and gripe are more properly the actions of auimate objects; the former is always said of persons, the latter of animals; stones press that on which they rest their weight; a door which shuts of itself may pinch the fingers; one squeezes the hand of a friend; lobsters and many other shell-fish gripe whatever comes within their claws.

In the figurative application they have a similar distinction; we press a person by importunity, or some coercive measure; an extortioner squeezes in order to get that which is given with relnctance or difficulty; a miser pinches hinuself if he contracts his subsistence; he gripes all that comes within his possession.

[^99]Ventidius receiving great sums from Herod to promote his interest, and at the same time greater to hinder it, squeezed each of them to the ntmost, and served neither.

Prideades.
Better dispos'd to clothe the tatter'd wretch, Who shrinks beneath the blast, to feed the poor Pinch'd with affictive want. Someaville.

How can he be envied for his felicity who is conscions that a very short time will give him up to the gripe of poverty?

Johnaon.

## PRESSING, URGENT, IMPORTUNATE.

PRESSING and URGENT, from to press and urge, are applied as qualifying
terms either to persons or things; IMPORTUNATE, from the verb to importune, which probably signifies to wish to get into port, to land at some port, is applied only to persons. In regard to pressing, it is said either of one's demands, one's requests, or one's exhortations; urgent is said of one's solicitations or entreaties ; importunate is said of one's begging or applying for a thing. The pressing bas more of violence in it; it is supported by force and authority; it is employed in matters of right: the urgent makes an appeal to one's feelings; it is more persuasive, and is employed in matters of favor: the importunate has some of the force, but none of the authority or obligation, of the pressing ; it is employed in matters of personal gratification. When applied to things, pressing is as much more foreible than urgent as in the former case; we speak of a pressing necessity, an urgent case. A creditor will be pressing for his moncy when he fears to lose it ; one friend is urgent with another to intercede in his behalf; beggars are commonly importunate with the hope of teasing others out of their money.

[^100]PRESUMPTIVE comes from presume, in the sense of supposing or taking for granted; PRESUMPTUOUS, PRESUMING (v. Assumption), comes from the same verb in the sense of taking upon one's self, or taking to one's self any importance: the former is therefore employed in an indifferent, the latter in a bad acceptation: a presumptive heir is one presumed or expected to be heir; presumptive evidence is evidence founded on some presumption or supposition; so likewise presumptive reasouing; but a presump. tuous man, a presumptrous thonght, a presumptuous behavior, all indicate an unanthorized presumption in one's own favor. Prosumptuous is a stronger term than pre-
suming, beeause it has a more definite nse; the former, from the termination ons, sig. nifies full of presumption; the latter the inclination to presume: a man is presumptuous when his conduct partakes of the nature of presumption; be is presuming, inasmuch as he shows himself disposed to presume: hence we speak of presumptuous language, not presuming language: a presuming temper, not a presumptrous temper. In like manner, when one says it is presumptuous in a man to do anything, this expresses the idea of presumption much more forcibly than to say it is presuming in bim to do it. It would be presumptuous in a man to address a monarch in a language of familiarity and disrespect ; it is presuming in a common person to address any one wbo is superior in station with familiarity and disrespect.

There is no qualification for government but virtue and wisdom, actual or presumptive.

Buake.
See what is got by those presumptuous principles which have brouglit your leaders (of the revolution) to despise all their predecessors.

Buree.
Presuming of his force with sparkling eyes, Aiready he devours the promis'd prize. Diyden.

## Pretence, PRETENSION, PIRETEXT, EXCUSE.

PRETENCE comes from pretend ( $v$. To feign) in the sense of setting forth anything independent of ourselves. PRETENSION comes from the same verb in the sense of setting forth anything that depends upon ourselves. The pretence is commonly a misrepresentation; the pretension is frequently a miscalculation: the pretence is set forth to conceal what is bad in one's self; the pretension is set forth to display what is good: the former betrays one's falsehood, the latter one's conceit or self-importance; the former can never be employed in a good sense, the latter may somelimes be employed in an indifferent sense: a mau of bad character may make a pretence of religion by adopting an outward profession; men of the least merit often maiku the highest pretensions.
Ovid had warn'd her to beware
of strolling gods, whose usmal trade is,
Under pretence of taking air,
To pick up sublunary ladies.
SWIFt
Each thinks his own the best pretendion, GaI

The pretence and PRETEXT alike consist of what is unreal; but the former is not so great a violation of truth as the latter: the pretence may consist of truth and falsehood blended; the pretext consists altogether of falsehood: the pretence may sometimes serve only to conceal or palliate a fault; the pretext serves to mde something seriously culpable or wicked: a child may make indisposition a pretence for idleness; a thief makes his acquaintance with the servants a pretext for getting admittance into a house.
Let not the Trojans, with a feigned pretence Of proffer'd peace, delude the Latin prince.

Dryinen.
Justifying perfidy and murder for pnblic beneEt, public beneft would soon become the pretext, and perfidy and murder the end.

Buree.
The pretence and EXCUSE are both set forth to justify one's conduct in the eyes of otbers; but the pretence always conceals something more or less culpable, and by a greater or less violation of truth; the excuse may sometimes justify that which is justifiable, and with strict regard to truth. To oblige one's self under the pretence of obliging another, is a despicable trick; illness is an allowable excuse to justify any omission in business.

I should have dressed the whole with greater care, but I had little time, which I am sure you know to be more than pretence.
Nothing but love this patience could prodnce, And I allow your rage that kind excuse.

DRYAEN.
And even where the excuse may be frivolous it does not imply direct falsehood.

The last refuge of a guilty person is to take shelter under an eccuse. Sovtr.

## PRETENSION, CLAIM.

PRETENSION (v. Pretence) and CLAIM (v. To ask for) both signify an assertion of rights, but they differ in the nature of the rights. The first refers only to the rights which are considered as such by the individual; the latter to those which exist independent of his supposition: there cannot, therefore, be a pretension without some one to pretend, but there may be a claim without any immediate claimant: thus we say a person rests his pretension to the crown upon the ground of being descended from the former king; in hereditary monarcnies there is no one
who has any claim to the crown excep the next heir in succession.
But if to nnjust things thon dost pretend, Ere they begin, let thy pretensions end.

## Denham

Whence is this pow'r, this fondness of all arts, Serving, adorning life through all its parts: Which names imposed, hy letters mark'd those names,
Adjusted property by legal claimal Jenins
The pretension is commonly built upon personal merits; the claim rests upon the laws of civil society: a person makes high pretensions who estimates his merits and consequent deserts at a bigh rate; he judges of his claims according as they are supported by the laws of his country or the circumstances of the case: the pretension when denied can never be proved; the claim, when proved, can be enforced.
It is often charged upon writers, that, with all their pretensions to genins and discoverjes, they do little more than copy one another. Johnson. This night our minister we name, Let every servant speak his claim.

Gat.

## PREVAILING, PREVALENT, RULING, OVERRULING, PREDOMINANT.

PREVAILING and PREV ALENT both come from the Latin prevaleo, to be strong above others. RULING, OVERRULING, and PREDOMINANT (from dominor, to rule), signify ruling or bearing greater sway than others.

Prevailing expresses the actual state or quality of a particular object: prevalent marks the quality of prevailing, as it affects objects in general. The same distinction exists between overruling and predominant. A person has a prevail ing sense of religion; religious feeling is prevalent in a country or in a community. There is always some prevailing fashion which some persons are ever ready to follow. The idea has of late years become prevalent.
The evils naturally consequent upon a prevailing temptation are intolerable. Soctr.

The conduct of a peculiar providence made the instruments of that great design prevalent and victorious, and all those mountains of opposition to become plains.

Sontr.
Whate'er thon shalt ordain, thou ruling pow'r, Unknown and sudden be the dreadful hour.

Rofe.
Prevailing and prevalent mark simply the existing state of superiority: ruling
and predominant express this state, in relation to some other which it has superseded or reduced to a state of inferiority. An opinion is said to be prevailing as respects the number of persons by whom it is maintained: a principle is said to be muling as respects the superior influence which it has over the conduct of men more than any other. Particular disorders are prevalent at certain seasons of the year, when they affect the generality of persons: a particular taste or fashion is predominant which supersedes all other tastes or fashions.
Nor can a man, independently of the overruling influence of God's hlessing and care, call himself one penny richer.

South.
The doctrine of not owning a foreigner to be a king was held and taugit by the Pharisees, a predominant sect of the Jews. Prineaux.

## to prevent, anticipate.

To PREVENT is literally to come beforehand, and ANTICIPATE to take beforehand: the former is employed for actual occurrences; the latter as much for calculatious as for actions: to prevent is the act of a person toward other persons or things; to anticipate is the act of a being either toward himself or another. In this sense God is said to prevent man with his favor by interposing so as to direct his purposes to the right object.
Be careful still to guard thy soul from wrong,
And let thy thought prevent thy hand snd tongue.

ROWE.
And a man may prevent what is to happen, by causing it to happen before the time.
But 1 do think it most cowardly and vile, For fear of what might fall, so to prevent The time of life.

Shakspeare.
We anticipate the happiness' which we are to enjoy in future; we anticipate what a person is going to say by saying the same thing before him.

Why should we
Anticipato our sorrows? 'Tis like those
Who die for fear of death.
Snambreare.
These words may also be both taken in the sense of causing a thing not to be done, but with this distinction, that to prevent is to cause a thing not to be done or happen at all, and anticipate is to prevent another from doing it by doing it one's self.

They sent a party of twelve hundred borse and dragoons, under the command of Sir George Chudleigh, to surprise the high-sheriff and principal gentlemen of the county, and thereby to $p r e v e n t$ the coming up of any more strength to the king's party.

Claremdon.
I am far from pretending to instruct the pro. fession, or anticipating their directions to such as are under their government. Arbutamor.

## TO PREVENT, OBVLATE, PRECLUDE.

All these terms imply the causing something not to take place or exist. To PREVENT ( $v$, To hinder) is to happen before, so as to render the thing impracticable. To OBVIATE, from ob and via, signifies coming in the way so as to render the thing unnecessary or of no value. Prevent applies to events or circumstances in life; obviate to mental acts or objects: bad weather prevents a person setting out according to a certain arrangement; a change of plan obviates every difficulty.

## Er'ry disease of age we may prevent,

Like those of youth, by being diligent. Denhar.
The wind and my unfortunate sprain together, in a great measure prevented our electrical experiments.

Beypone.
The imputation of folly, if it is true, must be suffered without hope ; but that of immorallty may be obviated by removing the cause.

HAWKEsworth.
Upon the ministers of the Church it is incumbent, as occasions offer, to explain and illustrste its design and uses to the more unlearned, as well as to obviate the crude exceptions made against its doctrines or language.

Cleaver.
To PRECLUDE, from pre and cludo, or claudo, to shut, signifying to shut before or out, to put a stop to by the intervention of something, is, like obviate, applied to mental objects.

The design of subscription being to preserve one uniform tenor of faith, and to precluble diversity of opinion.

Waterland.
To prevent and preclude are rather the act of the thing than of the person; to obviate is rather the act of the person than of the thing. Circumstances may prevent or preclude anything from happening: a person obviates a difficulty or objection; so, according to this distinction, we may say either to obviate a ne. cessity, or to preclude a necessity for pny. thing, according as this is effected by any person, or by any circumstance.
$r$ have begun two or three letters to you by snawhes, and been prevented from finishing them by a thousand avocations and dissipations. Swift.
There appears to be no reason to suppose that he paid any attention to the law; indeed, his dramatic pursuits must have presluded the necessary application.

ANTHONY A. WOOD.
For the obviating that difficulty, 1 have willingly declined that instance against the eternal succession of mankind.

Hale.

## PREVIOUS, PRELIMINARY, PREPARATORY, INTRODUCTORY.

PREVIOUS, in Latin probvius, compounded of proe and via, signifies leading the way or going before. PRELIM. INARY, from proe and limen, a thresh. old, signifies belonging to the threshold or entrance. PREPARATORY and INTKODUCTORY signify belonging to a preparation or introduction.

Previous denotes simply the order of sucoesslon: the other terms, in addition to this, convey the idea of connection between the objects which suoceed each other. Previous appliss to actions and proceedings in general; as a previous question, a previous inquiry, a previous determination: prelimanary is employed only for matters of contract: a preliminary article, a preliminary condition, are what precede the final settlement of any question: preparatory is employed for matters of arrangement; the disposing of men in battle is preparatory to an engagement; the making of marriage deeds and contracts is preparatory to the final solemnization of tbe marriage: introductory is employed for matters of science or discussion; as remarks are introductory to the main subject in question; compendiums of grammar, geography, and the like, as introductory to larger works, are useful for young people. Prudent people are careful to make every prevz ous inquiry before they seriously enter into engagements with strangers: it is impolitic to enter into details until all preliminary matters are fully adjusted: one ought never to undertake any important matter without first adopting every preparatory measure tbat can facilitate its prosecution: in complicated matters it is necessary to have something introductory by way of explanation.

One step by which a tomptation approaches to
its crisis is a preoious growing familiarity of the mind with the sin which a man is tempted 10.

South
I have discussed the nuptial praliminaries so often, that I can repeat the forms in which jointures ure settled and pin-money secured. Johnson.

Eschylus is in the practice of holding the spectator in suspense by a preparatory silence in his chief person.

Cumberland.
Consider yourselves as acting now, under the eye of God, an introductory part to a more important scene.

Blad.

## PRIDE, VANITY, CONCEIT.

PRIDE is in all probability connected witb the word parade, and the German pracht, show or splendor, as it signifies that high-flown temper in a man which makes him paint to himself everything in himself as beautiful or splendid. VANITY, in Latin vanitas, from vain and va$n u s$, is compounded of ve or valde and inanis, signifying exceeding emptiness. CONCEIT, v. Conceit.

The valuing of one's self on the pos. session of any property is the idea common to these terms, but they differ either in regard to the object or the manner of the action. Pride is the term of most extensive import and application, and comprehends in its signification not only that of the other two terms, but likewise ideas peculiar to itself. Pride is applicable to every object, good or bad, high or low, small or great; vanity is applicable only to small objects: pride is therefore good or bad: vanity is always bad, it is always emptiness or nothingness. A man is proud who values himself on the possession of his literary or scientific talent, on his wealth, on his rank, on his power, on his acquirements, or his superiority over his competitors; be is vain of his person, his dress, his walk, or anything that is frivolous. Pride is the inherent quality in man; and, while it rests on noble objects, it is his noblest characteristic ; vanity is the distortion of one's nature flowing from a vicious constitution or education : pride shows itself variously, according to the nature of the object on which it is fixed; a noble pride seeks to display itself in all tbat can command the respect or admiration of mankind; the pride of wealth, of power, or of other adventitious properties, commonly displays itself in an unseemly deportment toward others; van ity shows itself in false pretensione

He was commonly represented as a proud and distant man, but in fact he had no more pride at leart than every man of honor carriea about with him, and which serres to repel everything that inclines toward meannees with becoming indignation.

Cemaenlana.
His vanity disposed him to be his excellency, and his weakness to believe that he should be the general in the houses as well as in the fleld, and be able to govern their connaela and reatrain their passions, aa well as to flght their battles.

Clarendon.
Pride, in the limited and bad sense, is arways associated with strength, and produces more or less violence; vanity is coupled with weakness.
Fanity makes men ridieulous, pride odious, and ambition terrible.
*Tis an old maxim in the schools, That vanity's the food of fools.

Steele.
Swift.
Conceit is that species of self-valuation that respects one's talents only; it is so far, therefore, closely allied to pride; but a man is said to be proud of that which he really has, but to be conccited of that which he really has not: a man may be proud to an excess of merits which he actually possesses; but when he is conccited, his morits are all in his own conceit; the latter is therefore obviously founded on falschood altogether. As self-conceit is the offspring of ignorance and vanity, it is most frequently found in youth, but, as it is the greatest obstacle to improvement, it may grow up with a person and go with him through life.
The self-canceit of the young is the great source of those dangers to which they are exposed.

Blatt.

## PRIDE, HAUGHTINESS, LOFTINESS, DIGNITY.

PRIDE is employed principally as respects the temper of the mind: HAUGHTINESS (v. Haughty) and LOFTINESS (v. High) respect either the temper of mind or the external behavior. DIGNITY (v. Honor) respects only the external behavior. Pride is, as hefore (v. Pride), the general term; the others are modes of pride. Pride, inasmuch as it consists purely of self-esteem, is a positive sentiment which one may entertain independently of other persons: it lies in the inmost recesses of the human heart, and mingles itself insensibly with our affections and passions. Haughtiness is that mode of pride which springs out of one's
comparison of one's self with others. the haughty man dwells on the inferiority of others; the proud man, in the strict sense, dwells on his own perfections. Loftiness is a mode of pride which raises the spirit above objects supposed to be inferior; it does not set man so much above others as above himself, or that which concerns himself.

Every demonstration of an implacable rancor and an untamable pride were the only encouragements we received (from the regicides) to the renewal of our aupplicationa.

Bubke.
Prosperity doth not only shut the eartl against counsel hy reason of the dulness which it leaves upon the senses, but also on account of that arrogance and untutored haughtinesa that it hrings upon the mind.

South.
Augustue and Tiberins had loftiness enough In their temper, and affected to make a sovereign figure.

Collies.
As respects the exterior, pride in the behavior is always bad.

He was commonly represented as a proud and distant man.

Comberland.
But it is taken in an indifferent sense in application to brutes or unconscions agents.
He, like a proud ateed rein'd, went haughty on. Milton.
Haughtiness in one's carriage, and loftiness in one's tone or air, are mostly unbecoming, and seldom warranted.

[^101] ence.

Johnson.
Dugnity, which arises from a proper consciousness of what is due to one's self, is always taken in a good sense. It is natural to some men, and shows itself at all times; on other occasions it requires to be assumed.

As soon as Almagro knew his fate to be inevitable, he met it with the dignity and fortitude of a veteran.

Roseatson.

## PRIMARY, PRIMITIVE, PRISTINE, ORIGINAL.

PRIMARY, from primus, signifies belonging to or like the first. PRIMI. TIVE, from the same, signifies being the first. PRISTINE, in Latin pristinus, from prius, signifies in former tifues. ORIGINAL signifies containing the ori gin.

The primary denotes simply the order of succession, and is therefore the generic term; primitive, pristine, and original include also the idea of some other relation to the thing that succeeds, and are therefore modes of the primary. The primary has nothing to come before it; in this manner we speak of the primary cause as the canse which precedes secondary causes: the primitive is that after which other things are formed; in this manner a primitive word is that after which, or from which, the derivatives are formed: the pristine is that which follows the primitive, sc as to become customary; there are but few specimens of the pristine purity of life among the professors of Christianity: the original is that which either gives birth to the thing, or belongs to that which gives birth to the thing; the original meaning of a word is that which was given to it by the makers of the word.

> Memory is the primary and fundamental power, without which there could be no other intellectual operation. Monsoanwhile our primitive great sire to meet, His godlike guest walks forth. As to the share of power each individual ought to have in the State, that I must deny to be among the direct original rights of man.

Burke.
While with her friendly clay he delgn'd to dwell, Shall she with safety reach her pristiue seat.

Pnior.

## PRINCE, MONARCH, SOVEREIGN, POTENTATE.

PRINCE, in French prince, Latin prin. ceps, from primus, signifies the chicf or the first person in the nation. MONARCH, from the Greek $\mu_{0} \nu_{0}$, alonc, and $a \rho \chi \eta$, government, signifies one having sole anthority. SOVEREIGN bas been supposed to be changed from superregnum, but, like the French souverain, the Spanish soberano, and the Italian sovrano, it may, perhaps, with greater propriety, be derived from supernus or supremus, supreme. POTENTATE, from potens, powerful, signifies one having supreme power.

Prince is the generic term, the rest are specific terms; every monarch, sovereign, and potentate is a prince, bnt not vice versa. The term prince is indefinite as to the degree of power: a prince may
have a limited or despotic power ; but in its restricted sense it denotes a smaller degree of power than any of the other terms: the term manarch does not define the extent of the power, bnt simply that it is undivided. as opposed to that species of power which is lodged in the hands of many: sovereign and potentate indicate the highest degree of power; but the former is employed only as re spects the nation that is governed, the latter respects other nations: a sovereign is supreme over his subjects; a potentate is powerful by means of his subjects. Every man having independent power is a prince, let his territory be ever so inconsiderable: Germany is divided into a number of small states, which are governed by petty princes. Every one reigning by himself in a state of some considerable magnitude, and having an independent authority over his subjects, is a monarch; kings and emperors, therefore, are all monarchs. Every monarch is a sovereign whose extent of dominion and number of subjects rises above the ordinary level; he is a potentate if his influence cither in the cabinet or the field extends very considerably over the affairs of other nations.

Of all the princes who had swayed the Mexican sceptre, Dontezuma was the most haughty.

Roaertson.
The Mexican people were warlike and enterprising, the authority of the nonareh unbounded.

Rohartson.
The Peruvians yielded a blind submission to their sovereigns.

Rogertson.
How mean must the most exalted potentats upon earth appear to that eye which takes in innumerable orders of spirits!

Addison.

## PRINCIPLE, MOTIVE.

The PRINCIPLE (v. Doctrine) may sometimes be the MOTIVE; bnt often there is a principle where there is no mative, and there is a motive where there is no principle. The principle lies in conscions and nnconscions agents; the motive only in conscions agents: all nature is guided by certain principles; its movements go forward upon certain principles: man is put into action by certain motives; the principle is the prime moving canse of everything that is set in motion; the motive is the prime moving canse that sets the hnman maohine into action

The principle in its restricted sense comes still nearer to the motive, when it refers to the opinions which we form: the principle in this case is that idea which we form of things, so as to regulate our conduct; the motive is that idea which simply impels to action: the former is therefore something permanent, and grounded upon the exercise of our reasoning powers; the latter is momentary, and arises simply from our capacity of willing and thinking: bad principles lead a man into a bad course of life; but a man may be led by bad motives to do what is good as well as what is bad.


#### Abstract

The best legislators have been satisfled with the establishment of some sure, solid, and ruling principle in government.

The danger of betraying our weaknes: to our scrvants, and the impossibility of concealing it from them, may be justly considered as one motive to a regular life.

Jobnson.


## PRIORITY, PRECEDENCE, PRE-EMINENCE, PREFERENCE.

PRIORITY denotes the abstract quallity of being before others: PRECEDENCE, from proe and cedo, signifies the state of going before: PRE-EMINENCE signifies being more eminent or elevated than others: PREFERENCE signifies being put before others. Priority respects simply the order of succession, and is applied to objects either in a state of motion or rest; precedence signifies priority in going, and depends upon a right or privilege; pre-eminence signifies priority in being, and depends upon merit ; preference signifies priority in placing, and depends upon favor. The priority is applicable rather to the thing than the person; it is not that which is sought for, but that which is to be had: age frequently gives priority where every other claim is wanting. The immoderate desire for precedence is often nothing but a childish vanity; it is a distinction that liows out of rank and power; a nobleman claims a precedence on all occasions of ceremony. The love of pre-eminence is laudable, inasmuch as it requires a degree of moral worth which exceeds that of others; a general aims at pre-eminence in his profession. Those who are anxious to obtain the best for themselves are eager to have the preference: we
seek for the preference in matters of choice.

A better place, a more commodious seat, priority in being helped at table, etc., what is it but sacrificing onrselves in such trifles to the convenience ad pleasures of others?

Earl Cgatiam.
Ranks will tben (in the next world) be adjusted, and precedency set aright. Addigon.
It is the concern of mankiad that the destruction of order shoold not be a claim to rank; that crimes should not be the only title to pre-eminence and honor.

Borke.
We find in ourselves a power to begin or forbear several actions of our minds or motions of our bodies, barely by a thought or preference of the mind.

LOCEE.

## PRIVACY, RETIREMENT, SECLUSION.

PRIVACY literally denotes the abstract quality of private; but when taken by itself it signifies the state of being private: RETIREMENT literally signifies the abstract act of retiring: and SECLUSION that of secluding one's self: but retirement by itself frequently denotes a state of being retired, or a place of retirement; seclusion, a state of being secluded: hence we say a person lives in privacy, in retircment, in seclusion: privacy is opposed to publicity; he who lives in privacy, therefore, is one who follows no public line, who lives so as to be little known : retirement is opposed to openness or freedom of access; he, tberefore, who lives in retirement withdraws from the society of otbers, be lives by himself: sectusion is the excess of retire. ment; be who lives in seclusion bars all access to himself; he shuts bimself from the world. Privacy is most suitable for such as are in circumstances of humiliation, whether from their misfortune or their fault; retirement is peculiarly agreeable to those who are of a reflective turn; but seclusion is chosen only by tbose who labor under some strong affection of the mind, whether of a religious or a physical nature.
Fly with me to some safe, some sacred privacy. Rovis.
In our rotirements everything disposes us to be serious.

ADDIBON.
There have appeared divines of enlightened and discerning minds, who have confirmed tha observation that superstitions gloom ever grows darker and assumes oew horrors in seclusion.

GLMMERMAN

PRIVILEGE, PREROGATIVE, EXEMPTION, IMMUNITY.
PRIVILEGE, in Latin privilegium, compounded of privus and lex, signifies a law made for any individual or set of individuals. PREROGATIVE, in Latin prerogativi, was so called from proe and rogo, to ask, because they were first asked whom they would have to be consuls: hence applied in our language to the tight of determining or choosing first in many particulars. EXEMPTION, from the verb to exempt, and IMMUNITY, from the Latin immunis, free, are both employed for the object from which one is excmpt or free.
Privilege and prerogative consist of positive advantages; exemption and immunity of those which are negative: by the former we obtain an actual good, by the latter the removal of an evil. Privilege, in its most extended sense, comprehends all the rest: for every prerogative, exemption, and immunity are privileges, inasmuch as they rest upon certain laws or customs, which are made for the benefit of certain individuals. In the restricted sense, the privilege may be enjoyed by many; the prerogative, which is a peculiar and distinguished privilege, can be enjoyed only by a few. As they respect the public, privileges belong to or are granted to the subject; prerogatives belong to the crown. It is the privilege of a member of Parliament to escape arrest for debt; it is the prerogative of the crown to be irresponsible for the conduct of its ministers: as respects private cases, it is the privilege of females to have the best places assigned to them; it is the prerogative of the male to address the female.

As the aged depart from the dignity, so they forfeit the privileges, of gray hairs. Blair.

By the worst of uscrpations, a usarpation on the prerogatives of nature, you attempt to force bilors and carpenters into the State. Buree.

Privileges are applied to every object which it is desirable to have; prerogative is confined to the case of makiag one's election, or exercising any special power; exemption is applicable to cases in which one is exempted from any tribute or payment; immunity, from the Latin munus, an office, is peculiarly applica-
ble to cases in whioh one is freed from a service: all chartered towns or corporations have privileges, exemptions, and immunities: it is the privilege of the city of London to shut its gates against the king.
Neither nobility nor clergy (in France) enfoyed any ecemption from the duty on consumable commodities.

BoRky
You claim an immunity from evil, which beiongs not to the lot of man.

Blair

## PROCEEDING PROCESS, PROGRESS.

The manner of performing actions for the attainment of a given end is the common idea comprehended in these terms. PROCEEDING is the most general, as it simply expresses the general idea of the manner of going on; the rest are specific terms, denoting some particularity in the action, object, or circumstance. Proceeding is said commonly of such things as happen in the ordinary way of doing business; PROCESS is said of such things as are done by rule: the former is considered in a moral point of view; the latter in a scientific or technical point of view : the Freema. sons have bound themselves together by a law of secrecy not to reveal some part of their proceedings; the process by which paper is made has undergone considerable improvements since its first inven. tion.
What could be more fair than to lay open to an enemy all that you wished to obtain, and to desire him to imitate your ingemuous proceeding?

Burke.
Saturnian Juno now, with double care,
Attends the fatal process of the war. Deyden.
Procceding and PROGRESS both refer to the moral actions of men; but the proceeding simply denotes the act of going on, or doing something; the progress denotes an approximation to the end: the proceeding may be ouly a partial action comprehending both the beginning and the end; bat the progress is applied to that which requires time, and a regular succession of action, to bring it to a com. pletion : that is a proceeding in which ev. ery man is tried in a court of law ; that is a progress which one makes in learn. ing, by the addition to oue's knowledge: hence we do not talk of the proceding of life, but of the progress of life.

## PRODUCTION

It le very ohservable that oar proceedings《iscovered plainly when his lordship thought well of himself, and when not, for if he was in good hcart he observed ne narrowly. Nortu.
His penatrating aud comprehenaive mind saw that the progress of social, and eapecially commercial, intercourse was producing new combinations, which had not been speciffcally foreseen when the daws applied to such subjects were enacted.

Biseet.

## PROCEEDING, TRANSACTION.

PROCEEDING signifies literally the thing that proceeds; and TRANSAC. TION the thing transacted: the former is, therefore, of something that is going forward; the latter of something that is already done: we are witnessea to the whole proceeding; we inquire into the whole transaction. The term proceeding s said of every event or circumstance which goes forward through the agenoy of men; transaction comprehends only those matters which have been deliherately transacted or brought to a conclu. sion: in this sense we use the word prooeeding in application to an affray in the street; and the word transaction to aome commercial nagotiation that has baen carried on between certain persons. The term proceeding marks the manner of proceeding; as when we speak of the proceedings in a court of law: transac. tion marks the business transacted; as the transactions on the Exchange. A proceeding may be charscterized as disgraceful; a transaction as iniquitous.

The procsedings of a council of old men in an American tribe, we are told, were no less formal and sagacious than those in a senate in more polished republice.

Robertson.
It was Bothwall's interest to cover, if possible, the whole transaction under the veil of darknasa and sliance.

Roaertion,
PROCESSION, TRAIN, RETINUE.
PROCESSION, from the verb proceed, signifies the act of going forward or betore, that is, in the present instance, of going before others, or one before another. TRAIN in all probability comes from the Latin traho, to draw, signifying the thing drawn after another; and in the present instance the persons who arc led after, or follow, any object. RETINUE, from the verb to retain, signifies those who are retained as attendauts.

All these terms are said of any number of persons who follow in a certain order ; but this, which is the leading idea in the word procession, is but collateral in the terms train and retinue: on the other haud, the procession may consist of persous of all ranks and stations; but train and retinue apply ouly to such as follow some person or thing in a subordinate capacity: the former in regard to such as make up the concluding part of some procession; the latter only in regard to the servants or attendants on the great. At funerals there is frequently a long train of coaches belonging to the friends of the deceased, which close the proces. sion; princes and vobles never go out on state or public occasions without a numerous retinue: the beauty of every procession consists in the order with which every ona keeps his place, and the regularity with which the whole goes forward; the length of a train is what renders it most worthy of notioe; the number of a retinue in Eastern nations is one criterion by which the wealth of the indlvidual la estimated.
And now the priests, Potitius at their haad, In sking of beasta involv'd, the long procession led.

DRTDEA
The moon, and all the starry train, Hung the vast vault of heav'n.

G4\%.
Him and his sleeplng slayes ho slew ; then sples Where Remus with his rich retinue lies.

Driden.
PRODUCTION, PRODUCE, PRODUCT.
The term PRODUCTION expresses either the act of producing or the thing produced; PRODUCT and PRODUCE express only the thing produced: the production of a tree from a seed is one of the wonders of nature; the produce will not be considerable. In the seuse of the thing produced, production is applied to every individual thing that is produced, whether by nature or art; as a tree is a production, or a painting is a production of art or skill: produce and product are properly applicable to those productions of nature which are made to turn to account; the former in a collect. ive sense, and in reference to some particular object ; the latter in an abstract and general sense: the aggregate quan. tity of grain drawn from a field is term. ed the produce of the field; but corn,

1ay, vegetahles, and fruits in general, are termed products of the earth: the naturalist examines all the productions of nature; the husbandman looks to the produce of his lands; the topographer and traveller inquire about the products of different countries.

He was expert in all the parts of physic; but for the history of nature, of the productions of all countries, of the virtues and improvements of plants, orea, and minerals, with their varieties io different climates, he was perhapa the perfectest and exactest man io the world.

Burnet.
A storm of hail, I am informed, has destroyed all the produce of my estate in Tuscany.

Melmoth's Letters of Ciceao.
Oor British products are of auch kinds and quantities as can turo the balance of trade to our advantage.

Addison.
There is the same distinction between these terms in their improper as in their proper acceptation; the production is whatever results from an effort, physical or mental, as a production of gevius, a production of art, and the like; the produce is the amount or aggregate result from physical or mental labor: thus, whatever the husbandman reaps from the cultivation of his land is termed the produce of his labor; whatever results from any public subseription or collection is, in like manner, the produce: the product is employed properly in regard to the mental operation of figures, as the product from multiplication, but may be extended to anything which is the fruit of the brain.

What would become of the scrofulous consumptive productions furnished by our men of wit and learoing ?

SwIFT.
This tax has already been so often tried, that we know the exact produce of it. ADDison.
I cannot help thinking the Arabian tales the product of some woman's imagioation.

Atterbuty.

## PRODUCTION, PERFORMANCE, WORK.

When we spcak of anything as resulting from any specified operation, we term It a PRODUCTION; as the production of an author, signifying what he has produced by the effort of his mind: Homer's Iliad is esteemed as one of the finest productions of the imagination. When we speak of anything as executed or performed by some person, we term it a PERFORMANCE, as a drawing or a painting is denominated the performance
of a particular artist. The term produca tion cannot be employed without specify. ing or referring to the source from which it is produced, or the means by which it is produced; as the production of art, the production of the inventive faculty, the $p r o d u c t i o n$ of the mind, ete.: a performance cannot be spoken of without referring to the individual by whom it has been performed; hence we speak of this or that person's performance. When we wish to specify anything that results from WORK or labor, it is termed a work: in this manner we either speak of the work of one's bands, or a work of the imagination, a work of time, a work of magnitude.

## Natore, in her productions slow, aspires

By just degrees to reach perfection's height.
Somerville
The performances of Pope were burned by those whom he had, perhapa, selected as moat likely to publish them.

Jognion.
Yet there are some works which the author must consign unpublished to posterity.

Johnson.

## TO PROFESS, DECLARE.

PROFESS, in Latin professus, partictple of profiteor, compounded of pro and fateor, to speak, signifies to set forth, or present to public view. DECLARE, v. To declare.
An exposure of one's thoughts or opinious is the common idea in the signification of these terms; but they differ in the manner of the action, as well as the object: one professes by words or hy actions; one declares by words only: a man professes to helieve that on which he acts; but he declares his belief of it either with his lips or in his writings. A profession may be general and partial, it may amount to little more than an intimation: a declaration is positive and explicit; it leaves no one in doubt: a profession may, therefore, sometimes be hypocritical; he who professes may wish to imply that which is not real : a declaration must be either directly true or false; he who declares expressly commits himself upon his veracity. Oue professes either as respects single actions, or a regular course of conduct ; one declares either passing thoughts or settled principles. A person professee to have walked to a certain distance; $t$ have taken a certain route, and the like: a Christian professes to follow the doc
trine and precepts of Christianity; a person declares that a thing is true or false, or he declares his firm belief in a thing.

A naked profesion may have credit, when no other evidence can be given.

We are a considerable body, who, upon a propor occasion, would not fail to declare ourselves. ADpison.
To profess is employed only for what concerns one's self; to declare is likewise employed for what concerns others: one professes the motives and principles by which one is guided: one declares facts and circumstances with which one is acquainted: one professes nothing but what one thinks may be creditable and fit to be known; but one declares whatever may have fallen under one's notice, or passed through one's mind, as the case requires; there is always a particular and private motive for profession; there are frequently public grounds for making a declara. tion.

## Pretending first

Wise to fly pain, professing next the spy,
Argues no leader.
Mluton.
There are nowhere so plain and full declarations of mercy and love to the sons of men as are made in the Gospel.

Tillotson.

## PROFLIGATE, ABANDONED, REPRObate.

PROFLIGATE, in Latin profligatus, participle of profigo, compounded of the intensive pro and fligo, to dash or beat, signifies completely ruined and lost to everythiag. ABANDONED, v. To abandon. REPROBATE ( $v$. To reprove) signifies one thoroughly rejected.

These terms, in their proper acceptation, express the most wretched condition of fortune into which it is possible for any human being to be plunged, and consequently, in their improper application, they denote that state of moral desertion and ruin which cannot be exceeded in wickedness or depravity. A profigate man has lost all by his vices, and consequently to his vices alone he looks for the regaining those goods of fortune which he has squandered; as he has nothing to lose, and everything to gain in his own estimation, by pursuing the career of his vices, he surpasses all others in his unprincipled conduct: an abandoned man is altogether abandoned to his pas-
sions, which, having the entire sway ove, him, naturally impel him to every excess : the reprobate man is one who has been reproved until he hecomes insensible to reproof, and is given up to the malignity of his own passions.
Aged wisdom can check the most forward, and abash the most profligato. Blata.
To be negligent of what any one thinks of you, does not only show you arrogant but abandoned.

Нбонев.
And here let those who boast in mortal things, Learn how their greatest monuments of fame, And strength, and art, are easily outdone By reprobate spirits.

Mifton,

## PROFUSION PROFUSENESS.

PROFUSION, from the Latin profundo, to pour forth, is taken in relation to uncon. scious objects, which pour forth in great plenty; PROFUSENESS is taken from the same, in relation to conscious agents, who likewise pour forth in great plenty: the term profusion, therefore, is put for plenty itself, and the term profuseness as a characteristic of persons in the sense of extravagance. At the hospitable board of the rich, there will naturally be a profusion of everything which can gratify the appetite; when men see an unusual degree of profusion, they are apt to indulge themselves in profuseness.
Ye glitt'ring towns with wealth and splendor crown'd,
Ye fields where summer spreads profusion round,
For me your tributary stores combine.

## Goldmitr.

I was convinced that the liberality of my young companions was only profuseness. Johnson.

PROGRESS, PROGRESSION, ADVANCE, ADVANCEMENT.
A forward motion is designated hy these terms: but PROGRESS and PROGRESSION simply imply this sort of motion; ADVANCE and ADVANCEMENT also imply an approximation to some object: we may make a progress in that which has no specific termination, as a progress in learning, which may cease only with life; but the advance is only made to some limited point or object in view ; as an advance in wealth or honor, which may find a termination within the life. Progress and advance are said of that which has been passed over; but
progression and advancement may be said of that which one is passing: the progress la made, or the person is in advance; he is in the act of progression or advancement: a child makes a progress in learning by daily attention; the progression from one stage of learning to another is not always perceptible; it is not always possible to overtake one who is in advance; sometimes a person's advancement is retarded by circumstances that are altogether contingent: the first step in any deatructive course still prepares for the aecond, and the second for the third, af. ter which there is no stop, but the progress is infinite.

I wish it were in my power to give a regular history of the progress which our ancestors have made in this species of versification. Triwhitt.
And better thence again, and better still,
In infiaite progression.
Thomson.
The most successful students make their advances in knowledge by short flights. Jounson.

I have lived to see the fierce advancement, the sadden turn, and the abrupt period, of three or four enormous friendships.

Pope.

## PROGRESS, PROFICIENCY, IMPROVEMENT.

PROGRESS (v. Proceeding) is a generic term, the rest are specific; PROFICIEN. CY, from the Latin proficio, compounded of $p r o$ and facio, signifies a profited statc, that is to say, a progress already made; and IMPROVEMENT, from the verb $i \mathrm{~m}$ proved, signifies an improved condition; that is, progress in that which improves. The term progress here, as in the former paragraph, marks the step or motion onward, and the two others the point already reached: but progress is applied either in the pruper or improper sense, that is, either to those travelling forward, or to those going on stepwise in any work; proficiency is applied, in the improper sense, to the ground gained in an art, and improvement to what is gained in knowledge, or understanding, or abilities ; when idle people set about any work, it is difficult to perceive that they make any prog. ress in it from time to time; those who have a thorough taste for either music or drawing will make a $p$ roficiency in it which is astonishing to those who are unacquainted with the circumstances; the $\mathrm{im}^{-}$ provement of the mind can never be so
effectually and easily obtained as in the period of childhood.
Solon, the sage, his progress never ceased,
But still his learning with his days increas'd.
DENHAM,
When the lad was about aineteen, his nncle desired to see him, that he might know what proficiency he had made. HawEeswonth.
The improvement which grows from habituating the mind to the comprehensive views of religion must not be thought wholly to regard the anderstanding.

Addison:
Progress and proficiency are applied to the acts of persons, but improvement denotes also the act or state of things; one must make a progress or proficiency, but things admit of improvement.
The metrical part of our poetry, in the time of Chancer, was capable of more improvement.

Tyewhity.

## PROMINENT, CONSPICUOUS.

- PROMINENT aignifiea hanging over; CONSPICUOUS (v. Distinguished) signifies easy to be beheld: the former is, therefore, to the latter, in some measure, as the species to the genus; what is prominent is, in general, on that very account conspicuous; but many things may be conspicuous which are not expressly prominent: nothing is prominent but what projects beyond a certain line; everything is conspicuous which may be seen by many: the nose on a man's face is a prominent feature, owing to its projecting situation; and it is sometimes conspicuous, according to the position of the person: a figure in a painting is said to be prominent, if it appears to stand forward or before the others; but it is not properly conspicuous, unless there be something in it which attracts the general notice, and distinguishes it from all other things; on the contrary, it is com, spicuous, but not expressly prominent, when the colors are rivid.

[^102]Comberland.
That innocent mirth which had been so oon spicuous in Sir Thomas More's life, did not forsake him to the last.

Addison.

## PROMISCUOUS, INDISCRIMINATE.

PROMISCUOUS, in Latin promiscuus from promisceo, or pro and misceo, to min
gle, signlfies thoroughly mingled. INDISCRIMINATE, from the Latin in, privative, and discrimen, a difference, signifies without any difference.

Promiscuous is applied to any number of different objects mingled together: indiscriminate is only applied to the action in which one does not discriminate different objects: a multitude ia termed promiscutous, as characterizing the thing ; the use of different things for the aame purpose, or of the same thinga for different purposes, is termed indiscriminate, as characterizing the peraon: things become promiscuous by the want of design in any one; they are indiscriminate by the expresa intention of some one: plants of all descriptions are to be found promiserously aituated in the beds of a garden : it is folly to level any charge indiscriminately againat all the members of any community or profeazion.
Victors and vanquish'd join promiecuous cries. Pops.
From this indiseriminate distribution of misery, the moralists have always derived one of their strongest moral arguments for a future state.

Johnson.

## PROMISE, ENGAGEMENT, WORD.

PROMISE, in Latin promissus, from promitto, compounded of $p r o$, before, and mitto, to set or fix; that is, to fix beforehand, is specific, and consequently more binding than the ENGAGEMENT (v.Busiress); we promise a thing in a aet form of words, that are clearly and strictly understood; we engage in general terms, that may admit of alteration : a promise is mostly unconditional; an engagement is frequently conditional. In promises the faith of an individual ia admitted upon hia word, and built upon as if it were a deed; in engagements the intentions of an individual for the future are all that are either implied or underatood: on the fulcilment of promises often depend the most important interesta of individuals; an attention to engagements is a matter of mutual convenience in the ordinary concerns of life: a man makes a promise of payment, and upon his promise it may happen that many others depend for the fulfilment of their promises: when engagements are made to visit or meet others, an inattention to auch engagements cauaes great trouble.

An acre of performance ts worth the whole world of promise. Howeli.
The engagements I had to Dr. Swift were such as the actual services he had done me, in relation to the subscription for Homer, obliged me to.

Pope.
As a promise and engagement can be made only by words, the WORD is often put for either, or for both, as the case requires: he who breaka his word in amall matters cannot be trusted when he gives his word in matters of consequence.

## Eneas was our prince ; a Juster lord,

 Or nobler warrior, never drew a sword; Observant of the right, religioas of his word.Diyden.

## PROOF, EVIDENCE, TESTIMONY.

The PR00F (v. Argument) is that which simply proves; the EVIDENCE is that which makea evident (v. Clear); the TESTIMONY, from testis, a witress, is a species of evidence by means of witnesses. In the legal acceptation of the terms proofs are commonly denominated evi dence, because nothing can be admitted as proof which does not tend to make evident; but as what is proved is made more certain or indubitable than what is made evident, proof is more than evidence. Proof is likewiae taken for the act of proving as well as for the thing that proves, which dietinguishes it atill further from evidence.

Positive proof is always required where, from the nature of the case, it appears it might possibly have been had. Bnt next to positive proof circumstantial evidence, or the doctrine of presumptions, must take place.

Blackstone.
Evidence comprehends whatever is employed to make evident, be it words or deeds, be it writing or discourac; testimony is properly evidence by words spoken, and, more strictly \&peaking, the perzon giving tbe evidence.

## Evidence is either written or parole.

## Blackstong.

Our law considers that there are many transactions to which only one person is privy, and therefore does rit always demand the testimo$n y$ of two.

Blackstone.
In an extended application of these terms they are employed with a similar diatinction: the proof is the mark or aign which proves: the evidence is the mark or aign which makea evident: the testimony is that which is offered or giv

## PROROGUE

on by things personified in proof of anything.
Of the fallaciousness of hope and the uncertainty of schemes, every day gives some new proof.

Jounson.
Cato Major, who had borne all the great offices, has left us an evidsncs, under his own hand, how much he was versed in country affairs.

Locke.
Evidance is said to arise from testimony, when we depend upon the credit and relation of others for the truth or falsehood of anythiog.

Wheing.
The proof is employed for facts or physical objects: the evidence is applied to that which is moral ; testimony regards that which is personal. All that our Saviour did and said were evidences of his divine character, which might have produced faith in the minds of many, even if they had not had such numerous and miraculons proofs of his power. One friend makes a present to another in testimony of his regard: the proof and the testimony is something external, or some ontward mark or indication; the evidence may he internal, or lie in the thing itself, as the internal evidences of Christianity.

> Men ought not to expect eithor sensible proof or demonstration for such matters as are aot capable of such proofs, snpposing them to be true.
> Wrixiss.
> Of Swift's general habits of thinking, if his letters can be supposed to afford any evidencs, he was not a man to be either loved or envied.

Jounson.
Ye Trojan flames, your testimony bear
What I perform'd, and what I sufter'd there.
Dayden.
PROPORTIONATE, COMMENSURATE, ADequate.
PROPORTIONATE, from the Latin proportio, compounded of pro and portio, signifies having a portion, suitahle to, or in agreement with, some other object. COMMENSURATE, from the Latin commensus or commentior, signifies measuring in accordance with some other thing, being suitable in measure to something else. ADEQUATE, in Latin adoequatus, participle of adkequo, signifies made level with some other body.

Proportionate is here a term of general use; the others are particular terms, employed in a similar sense, in regard to particular objects : that is proportionate which rises as a thing rises, and falls as
a thing falls; that is commensurate whick is made to rise to the same measure or degree; that is adequate which is made to come up to the height of another thing. Proportionate is employed either in the proper or improper sense; in all recipes and prescriptions of every kind proportionate quantities must.always be taken; when the task increases in diff. culty and complication, a proportionate degree of labor and talent must be employed upon it. Commensurate and ade. quate are employed only in the moral sense; the former to denote snitahility of things in point of measure, the latter to denote the equalizing of powers: a person's recompense should in some measure be commensurate with his labor and deserts: a person's resources should be adequate to the work he is engaged in

All envy is proportionats to desire.
JoHNSOK
Where the matter is not commensurats to the words, all speaking is but tantology. South

Outward actions are not adequate expressiona of our virtnes.

Addibon.

## PROPOSAL, PROPOSITION,

PROPOSAL comes from propose, in the sense of offer: PROPOSITION comes from propose, in the sense of setting down in a distinct form of words. We make a proposal to a person to enter into a partnership with him; we make a proposition to one who is at variance with us to settle the difference by arbitration.

I have proposed a visit to her friend Lady Campbell, and my Anna seemed to recelve the proposal with pleasure. Sir William Jones.

The Protestants, averse from proceeding to any act of violence, listened with pleasure to the pacific proposition of the queen regent.

Robeatson.

## TO PROROGUE, ADJOURN.

PROROGUE, from the Latin prorogo, signifies to put off, and is used in the general sense of deferring for an indefinite period. ADJOURN, from journée, the day, signifies only to put off for a day, or some short period : the former is applied to national assemblies only; the latter is applicahle to any meeting.

A prorogation is the continuance of Parlio. ment from one session to another. Bbackstone

An adjournment is no more than a continuance of the session from one day to another.

Blacestone.

## TO PROVE, DEMONBTRATE, EVINCE, MANLFEST.

PROVE, in Latin probo, signifies to make geod, i. e., to make geod by proofs, which is here the general term; the other terins imply different modes of proving: we prove in different ways, and in different degrees. To DEMONSTRATE, from monstro, to show, and the intensive syllable $d e$, signifies to prove in a specific manner, that is, in a clear and undeniable manner; we may prove facts, innocence, guilt, and the like; we demonstrate the truth or falsity of a thing.

The existence of a God is so far from being a thing that wants to be proved, that I think it the only thing of which we are certain.

Guabdian.
The nature of this eternity is utterly inconceivable by the mind of man : our reason demonstrates to us that it has been, but at the same time can frame no idea of it, but what is big with absurdity and contradiction.

ADDISON.
Prove and demonstrate may also be applied to that which a person may show of himself; evince and manifest are used only in this application. To prove in this case is to give a proof, as to prove onc's valor; to demonstrate is to give a clear or ocular proof, as to demonstrate an attachment to a thing; to evince is to show by convincing proof, as to evince one's Integrity by the whole course of one's dealings; to manifest is to make manifest, as to manifest one's displeasure or satisfaction.

From what is left on record of his actions, he plainly appears to liave proved, what the prophet foresaw him to be, a man of violence, cruelty, and blood.

Blata.
By the very setting apart and consecrating places for the service of God, we demonstrats onr acknowledgment of his power and sovereignty oper us.

Beveridge.
We must evince the sincerity of our faith by good works.

Blaia.
In the life of a man of sense, a short life is sufeclent to manifest himself a man of honor and virtne.

Steele.
In regard to things, to prove is to serve as a proof; to evince is to serve as a particular proof; to manifest is to serve as a puhlic proof. The beauty and order in the Creation prove the wisdom
of the Oreator; a persistence in a particular course of conduct may eithet evince great virtue or great folly; the miracles wrought in Egypt manifested the Divine power.
Why on those shores are they with joy survey'd, Admir'd as heroes, and as gods obey'd,
Unless great acts superior merit prove $/$ Pops.
His master's interest and his own comblued, Prompt every movement of his heart and mind, Thonght, word, and deed his liberty evincs,
His freedom is the freedom of a prince. Cowpen.
This intermediate space is so well husbanded and managed that there is gcarce a degree of perception which does not exist in some one part of the world of life. Is the goodness or wisdom of the Divine Being more manifeated in this proceeding?

Addison.

## to provide, procure, furnish, SUPPLY.

PROVIDE, in Latin provideo, signifies literally to see before, but figuratively to get in readiness for some future purpose. PROCURE, $v$. To get. FURNISH is in French fournir. SUPPLY, in French suppléer, Latin suppleo, from sub aud pleo, signifies to fill up a deficiency, or make up what is wanting.

Provide and procure are hoth actinns that have a special refereace to the future; furush and supply are employed for that which is of immediate concern: one provides a dinner in the contemplation that some persons are coming to partake of it; one procures help in the contemplation that it may be wanted; we furnish a room, as we find it necessary for the present purpose; one supplies a family with any article of domestic use. Calculation is necessary in providing; one does not wish to provide too much or too little: lahor and management are requisite in procuring; when a thing is not always at hand, or not easily come at, one must exercise one's time, strength, or ingenuity to procure it: judgment is requisite in furnishing; what one furnishes ought to be selected with refereace to the circamstances of the individual who furnishes; care and attention are wanted in supplying; we must be careful to know what a person really wants, in order to supply him to his satisfaction. One provides against all contingencies; one procures all necessaries; one fur. nishes all comforts; one supplies ell defi ciencies.

A rude hand may bulld walls, form roofs, and lay floors, and provide all that warmth and security require. Johnson.
Such dress as may enable the body to endure the different seasons, the most nuenlightened nations have been ahle to procure. Johnson.

Auria having driven the Turks from Corone, both by sea and land, furnished the city with corn, wine, victual, and gunpowder, Knolles.
Althongh I neitber lend nor horrow, Yet to supply the ripe wants of niy friend I'll break a custom.

Shakspeare.
Provide and procure are the acts of persons only; furnish and supply are the acts of unconscious agents: one's garden and orchard may be said to furnish him with delicacies; the earth supplies us with food. So in the improper application: the daily occurrences of a great city furnish materials for a newspaper; a Dewspaper, to an Englishman, supplies almost every other want.

Your ideas are new, and horrowed from a monntaioons country, the only one that can furnish truly pictaresque scenery.

Grax.
And clouds, dissolv'd, the thirsty ground supply.
Dryden.

## PROVIDENCE, PRUDENCE.

PROVIDENCE and PRUDENCE are hoth derived from the verb to provide; but the former expresses the particular act of providing ; the latter the habit of providing. The former is applied both to animals and men; the latter is cm ployed only as a characteristic of men. We may admire the providence of the ant in laying up a store for the winter; the prudence of a parent is displayed in his concern for the future settlement of his child. It is provident in a person to adopt measures of escape for himself, in certain situations of pecoliar danger; it is prudent to be always prepared for all contingencies.
In Albion's isle, when glorions Edgar relgn'd, He , wisely provident, from her white cliffs, Launch'd half her forests.

Somerville.
Prudence operates on life in the same manmer as rules on composition; it produces vigilance rather than elevation.

Johnson.

## PRUDENT, PRUDFNTIAL.

PRUDENT (v. Judgment) characterizes the person or the thing; PRUDENTIAL cbaracterizes only the thing. Prudent signifies baving prudence; prudential, aecording to rules of prudence, or as re-
spects prudence. The prudent is opposed to the imprudent and inconsiderate; the prudential is opposed to the voluntary: the course is prudent which accords with the principles of puudence; the reason or motive is prudential, as flowing out of circumstances of prudence or necessity Every one is called upon at certain times to adopt prudent measures; those who are obliged to consult their means in the management of their expenses must act upon prudential motives.
Ulysses first in public care she found,
For prudent counsel like the gods renown'd.
Pope.
Those who possess elevated understandings ars naturally apt to consider all prudential maxims as below their regard.

Jonnson,

## TO PRY, SCRUTINIZE, DIVE INTO.

PRY is in all probability changed from prove, in the sense of try. SCRUTINIZE comes from the Latin scrutor, to search thorougbly. DIVE, v. To plunge.

Pry is taken in the bad sense of looking more narrowly into things than one ought: scrutinize and dive into are employed in the good sense of searching things to the bottom. A person who pries looks into that which does not belong to him; and too narrowly also into that which may belong to him; it is the consequence of a too eager curiosity or a busy meddling temper: a person who serutinizes looks into that which is intentionally concealed from him; it is an act of duty flowing out of his office: a person who dives penetrates into that which lies hidden very deep; be is impelled to this action by the thirst of knowledge and a laudable curiosity.

A love of prying into the private affairs of families makes a person a troublesome neighbor: it is the business of the magistrate to scrutinize all matters which affect the good order of society: there are some minds so imbued with a love of science that they delight to dive into the secrets of nature.

[^103]He who enters upon this scrutiny (into the depths of the mind) enters into a labyrinth.

> Sodte

In man the more we dive, the more we see
Heaven's signet stamping 80 immortal make.
Younc
to PUblisil, promulgate, divulge, REVEAL, DISCLOSE.
PUBLISH, v. To advertise. PROMULGATE, in Latin promulgatus, participle of promulgo or provulgo, signifies to make vulgar. DIV ULGE, in Latin divulgo, that is, in diversos vulgo, signifies to make vulgar in different parts. REVEAL, in Latin revelo, from velo, to veil, signifies to take off the veil or cover. DISCLOSE significs to make the reverse of close.

To publish is the most general of these terms, conveying in its extended sense the idea of making known; but it is in many respects indefinite: we may publish to many or few; but to promulgate is al. ways to make known to many. We may publish that which is a domestic or a national concern; we promulgate properly only that which is of general interest: the affairs of a family or of a nation are published in the newspapers; doctrines, prinoiples, preoepts, and the like, are promulgated.
The Jews read Moses and the Prophete of old time, as their Book of Acte informe us. And so, indeed, da writere of their own in the seme age with it, who hoast of the practice as a most useful and honoreble distinction pecullar to their nation, that the laws of life were thus publiahed to the people.

Seoker.
An alsurd theary on one side of a question forms no justification for alleging a folse fact or promulgating mischievole maxims on the other. burie.
We may publish things to be known, or things not to be known; we divulge things mostly not to be known: we may publish our own shame, or the shame of another, and we may publish that which is advantageous to another; hut we commonly divulge the secrets or the crimes of another.

[^104]lay hidden: we publish the events of the day; we reveal the secret or the mystery of a transaction; we disclose the whole affair from beginning to end, which has never been properly known or accounted for.

If I should tell you how these two did coact, Shall I not lie in publlahing the truth ?

Shakspeabe.
In confession, the revealing is not por worldly use, but for the ease of $a$ men's heart. Bacon. Then earth end ocean verious forme disolose. Dryden.

## TO PURPOSE, PROPOSE.

We PURPOSE (v.To design) that which is near at hand, or immediately to he set about; we PROPOSE that which is more distant: the former requires the setting before oue's mind, the latter requires deliberation and plan. We purpose many things which we never think worth while doing ; but we ought not to propose anything to ourselves which is not of too much importance to be lightly adopted or rejeoted, We purpose to go to town on a certain day; we propose to spend our time in a particular study.

## When listening Philomela deignu

To let them joy, end purposes in thought
Elate, to make her night excel tbalr day.
THOM8ON.
There are but two plane on which any man cen propose to conduct himself through the dengers and distresses of humsn life.

Blaig.
TO PUSH, SHOVE, THRUST.
All these words denote the giving an impulse to a body with more or less force, but differ as to the situation in which the impulse is given. PUSH and SHOVE require the bodies which give and receive the impulse to be in contact: one person cannot push or shove anotber without coming in direct personal contact with him; as when a person touches another in passing, it may be a push more or less violent: to shove is a continued action, which causes the body to move forward; as to shove a load along the ground. A body may he both pusiced and shoved along, hut in the former case this is effected by repeated pushes, and in the latter case by a continuation of the same act. To THRUST, like push, is a single act; but thrusting is com. monly performed by some instrument, as
a pole, a stick, a band, or some part of a body.
Our enemies have beat us to the pit;
It is more wortby to leap in ourselves
Than tarry till they $p u s h$ us. Shaispeare.
There the British Neptune stood
Beneath them, to submit th' officious fiood,
And with his trident $a h o v ' d$ them off the sand.
Dhyden.
When the king comes, offer him no violence Unless he seek to thruat you out by force.

Shakspeare.
A body may likewise, in a similar manner, thrust itself, but it always pushes or shoves some other body.

Who's there, I say? How dare you thrust yourselves
Into my private meditations? 'Suarspeare.

## to put, place, lay, set.

PUT is in all probability derived from the same root as the Latin positus, participle of pono, to place. PLACE, v. To place. LAY, in Saxon legan, German legen, Latin loco, and Greek $\lambda \in$ yo $\mu a a^{\prime}$, signities to canse to lie; and SET, in German setzen, Latin sisto, and sto, to stand, signities to cause to stand. Put is the most general of all these terms; place, lay, and set are but modes of putting; one puts things generally, but the way of putting is not defined; we may put a thing into one's room, one's desk, one's pocket, and the like; but to place is to put in a specific manner, and for a specific purpose; one places a book on a shelf as a fixed place for it, and in a position most suitable to it. To lay and set are still more specific than place; the former being applied only to such things as can be made to lie; and set only to such as can be made to stand: a book may be said to be laid on the table when placed in a downward position, and set on a shelf when placed on one end: we lay ourselves down on the ground; we set a trunk upon the ground.

The laborer cuts
Young slips, and in the soil seeurely puts.
Dryben.
Then youths and virgins, twice as many, join To place the dishes, and to scrve the wine.

DRYDEN.
Here some design a mole, while others there
Lay deep foundations for a theatre. Deyben.
Ere I could
Giva bim that parting kiss, whieh I had aet
Between two charming words, comes in my father.
Shayupeare.

## QUAIIFICATION, ACOOMPLISHMENT.

The QUALIFICATION (v. Competent) serves the purpose of utility; the ACCOMPLISHMENT serves to adorn : by the first we are euabled to make ourselves useful; by the second we are enabled to make ourselves agreeable. The qualifications of a man who bas an office to perform must be considered: of a man who has only pleasure to pursue, the accomplishments are to be considered. A readiness with one's pen, and a facility at accounts, are necessary qualifications either for a school or a counting-house; drawing is one of the most agreeable and suitable accomplishments that can be given to a young person.
The companion of an evening, and the companion for life, require very different qualifications.

Johmson.
Where nature bestows genius, education will give accomplishments.

Combealand.

## TO QUALLFY, TEMPER, HUMOR.

QUALIFY, v. Competent. TEMPER, from tempero, is to regulate the temperament. HUMOR, from lumor, is to suit the humor.

Things are qualified according to circumstances: what is too harsh must be qualified by something that is soft and lenitive; things are tempered by nature or by providence, so that things perfectly discordant should not be combined; things are humored by contrivance: what is subject to many changes requires to be lumored; a polite person will qualify a refusal by some expression of kindness; Providence has tempered the seasons so as to mix something that is pleasant in them all. Nature itself is sometimes to be humored when art is employed: but the tempers of man require still more to be humored.

It is the excellency of friendship to reetify, or at least to qualify, the malignity of these surmises.

South.
God in his merey has so framed and tempered his word, that we have for the most part a reserve of merey wrapped up in a curse. Soutr

Our British gardeners, instead of humoring nature, love to deviate from it as much as possible.

Addieon.

QUALITY, PROPERTY, ATTRIBUTE.
QUALITY, in Latin qualitas, from quek lis, such, signifies such as a thing really is. PROPERTY, which is changed from propriety and proprius, proper or one's own, signifies belonging to a thing as an essential ingredient. ATTRIBUTE, in Latin attributus, participle of attribuo, to bestow upon, signifies the things bestowed upon or assigued to another.

The quality is that which is inherent in the thing and coexistent; the property is that which belongs to it for the time being; the attribute is the quality which is assigned to any object. We canoot alter the quality of a thing without altering the whole thing; but we may give or take away properties from bodies at pleasure, without entirely destroying their identity; and we may ascribe attributes at discretion.

Humility and patience, industry and temperance, are very often the good qualities of a poor man.

Addison.
No man can have sunk so far into stupidity, as not to consider the properties of the ground on which he walks, of the plants on which he feeds, or of the animals that delight his ear. Jonnson.
Man o'er a wider fleld extends his views, God through the wonder of his works pursues, Exploring thence his uttributes and laws, Adores, loves, imitates, th' Eternal Cause.

Jenyes.

## QUARREL, BROIL, FEUD.

QUARREL ( $v$. Difference) is the general and ordinary term; BROLL, from brawl, and FEUD, in German fehde, connected with the word $f i g h t$, including active hostility, are particular terms. The idea of a variance between two or more parties is common to these terms; but the former respects the complaints and charges which are reciprocally made; broil respects the confusion and entanglement which arises from a contention and collision of interests; fend respects the hostilities which arise out of the variance. There are guarrels where there are no broils, and there are both where there are no feuds; but there are no broils and feuds without quarrels: the quarrel is not always openly conducted between the parties; it may sometimes be secret, and sometimes manifest itself only in a coolness of behavior: the broil is a noisy kind of quarrel, it always
breaks out in lond, and mostly reproachful language: foud is a deadly kind of quarrel which is heightened by mutual aggravations and insults. Quarrels are very lamentable when they take place between members of the same family; broils are very frequent among profligate and restless people who live togetber: feuds were very general in former times between different families of the nobility.

The dirk or broad dagger, $I$ am afraid, was of more use in private quarrels than in battles.

Johnson.
Ev'n haughty Juno, who with endless broild,
Earth, seas, and heav'n, and Jove himself turmoils,
At length aton'd, her friendly pow'r shall join, To cherish and advance the Trojan line.

Dryden.
The poet describes (in the poem of Chevy Chase) a battle occasioned by the mutual feude which reigned in the families of an Engish and Scotch nobleman.

Addison.

## QUARREL, AFFRAY, OR FRAY.

A QUARREL (v. Difference) is indefinite, both as to the cause and the manner in which it is conducted; an AF. FRAY or FRAY, from frico, to rub, signifies the collision of the passions, and is a particular kind of quarvel: a quarrel may subsist between two persons from a private difference; an affray always takes place between many upon some public occasion: a quarrel may be carried on merely by words; an affray is commonly conducted by acts of violence: many angry words pass in a quarrel between too hasty people; many are wounded, if not killed, in affrays, when opposite parties mect.
The quarrel between my friends did not run so high as I .ind your accounts have made it.

## Steele.

The Provost of Edinburgh, his son, and several citizens of distinction, were killed in the fray.

Robebtbon.

## QUESTION, QUERY.

QUESTION, v. To ask. QUERY is but a variation of quacre, from the verb quaro, to seek or inquire.

Questions and queries are both put for the sake of obtaining an answer; but the former may be for a reasonable or unreasonable cause; a query is mostly a rational question: idlers may put questions from mere curiosity; learned men put queries for the sake of information.

1 thall conclade with proposing only some queries in order to a further search to be made by othera.

Newton.
Because he that knoweth least is fittest to ask questions, it is more reason for the entertainment of the time that ye ask me questions than that I aak you. Bacon.

## QUICKNESS, SWIFTNESS, FLEETNESS, CELERITY, RAPIDITY, VELOCITY.

These terms are all applied to the notion of bodies, of which QUICKNESS, from quick, denotes the general and simple idea which characterizes all the rest. Quickness is near akin to life, and is directly opposed to slowness. SWIFT. NESS, in all probability from the German schweifen, to roam; and FLEET. NESS, from fly, express higher degrees of quickness. CELERITY, probably from celer, a horse; VELOCITY, from volo, to fly; and RAPIDITY, from rapio, to seize or hurry along, differ more in application than in degree. Quick and sooift are applicable to any ohjects; wen are quick in moving, swift in running: dogs hear quickly, and run swiftly; a mill goes quickly or swiftly round, according to the force of the wind: fleetness is tbe peculiar characteristic of winds or horses; a horse is fleet in the race, and is sometimes described to be as fleet as the winds: that which we wish to characterize as particularly quick in our ordinary operations, we say is done with celerity; in this manner our thoughts pass with celerity from one object to another: those things are said to move with rapidity which seem to hurry everything away with them ; a river or stream moves with rapidity; time goes on with a rapid flight: velocity signifies the swiftness of flight, which is a motion that exceeds all others in swiftness: hence, we speak of the velocity of a ball shot from a cannon, or of a celestial body moving in its orbit; sometimes these words, rapidity and velocity, are applied in the improper sense by way of emphasis to the very swift movements of other bodies: in this manner the wheel of a carriage is said to move rapidly; and the flight of an animal, or the progress of a vessel before the wind, is compared to the fligbt of a bird in point of velocity.

Impatience of labor aeizes those who are most distigguished for quickness of apprehension.

Johnson.

Above the boanding billows swift they flew, Till now the Grecian camp appear'd in view.

Pors
For fear, thongh fleeter than the wind, Believea 'tis alwaya left behind.

Buthem
By moving the eye we gather up with great celerity the several parts of an object, so as to form one piece.

BDaER
Meantime the radiant ann, to mortal sight
Descending awift, roll'd down the rapid light. Popz
Llghtning ls productive of grandeur, which : chiefly owes to the velocity of its motion.

BDRKa

## R.

## race, generation, breed.

RACE, v. Family. GENERATION, in Latin generatio, from genero, and the Greek $\gamma^{2} \nu \nu a \omega$, to engender or beget, signifies the thing begotten. BREED signifies that which is bred ( $v$. To breed). These terms are all employed in regard to a number of animate objects which have the same origin; the first two are said only of human beings, the latter only of brutes: the term race is employed in regard to the dead as well as the living; generation is employed mostly in regard to the living: hence we speak of the race of the Heraclidæ, the race of the Bourbons, the race of the Stuarts, and the like; but the present generation, the whole generation, a worthless generation, and the like: breed is said of those animals which are brought forth, and brought up in the same manner. Hence, we denominate some domestic animals as of a good breed, where particular care is taken not only as to the animals from which they come, but also of those which are brought forth.

[^105]Like leaves on trees the race of man is found, Now green in youth, now with'ring on the ground;
So generations in their conrse decay,
So fourish these when those are pass'd away.
Pops.
Nor last forget thy faithful dogs, but feed
With fatt'ning whey the mastiff's gen'rout breed.

Drydek.

## RADIANCE, BRILLIANCY.

Both these terms express the circum. stance of a great light in a body; but

RADIANCE, from radius, a ray, denotes the emission of ruys, and is, therefore, peculiarly applicable to bodies naturally luminous, like the heavenly bodies; and BRILLIANCY ( $v$. Bright) denotes the whole body of light enitted, and may, therefore, be applied equally to natural and artificial light. The radiancy of the sun, moon, and stars constitutes a part of their beauty; the brilliancy of a diamond is frequently compared with that of a star.

Among the crooked lanes, on every hedge,
The glowworm lights his gem, and through the dark
a moving radiance twinkles.
Thombon.
Brilliancy ( $v$. Bright) is applied to objects which shine or glitter like a diamond.

The beauty of the ladies, the richness of their dress, and brilliancy of their jewels, were displayed in the most advantageous manner.

Brydone.
It is also applied figuratively to moral objects.

A circumstance intervened during the pendency of the negotiation to set off the good falth of the company with an additionsl brilliancy, and to make it sparkle and glow with a vaijety of splendid faces.

Burke.

## RAPACIOUS, RAVENOUS, VORACIOUS.

RAPACIOUS, in Latin rapax, from ra. pio, to seize, signifies seizing or $g$ asping anything with an cager desire $t$, have. RAVENOUS, from the Latin rabies, fury, and rapio, to seize, signifies the same as rapacious. VORACIOUS, from voro, to devour, signifies an eagerness to devour.

The idea of greediness, which forms the leading feature in the signification of vl these terms, is varied in the subject and the object: rapacious is the quality peculiar to beasts of prey, or what is like beasts of prey: ravenons and voravious are common to all animals when impelled by hunger. The beasts of the forest are rapacious at all times; all animals are more or less ravenous or voracious, as circumstances may make them: the term rapacious applies to the seizing of anything that is eagerly wanted; ravenous applies to the seizing of anything which one takes for one's food: a lion is rapacious when it seizes on its prey: it is ravenous in the act $f$ consum-
ing it. The word ravenous respects the baste with which one eats; the word voracious respects tbe quantity which one consumes: a ravenous person is loath to wait for the dressing of his food; he consumes it without any preparation: a voracious person not only eats in haste, but he consumes great quantities, and continues to do so for a long time. Abstinence from food for an unusual length will make any healthy creature ravenous; habitual intemperance in eating, or a diseased appetite, will produce voracity.
Rapacious death asserts his tyrant power.
Mrg, Carter.
Again the holy fires on altars horn, And once again the rav'nous birds return.

DRYDMA.
Ere yon remark another's sin, Bid thy own consclence look within Control thy more voracious bill,
Nor for a breakfast nations kill.
Gar.
In an extended sense, rapacity is applied as a characteristic of persons to denote their eagerness to seize anything which falls in their way.
A display of our wealth before robbers is not the way to restrain their boldness, or to lessen their rapacity.

Bneke.
Ravenous denotes an excess of rapacity, and voracious is applied figuratively to moral objects.

So great a hatred hadde the greedle ravenoveness of their procousultes rooted in the hearts of them sill.

Goldyno.
So veracious is this humor grown, that it draws in everything to feed upon.

Government of the Tongug.

## Rapine, PLUNDER, PILLAGE.

The idea of property taken from another contrary to his consent is included in all these terms: but the term RAP. INE includes most violence; PLUNDER includes removal or carrying away; PILLAGE, search and scrutiny after a thing. A soldier who makes a sudden incursion into an enemy's country, and carries away whatever comes within his reach, is guilty of rapine: he goes into a house full of property, and carries away much plunder; he enters with the rest of the army into a town, and, stripping it of everything that was to be found, goes away loaded with pillage; mischief and bloodshed attend rapins: loss attends
plunder; distress and ruin follow wherever there has been pillage.

Upon the banks
Of Tweed, slow winding thro the vale, the seat
Of war and rapine once.
Somesville.
Ship-money was pitched upon as fit to be formed by excise and taxes, and the burden of the uubjects took off by plunderings and sequestrations.

Sonta.
Althongh the Eretrians for a tlme stood resolutely to the defence of their clty, it was given up by treachery on the seventh day, and pilzaged and destroyed in a most barbarous manner by the Persians.

Cumberland.

## RARE, SCARCE, SINGULAR.

RARE, in Latin rames, comes from the Grcek apatog, rare. SCARCE, in Dutch achaers, sparing, comes from scheren, to cut or clip, and signifies cut close. SINGULAR, v. Particular.

Rare and scarce both respect number or quantity, which admit of expansion or diminution: rare is a thinned number ; scarce is a quantity cut short. Rare is applied to matters of convenience or luxury; scarce to matters or utility or necessity: that which is rare becomes valuable, and fetches a bigh price; that which is scarce becomes precious, and the loss of it is seriously felt. The best of everything is in its nature rare; there will never be a superfuity of such things; there are, however, some things, as particularly curious plants or particular animals, which, owing to circumstances, are always rare: that which is most in use will, in certain cases, be scarce; when the supply of an article fails, and the demand for it continues, it naturally becomes scarce. An aloe in blossom is a rarity, for nature has prescribed such limits to its growth as to give but very few of such flowers; the paintings of Raphael, and the former distinguished painters, are daily becoming more scarce, because time will diminish their quantity, ulthough not their value.

A perfect union of wit and judgmert is one of the rarest things in the world.

Buake.
When any particular pieca of money graw very acarce, it was often recoined by a succeeding emperor.

Addison.
What is rare will often be singular, and what is singular will often, on that account, be rare: but these terms are not necessarily applied to the same ob-
ject: fewness is the idea common to both; but rare is said of that of which there might be more; while singular is applied to that which is single, or nearly single, in its kind. The rare is that which is always sought for; the singular is not always that which one esteems: a thing is rare which is difficult to be obtained; a thing is singular for its peculiar quali ties, good or bad. Indian plants are many of them rare in England, because the climate will not agree with them: the sensitive plant is singular, as its quality of yielding to the touch distinguishes it from all others.
And it was seated in an island strong, Abounding all with delices most rare.

## Spensen,

We should learn, by reflecting on the misfortunes which have attended others, that there is nothing singular in tbose which befall onrselves. Melmoth's Letters of Cicero.

## RASHNESS, TEMERITY, HASTINESS, PRECIPITANCY.

RASHNESS denotes the quality of rash, which, like the German rasch, and our word rush, and the Latin rao, expresses hurried and excessive motion. TEMERITY, in Latin temeritas, from temere, possibly comes from the Greek ripepov, at the moment, denoting the quality of acting by the impulse of the moment. HASTINESS, v. Angry and Cursory. PRECIPITANCY, from the Latin pree and capro, signifies the quality or disposition of taking things before they ought to be taken.

Rashness and temerity have a close alliance with each other in sense; but they have a slight difference which is entitled to notice : rashness is a general and indefinite term, in the signitication of which an improper celerity is the leading idea: this celerity may arise either from a vohemence of character, or a temporary ardor of the mind: in the signification of temerity, the leading idea is want of consideration, springing mostly from an overweening confidence, or a presumption of character. Rashness is therefore applied to corporeal actions, as the jumping into a river, without being able to swim, or the leaping over a bedge, without heing an expert horseman; temerity is applied to our moral actions, particularly such as require deliberation, and a calcu-
lation of consequences. Hastiness and precipitancy are but modes or characteristics of rasheness, and consequently employed only in particular cascs, as hastiness in regard to our movements, and precipitancy in regard to our measures.
Nature to youth hot rashness deth dispenae, But witl cold prudence age doth recompense.

Denham.
All mankind have a suffcient plea for some degree of restlessness, and the fault aeems to be little more than too much temerity of coucluaion in favor of semething not experienced. Jонквок.
And hurry through the woods with hasty atep, Rustling and full of hepe.

Somenvilie.
As the chemiat, by catching at it too soon, lest the philosophical elixir, so precipitancy of our understandings io an eccasion of error.

Glanvil.

## RATE, PROPORTION, RATIO.

RATE ( $v$. To estimate) and RATIO, which has the same origin and original meaning as rate, are iu sense species of PROPORTION (v. Proportionate): that is, they are supposed or estimated proportions, in distinction from proportions that lie in the nature of things. The first term, rate, is employed in ordinary concerns; a person receives a certain sum weekly at the rate of a certain sum yearly : ratio is applied only to numbers and calculations; as two is to four, so is four to eight, and eight to sixteen; the ratio in this case being double: proportion is employed in matters of science, and in all cases where the two more specific terms are not admissible; the beauty of an edifice depends upon observing the doctrine of proportions; in the disposing of soldiers a certain regard must be had to proportion in the beight and size of the men.

At Ephesus and Athens, Antheny lived at his usual rate in all manner ef luxury. Pmneave.
The rate of interest (to lenders) id generally in a compound ratio formed out of the inconvenience and the hazard.

Blackstone.
Repentance cannot be effectual but as it beara some proportion to sin.

SOUTH.

## RAVAGE, DESOLATION, DEVASTATION.

RAVAGE comes from the Latin rapio, and the Greek $a \rho \pi \alpha \zeta \omega$, signifying a seizing or tearing away. DESOLATION, from solus, alone, signifies made solitary or reduced to solitude. DEVASTATION,
in Latin devastatio, from devasto, to lay waste, signifies reducing to a waste or desert.

Ravage expresses less than either desolation or devastation: a breaking, tearing, or destroying is implied in the word ravage; but desolation signifies the entire unpeopling a land, and devastation the entire clearing away of every vestige of cultivation. Torrents, flames, and tempests ravage; war, plague, and famine desolate; armies of barbarians, who inundate a country, carry devastation with them wherever they go.
Beasts of prey retire, that all night long, Urg'd by necessity, had rang'd the dark, Aa if their conscious ravage shum'd the light, Asham'd.

Thomsos.
Amid thy bow'rs the tyrant's hand is seen, And desolation saddens all thy green.

GoLdsmith.
How much the strength of the Roman repubiic is impaired, and what dreadful devastation has gone forth inte all its provinces !

Melmoty's Letters of Cicero.
Ravage is employed likewise in the moral application; desolation and devastation only in the proper application to countries. Disease makes its ravages on beauty; death makos its ravages among men in a more terrible degree at one time than at another.

Would one think 'twere possible for love
Te make such ravage in a noble soul? Annison.

## RAY, BEAM.

RAY ( $v$. Gleam) is indefinite in its meaning; it may be said either of a large or small quantity of light: BEAM ( $v$. Gleam) is something positive; it can be said only of that which is considera. ble. We can speak of rays either of the sun, or the stars, or any other luminous bodys; but we speak of the beams of the sun or the moon. The rays of the sun break through the clouds; its beams are scorching at noonday. A room can scarcely be so shut up, that a single ray of light shall not penetrate through the crevices; the sea, in a calm moonlight night, presents a beautiful spectacle, with the moon's beams playing on its waves.
The stars emit a shivered ray. Trombon.
The modest virtues mingle in her eyea, Still on the ground dejected, darting all Their humid beams into the blooming flowers.

Тдомвон

## READY, APT, PROMPT.

READY (v. Easy) is in general applied to that which has been intentionally prepared for a given purpose; PROMPT ( $v$. Expedition) is applied to that which is at hand so as to answer the immediate purpose; APT, from apt:ss, fit, is applied to that which is fit, or from its nature bas a tendency to produce effects.
The god himself with ready trident stands And opes the deep, and spreads the moving sands. La YDEN.
Let not the fervent tongue,
Prompt to deceive, with adulation smooth, Gain on your purpos'd will.

Thomson.
Poverty is apt to betray a man into envy, riches iato arrogance.

Addison.
When applied as personal characteristics, ready respects the will or understanding, which is prepared for anything; as ready to serve a person, a ready wit; prompt denotes the vigor or zeal which impels to action without delay, or at the moment when wanted; and apt, a fitness to do anything from the hahit or temper of the mind.
All thiags are ready if our minds be so.
SHAmspeate.
But in his duty prompt at every call,
He watch'd and wept, he pray'd and felt for all. Goldsmith.
This so eminent industry in making proselytes more of that sex than of the other groweth that they are deemed apter to serve as instruments in the cause.

Hooker.

## REASONABLE, RATIONAL.

REASONABLE, or accordant with reason, and RATIONAL, having reason, are both derived from the same Latin word ratio, reason, which, from ratus and reor, to think, signifies the thinking faculty. They differ principally according to the different meanings of the word reason. Reasonable is sometimes applied to peraons in the general sense of having the faculty of reason.

Human nature is the same in all reasonable creatares.

AdDIEON.
But more frequently the word rational is used in this abstract sense of reason.

Can anything so probsbly condnce to the wellbeing of a rational and social animal as the right exercise of that reaton, and of those social affections?

Harlis.
In application to things reasonable and vational both signify according to reason;
but the former is used in reference to the business of life, as a reasonable proposal, wish, etc. ; rational to abstract matters, as rational motives, grounds, questions, etc.

Men have no right to what is not reasonable, and to what is not for their benefit. Burse.

The evidence which is afforded for a future state is sufficieat for a rational ground of corlduct.

Blair.

## TO REBOUND, REVERBERATE, RECOIL.

To REBOUND is to bound or spring back: a ball rebounds. To REVERBERATE is to verberate or heat back: a sound reverberates when it echoes. To-RECOIL is to coil or whirl back: a anake recoils. The two former are used in an improper application, although rarely; but we may say of recoil, that a man's schemes wili recoil on his own head.
Honor is but the reflection of a man's own ac-
tions shining bright in the face of all about him,
and from thence rebounding npon himself. Sotte.
You seemed to reverberate upon me with the beams of the sun.

Howeli.
Who in deep mines for hidden knowledge toils, Like guns o'ercharg'd, breaks, misses, or recoils.

Denaam.
TO RECEDE, RETREAT, RETIRE, WITHDRAW, SECEDE.
To RECEDE is to go back; to RETREAT is to draw back; the former is a simple action, suited to one's conven. ience; the latter is a particular action, dictated by necessity: we recede by a direct backward movement; we retreat by an indirect backward movement: we recede a few steps in order to observe an object more distinctly; we retreat from the position we have taken in order to escape danger; whoever can advance can recede; but in general those only retreat whose advance is not free: receding is the act of every one; retreating is peculiarly the act of eoldiers, or those who make hostile movements.
As the sun recedes, the moon and stars discov-
er themselves. er themselves. Granvir. With dread of death to flight or foul retreat.

Minton.
To RETIRE and WITHDRAW originally signify the ame as retreat, that is, to draw back or off; but they agree in application mostly with recede, to denote

## RECLINE

leisurely, and voluntary acts: to recede is to go back from a given spot; but to retire and withdraw have respect to the place or the presence of the persons: we may recede on an open plain; but we retire or withdraw from a room, or from some company. In this application withdraw is the more familiar term: retire may likewise be used for an army; but it denotes a much more leisurely action than retreat: a general retreats, by compulsion, from an enemy; but he may retire from an enemy's country when there is no enemy present.
She from her husband soft withdrew. Milon.
After some slight skirmishes he retired himself (retired) into the castle of Farnham.

Clarendon.
Recede, retreat, retire, and withdraw are also used in a moral application; SECEDE is used only in this sense : a person recedes from his engagement, or his pretensions; he retires from business, or withdraws from a society. To secede is a public act; men secede from a religious or political body; withdraw is a private act; they withdraw themselves as individual members from any society.

We were soon brought to the necessity of receding from our imagined equality with our cousing.

Johnson.
Retirement from the world's cares and pleasures has been often recommended as useful to repentance.

Joinson.
A temptation may withdraw for awhile, and return again.

Soota.
How certain is our ruin, unless we sometimes retreat from this pestilential region (the world of pleasure).

Blair.
Pisistratus and his sons maintained their usurpations during a period of sixty-eight years, including those of Pisistratus' secessions from Athens.

Combebland.

## RECEIPT, RECEPTION.

RECEIPT comes from receive, in its application to inanimate objects, which are taken into possession. RECEPTION comes from the same verb, in the sense of treating persons at their first arrival : in the commercial intercourse of men, the receipt of goods or money must be acknowledged in writing; in the friendly intercourse of men, their reception of each other will be polite or cold, according to the sentiments entertained toward the individual.

If a man will keep but of even band, his ordi nary expenses ought to be but to half of his receipts.

Bacon.
I thank you and Mrs. Pope for my kind recoption. Atterbury.

## TO RECKON, COUNT OR ACCOUNT, NUMBER.

The idea of esteeming is here common to these terms, which differ less in meaning than in application: RECKON ( $v$. To calculate) is the most familiar; ACCOUNT (v. To calculate) and NUMBER, i.e., to put in the number, are employed only in the grave style: we reckon it a happiness to enjoy the company of a particular friend; we ought to account it a privilege to be enabled to address our Maker by prayer; we must all expect to be one day numbered with the dead.

Reckoning themselves absolved, by Mary's attachment to Bothwell, from the engagements which they had come under when she yielded herself a prisoner, they carried her next evening, under a strong guard, to the castle of Lochleven. Robertson.
There is no bishop of the Church of England but accounts it his interest, as well as his duty, to comply with this precept of the Apostle Panl to Titus," "These things teach and exhort."

South.
He whose mind never panses from the remembrance of his own sufferings may justly be numbered among the most miserable of buman beings.

Johnson.

TO RECLAIM, REFORM.
RECLAIM, from clamo, to call, signifies to call back to its right place that which has gone astray. REFORM signifies to form anew that which has changed its form: they are allied only in their application to the moral character. A man is reclaimed from his vicious courses by the force of advice or exhortation; he may be reformed by various means, external or internal. A parent endeavors to reclaim a child, but too often in vain; the offender is in general not reformed.

Scotland had nothing to dread from a princese of Mary's character, who was wholly occupied in endeavoring to reclaim her heretical subjects.

Robebtson.
A monkey, to reform the times, Resolv'd to visit foreign climes.

Gay.

## TO RECLINE, REPOSE.

To RECLINE is to lean back; to REPOSE is to place one's self back: he who

## RECOVER

reclines, reposes; but we may reoline without reposing: when we recline we put ourselves into a particular position; but when we repose we put ourselves into that position which will be most easy.
For consolation on his friend reclin' $\alpha$.
Falconer.
I first awak'd, and found myself repos'd
Under a shade, on flowers.
Muton.

## RECOGNIZE, ACKNOWLEDGE.

RECOGNIZE, in Latin recognoscere, that is, to take knowledge of, or bring to one's own knowledge, is to take cognizance of that which comes again before our notice; to ACKNOWLEDGE ( $v$. To acknowledge) is to admit to one's knowledge whatever comes fresh under our notice: we recognize a person whom we have known before; we recognize him either in his former character, or in some newly assumed character; we acknowledge either former favors, or those which have been just received: princes recognize certain principles whick have been admitted by previous consent; they acknowledge the justice of claims which are preferred before them.

When conscience threatens punishment to secret crimes, it manifesily recognizes a Supreme Governor from whom nothing is hidden. Beair.
I call it atheism hy establishment, when any State, as snch, shall not acknowledge the existence of God as the moral governor of the world.

Bonee.

## REGORD, REGISTER, ARCHIVE.

RECORD is taken for the thing record$e d$, or the collection in which a thing is recorded; REGISTER, either for the thing registered, or the place in which it is registered; ARCHIVE, mostly for the place, and sometimes for the thing: records are either historical details or short notices, which serve to preserve the memory of things; registers are but short notices of particular and local circumstances; archives are always connected with the State: every place of antiquity has its records of the different circumstances which have been connected with its rise and progress, and the various changes which it has experienced; in public registers we find accounts of families, and of their various connections and fluctuations; in archives we find all legal deeds and instruments
which involve the interests of the nation both in its internal and external economy. In an extended application of these terma, records contain whatever is to be remens bered at ever so distant a period; regis ters, that which is to serve present purposes; archive, that in which any things are stored.
Though we think our words vanish with the breath that utters them, yet they become reoords in God's court, and are laid $n p$ in his $a r$. chives as witnesses either for or against us.

Government of the tongue.
This island, as appeareth by faithful register: of those times, had ships of great content.

Bacon.
It may be found in the same archive whero the famous compact between magistrate and people, so much insisted on in the vindications of the rights of mankind, is reposited. Warbirton.

## to recovier, retrieve, repair, reCRUIT.

RECOVER is to get again under one's cover or protection. RETRIEVE, from the French trouver, to find, is to find again. REPAIR, in French reparer, Latin reparo, from re and paro, to make ready or right again, signifies to make a thing good as it was before. RECRUTT, in French recru, from cru, and the Latin cresco, to grow, signifies either to grow or to cause to grow again, as before.

Recover is the most general term, and applies to objects. in general; retrieve, repair, and the others are only partial applications: we recover things either by our own means or by casualties; we retrieve and repair by our own efforts only: we recover that which has been taken, or that which has been any way lost; we retrieve that which has passed away or heen consumed; we repair that which has been injured; we recruit that which has been diminished: we recover property from those who wish to deprive us of it; we retrieve our misfortunes, or our lost reputation; we repair the damage done to our property; we recruit the strength which has been exhausted: we do not scek after that which we think irrecoverable; we give that up which is irretries. able; we do not labor on that which is irreparable; our power of recrusiting depends upon circumstances; he who makes a moderate use of his resources may in general easily recruit himself when they are gone

The serious and impertial retrospect of our conduct is indisputably necessary to the confirmation or recovery of our virtue.

Johnson,
Why may not the soul receive
New organs, since ev'n art can these retrieve ${ }^{\text {p }}$
Jenyna.
Your men ahall be receiv'd, your fleet repair'd.
Driden.
With greend and flow'rs recruit their empty hives.

Dryden.

## RECOVERY, RESTORATION.

RECOVERY (v. To recover) is the regaining of any object which has been lost or missing ; RESTORATION is the getting back what has been taken away, or that of which one has been deprived. What is recovered may be recovered with or without the use of means; the restoration is effected by foreign agency; that which is lost by accident may be recouered by accident; the restoration of a prince to his throne is mostly effected by his subjects.

This is that fulness of the Gentiles of which St. Paul speaks coincident in time with the recovery of the Jews, and in a great degree the effect of their conversion.

Honsley.
Mr. Morrice and SIr John Granvile, whom the General (Monk) trusted with his secret intentions in the arduous affair of the restoration, were at that time taken notice of to be intimate with Mr. Mordauat.

Clarencon.
In respect to health or other things, recovery signifies, as before, the regaining something; and restoration, the bringing back to its former state.

When the cure was perfected, the names of the diseased persons, together with the manner of their recovery, were registered in the temple.

Роtten.
My depressed spirits, oll account of Joanns"s critical end almost hopelesa situation, greatly contributed to prevent the restoration of my health.

STEADMAN.

## So likewise in the moral application.

Let us atudy to improve the assistance which this revelation affords for the restoration of our gature and the recovery of onr felicity. Blair.

## RECTITUDE, UPRIGHTNESS.

RECTITUDE is properly rightness, Which is expressed in a stronger manner by UPRIGHTNESS: we speak of the rectitude of conduct, or of judgment; of uprightness of mind, or of moral character, which must be something more than straight, for it must be elevated above everything mean or devious.

We are told hy Cumberlend that rectituds is merely metaphorical, and that as a right line deacribes the ahortest passage from point to point, so a right action effects a good design hy the fewest means.

## Jounson

Who to the fraudnlent impostor foul,
In hia uprightness, answer thus return'd.
milon.
TO REDEEM, RANSOM.
REDEEM, in Latin redimo, is compounded of re and emo, to buy off, or back to one's self. RANSOM is in all probability a variation of redeem.

Redeem is a term of general application; ransom is employed only on particular occasions: we redeem persons as well as things; we ransom persons only: we may redeem by labor, or anything which supplies an equivalent to money; we ransom persons with money only: we redeem a watch, or whatever has been given in pawo; we ransom a captive: redeem is employed in the improper application; rantsom only in the proper sense: we may redeem our character, redeem our life, or redeem our honor; and in this sense our Saviour redeems repentant sinners; but those who are ransomed only recover their bodily liberty.

## Thus in her crime her confldence she plac'd, And with new treasons wonld redeem the past. <br> Dryoen.

A third tax was peid by vassals to the king, to ransom him if he should heppen to be taken prisoner.

Robertaon.

## REDRESG, RELIEF.

REDRESS, like address ( $v$. Accost), in all probability comes from the Latin dirigo, signifying to direct or bring back to the former point, is said only with regard to matters of right and justice; RELIEF ( $v$. To help) to those of kindness and humanity: by power we obtain redress; by active interference we obtain a relief: an injured person looks for redress to the government; an unfortunate person looks for relief to the compassion. ate and kind: what we suffer through the oppression or wickedness of others can be redresscd only by those who have the power of dispensing justice; whenever we suffer, in the order of Providence, we may meet with some relief from those who are more favored. Redress applies to public as well as private grievances; relief applies only to private distresags:

## REFORM

ander a pretence of seeking redress of grievances, mobs are frequently assembled to the disturbance of the better disposed; under a pretence of soliciting charitable relief, thieves gain admittance into families.

Instead of redressing grievances, snd improving the fabric of their state, the French were made to take a very different course. Borke.
His honse was known to sll the vagrant train, He chid their wsnderings, but reliev'd their pain. Gosbsmite.

## TO REDUCE, LOWER.

REDUCE is to bring back or to a given point, i.e., in an extended sense, to bring down; LOWER is to make low or lower, which proves the close connection of these words in their original meaning; it is, however, only in their improper application that they have any further connection. Reduce is used in the sense of lesseu, when applied to number, quantity, price, etc.; lower is used in the same sense when applied to price, demands, terms, etc.: the former, however, occurs in caaes where circumatances as well as peraons are concerned; the latter only in cases where peraone act: the price of corn is reduced by means of importation; a peraon lowers his price or his demand when he finds them too high.
Tha regular matras than in usa may be reduced, I think, to four.

TyHWHITT.
Mr. Locke, Mr. Law, and Mr. Montesquisu, as Well as many other writers, seam to hsve ImagIned that the increase of gold and silver, in consequence of the discovery of the Spanish West Indles, was the real csuse of the towering of the rate of interest through the greater part of Europe.

Smita.
In the moral application, reduce expresses more than lower; a man is said to be reduced to an abject condition, but to be lowered in the estimation of others; to be reduced to a state of slavery, to be lowered in his own eyes.

I think the low circumstances she was reduced to was s piece of good lnck for us. Guardian.

It would be a matter of astonishment to me that sny critic should be found proof agsinst the besuties of Agsmemnon as to lower its author to © compsrison with Sophocles or Euripides.

Cumbendand.

## TO REFER, RELATE, RESPECT, REGARD.

REFER, from the Latin $r e$ and fero, signifies literally to bring back; and RE-

LATE, from the participle latus, of the same verb, signifies brought back: the former is, therefore, transitive, and the latter intransitive. Refer is commonly said of circumstances that carry the inemory to events or circumstances; relate is said of things that have a natural connection: the religious festivals and ceremonies of the Roman Catholics have all a reference to some events that happened in the early periods of Christianity; the notes and observations at the end of a book relate to what has been inserted in the text.
Our Savionr's words (in his sermon on the monnt) all refer to the Phsrisees' way of speaking.

SoUTK.
Homer artfully interweaves, in the seversl succeeding parts of his poem, an account of everything material which relates to his princes.

ADDIson.
Refer and relate carry us back to that which may be very distant; but RE. SPECT and REGARD (v. To esteem) turn our views to that which is near. Whatever respects or regards a thing has a moral influence over it; but the former is more commonly employed than the latter; it ls the duty of the magiatratea to take into consideration whatever respects the good order of the community; lawa respect the general welfare of the communlty; the due administration of the lawa regards the happinesa of the individual.
Religion is a pleasure to the mind, as respeote practice.

South.
What I have sald regarde only the vain part of the sex. Addison.

## REFORM, REFORMATION.

REFORM has a general application; REFORMATION a particular application: whatever undergoes such a change as to give a dew form to an object occasions a reform; when such a change is produced in the moral character, it is termed a reformation: the concerns of a state require occasional reform; those of an individual require reformation. When reform and reformation are applied to the moral character, the former has a more extensive signification than the latter; the term reform conveying the idea of a complete amendment; reformation implying only the process of amending or improving. A reform in one's life and

## RELATE

sonversation will always be accompanied with a corresponding increase of happiness to the individual; when we observe any approaches to reformation, we may cease to despair of the individual who gives the happy indications.
He was anxlous to keep the distemper of France from the least countenance in Euglend, where he was sure some wicked persons had shown a utrong dlaposition to recommend an imitation of the French spirit of reform.

Borke.
Examples are plctures, and strike the senses, ney, raise the passions, and call in those (the strongest and most generul of all motives) to the sid of reformution.

Pope.

## to refuse, decline, ReJect, repel, REBUFF.

REFUSE ( $v$. To deny) signifies simply to pour back, that is, to send back, which is the common idea of all these terms. DECLINE, in Latin deelino, signifies literally to turn aside; REJECT, from $j a$ cio, to throw, to cast back; REPEL, from pello, to drive, to drive back; REBUFF, from buff or puff, to puff one back, or send off with a puff.

Refuse is an unqualified action, it is accompanied with no expression of opin. ion; decline is a gentle and indirect mode of refusal; reject is a direct mode, and conveys a positive sentiment of disapprobation: we refuse what is asked of us, for want of inclination to comply; we decline what is proposed from motives of discretion; we reject what is offered to us, because it does not fall in with our views: we refuse to listen to the suggestions of our friends; we dectine an offer of service; we reject the insinuations of the interested and evil-minded.
But all her arts are still employ'd in vein; Again she comes, and ls refus'd again. Dityen. Why should he then reject a suit so just?

Dryden.
Mellssa, though she could not boast the apathy of Cato, wanted not the more prudent virtue of Sarpio, and gained the victory by declining the contest.

Johnson.
To refuse is said only of that which passes between individuals; to reject is said of that which comes from any quarter: requests and petitions are refused by those who are solicited; opinions, propositions, and counsels are rejected by particular communities: the king refuses to give his assent to a bill; the Parliament rejects a bill.

Having most affectionately set life and death before them, and conjured them to choose one and avoid the other, he still leaves unto them, as to free and natural agents, a liberty to refuse all his calls, to let his talents lie by them unprofitsble.

Hammond.
The House was then so far from belng posgessed with that spirit, that the ntmost that could be obtained upon a debatc upon tilat petition was that it should not be rejected. Clarendon.

To repel is to reject with violence; to rebuff is to refuse with contempt, or what may be considered as such. We refuse and reject that which is either offered, or simply presents itself for acceptance: the act may be negative, or not outwardly expressed; we repel and rebuff that which forces itself into our presence, contrary to our inclination: it is in both cases a direct act of force; we repel the attack of an enemy, or we repel the advances of one who is not agreeable; we rebuff those who put that in our way which is offensive. Importunate persons must necessarily expect to meet with rebuffis, and are in general less susceptible of them than others; delicate minds feel a refu sal as a rebuff.
If he should choose the right casket, you would refuse to perform your father's will, if yon should refuse to accept him.

Shakspeane.
Whether it be a divine revelation or no, reason must judge, which can never permit the mind to reject a greater evidence to embrace what is less evident.

Locke.
Th' unwearied watch their listening leadcrs keep, And, conching close, repel invading sleep. Popen At length rebuff $d$, they leave thelr mangled prey. Dhyden.

TO RELATE, RECOUNT, LESCRIBE.
RELATE, in Latin relatus, participle of refero, signifies to bring that to the notice of others which has before been brought to our own notice. RECOUNT is properly to count again, or count over again. DESCRIBE, from the Latin seribo, to write, is literally to write down.

The idea of giving an account of events or circumstances is common to all these terms, which differ in the object and circumstances of the action. Relate is said generally of all events, both of those which concern others as well as ourselves; ro count is said particularly of those things in which the recounter has a special in. terest: those who relate all they hear often relate that which never happened; it

Is a gratification to an old soldier to recount all the transactions in which he bore a part during the mllitary career of his early youth. We relate events that have happened at any period of time immediate or remote; we recount mostly those things which have been long passed: in recounting, the memory reverts to past scenes, and counts over all that has deeply interested the mind. Travellers are pleased to relate to their friends whatever they have seen remarkable in other countries; the recounting of our adventures in distant regions of the glohe has a peculiar interest for all who hear them. We may relate either by writing or by word of mouth; we recount mostly by word of mouth. Relate is said properly of events or that which passes: describe is said of that which exists: we relate the particulars of our journey; and we describe the country we pass through. Personal adventure is always the subject of a relation; the quality and condition of things are those of the description. We relate what happened on meeting a friend: we describe the dress of the parties, or the ceremonies which are usual on particular occasions.

0 Muse! the causes and the crimes relate, Wbat goddess was provok'd, and whence her hate. Diynen.
To recount Almighty works
What words or tongue of seraph can suffice?
Milton.
In desoribing a rough torrent or deluge, the numbers should run easy and flowing. Pope.

## RELATION, RIECITAL, NARRATION, NARRATIVE.

RELATION, from the verb relate, denotes the act of relating or the thing related. RECITAL, from recite, denotes the act of reciting or the thing recited. NARRATION, from narrate, denotes either the act of narrating or the thing narrated. NARRATIVE, from the same verh, demotes the thing narrated. Relation is here, as in the former paragraph (v. To relate), the general, and the others particular terms. Relation applies to every object which is related, whether of a public or private, a national or an individual natmre; history is the relation of national events; hiography is the relation of particular lives: recital is the relation or repetition of actual or existing circum-
stances; we llsten to the recital of mils. fortunes, distresses, and the like. The relation may concern matters of indifference: the recital is always of something that affects the interests of some individual: the pages of the journalist are filled with the relation of daily occur. rences which simply amuse in the read. ing: but the recital of another's woes often draws tears from the audience to whom it is made. Relation and recital are seldom employed but in connection with the object related or recited; narrative is mostly used by itself: hence we say the relation of any particular circumstance; the recital of any one's calamities; but an affecting narrative, or a simple narrative.

Those relations are commonly of most value in which the writer tells his own story. JoHnson

Old men fall easily into recitals of past transactions.

Johnson.
Homer introduces the best instructions in the midst of the plainest narrations. Dennis.

Therefore by this narrative you now understand the state of the question. Bacon.

## RELATION, KELATIVE, KINSMAN, KIN* DRED.

RELATION is here taken to express the person related; it is, as in the former paragraph, the general term both in sense and application; RELATIVE is employed only as respects the particular individual to whom one is related; KINS. MAN designates the particular kind of relation, and KINDRED is a collective term comprehending all one's relations, or those who are akin to one. In abstract propositions we speak of relations; a man who is without relations feels himself an outcast in socioty; in designating one's close and intimate connection with persons we use the term relative; our near and dear relatives are the first objects of our regard: in designating one's relationship and connection with persons, kinsman is preferable; when a man has not any children, he frequently adopts one of his kinsmen as his heir: when the ties of relationship are to he specified in the persons of any particular family, they are denominated kindred; a man cannot abstract himself from his kindred while be retains any spark of humau feel ing.

Tou are not to Imagine that I think myself lischarged from the duties of gratitude only bebanse my relations do not adjust their looks to my expectation.

Johnson.
Our friends and relatives stand weeping by.
Pobfaet.
Herod put ail to death whom he found in Trechoritis of the families and kindred of any of thome at Repta.

Pifideaux.

## TO RELAX, REMIT.

The general idea of lessening is that which alliea these worda to each other; but they differ very widely in their original meaning, and aomewhat in their ordinary application; RELAX, from the word lax, or lnose, aignifies to make looae, and in ita moral use to leasen anything in its degree of tightness or rigor; to REMIT, from re and mitto, to aend back, signities to take off in part or entirely that which has been imposed; that is, to lesaen in quantity. In regard to our attempts to act, we may speak of relaxing in our endeavors, and remitting our labors or exertions; in regard to our dealings with others, we may speak of relaxing in diacipline, relaxing in the aeverity or strictnees of our conduct, of remitting a punishment or remitting a aentence. The discretionary power of showing mercy when placed in the hands of the aovereign, servea to relax the rigor of the law; when the punishment seems to be disproportioned to the magnitude of the offence, it is but equitable to remit it,
No more the smith hls dusky brow shall clear, Relase his ponderous strength, and lean to hear: Goldsmizn.
How often have I blessed the coming day, When toil remitting lent its turn io play.

Goldsmith.

## REMAINS, RELICS.

REMAINS signifies literally what remains: RELICS, from the Latin relinquo, to leave, signifies what is left. The formor is a term of general and familiar application; the latter is specific. What remains after the use or consumption of anything is termed the remains; what is left of anything after a lapae of years is the relic or relics. There are remains of buildinga mostly after a conflagration; there are relics of antiquity in most monasteries and old churches. Remains are of value, or not, according to the circumstances of the case; relics almays derive
a value from the person to whom they were auppoaed originally to belong. The remains of a person, that is, what corpo. really remains of a person after the ex tinction of life, will be respected by hia friend; a bit of a garment that belonged, or was supposed to belong, to some saint, will be a precious relic in the eyes of a auperstitious Roman Catholic. All nations have agreed to reapect the remains of the dead; religion, under most forma, has given a sacredneas to relics in the eyes of ita moat zealous votaries; the veneration of gevius, or the devotedneas of friendship, has in like manner trans. ferred itself from the individual himaelf to some object which has been hia prop. erty or in his possession, and thua fabricated for itaelf relics equally precioua.
Upon these friendly shores and flow'ry plains, Which hide Anchises and his blest remains.

Deyden.
This church is very rich in relics. Addison.
Sometimes the term relics is used to denote what remains after the decay or loss of the rest, which further distinguishea it from the word remains, that simply signifiea what is left.
Among the remains of old Rome, the grandeur
of the commonwealth shows itself chlefly in works
that were either necessary or convenient.
AdDison.
All those arts, raritles, and inventions which the ingenions pursue, and all admire, are but the reliques of an intellect defaced with sin and time.

Soutr.
REMARK, OBSERVATION, COMMENT, NOTE, ANNOTATION, COMMENTARY.
REMARK (v. To notice), OBSERVA. TION (v. To notice), and COMMENT, in Latin commentum, from comminiscor, to call to mind, are either gpoken or written: NOTE, ANNOTATION (v. Note), COMMENTARY, a variation of comment, are always written. Remark and observation, admitting of the aame diatinction in both cases, have been sufficiently explained in the article referred to: comment is a species of rernark which often loses in good-nature what it gaina in aeriousness; it is moatly applied to particular persons or caaes, and more common. ly employed as a vehicle of censure than of commendation; public apeakera and public performers are exposed to all the
romments which the vanity, the envy, and ill-nature of self-constituted critics can suggest; but when not employed in personal cases, it serves for explanation: the other terms are used in this sense only, but with certain modifications; the note is most general, and serves to call the attention to as well as illustrate particular passages in the text: annotations and commentaries are more minute; the former being that which is added by way of appendage; the latter being employed in a general form; as the annotations of the Greek scholiasts, and the commentaries on the sacred writings.

[^106]Roscommon.
The history of the notes (to Pope's Homer) has never been traced.

JOHNSON.
I love a critic who mixes the rulcs of life with annotations upon writers. Steele.
Memoirs or memorials are of two kinds, whereof the une msy be termed commentaries, the other registers.

Bacon.

## to repeat, recite, rehearse, RECAPITULATE.

The idea of going over any words, or actions, is common to all these terms. REPEAT, from the Latin repeto, to seek, or go over again, is the general term, including only the common idea. To RECITE, REHEARSE, and RECAPITULATE are modes of repetition, conveying each some accessory idea. To recile is to repeat in a formal manner; to rehearse is to repeat or recite by way of preparation ; to recapitulate, from capitulum, a chapter, is to repeat the chapters or principal heads of any discourse. We repeat both actions and words; we recite only words : we repeat single words, or even sounds; we recite always a form of words: we repeat our own words or the words of another; we recite only the words of another: we repeat a name; we recite an ode, or a set of verses.

I conld not half those horrid crimes repoat, Nor balf the punishments tbose crimes have met

Dayden
Whenever the practice of recitation was disused, the works, whether poetical or bistorical, perished with the anthors.

Joh Nisen.
We repeat for purposes of general convenience; we recite for the convenience or amusement of others; we rehearse for some specific purpose, either for the amusement or instruction of others: we recapitulate for the instruction of others. We repeat that which we wish to be heard; we recite a piece of poetry before a company; we rehearse the piece in private which we are going to recite in public; we recapitulate the general heads of that which we have already spoken in detail. A master must always repeat to his scholars the instruction which he wishes them to remember; Homer is said to have recited his verses in different parts; players rehearse their different parts before they perform in public; ministers recapitulate the leading points in their discourse. To repeat is commonly to use the same words; to recite, to rehearse, and to recapitulate, do not neces. sarily require any verbal sameness. We repeat literally what we hear spoken by another; but we recite and rehearse events, and we recapitulate in a concise manner what has been uttered in a particular manner. An echo repeats with the greatest possible precision; Homer recites the names of all the Grecian and Trojan leaders, together with the names and account of their countries, and the number of the forces which they commanded; Virgil makes 左neas to rehearse before Dido and her courtiers the story of the capture of Troy, and his own adventures; a judge reoapitulates evidence to a jury.

He repsated the question so often that we were obliged to give him a reply. Brydone.
The way has beea to recits it at the prime or first hour every Lord's-day. Waterland.
Now take your turns, ye muses, to rehearse His friend's complaints, and mighty magic verse.

## Dryden.

The parts of a judge are to direct the evidence to moderate leagth, repetition, or impertiaency of speech, to recapitulats, select, and collato the material points of that which has been sald.
bacon.
These terms may be applied with equal
propriety to words written as to words spoken.
I am alwaya naturally sparing of my lettera to my frienda, for a reason I think a great one, that it la needlesa after experience to repeat assurances of friendship.

Pops.
The thoughta of goda let Glanville'a verae recite, And bring the scenea of opening fates to light.

Pops.
Let Drydan with new rules our state refloe, And hia great modela farm by thia daaign;
But wharg'a a abcood Virgil to rehearse
Our hero'a glorles in hia apic verae i
Rncheater.
Heace we see the reason why creeda were no larger nor more explicit, beiog but a kind of a recapitulation of what the catachumena had been taught before.

Waterland.

## repentance, penitence, contrition, COMPUNCTION, REMORSE.

REPENTANCE, from re, hack, and poenitet, to be sorry, signifies thinking one's self wrong for something past: PENITENCE, from the same source, signifies simply sorrow for what is amiss. CONTRITION, from contero, to rub together, is to bruise, as it were, with sorrow ; COMPUNCTION, from compungo, to prick thoroughly; and REMORSE, from remordeo, to have a gnawing pain; all express modes of peritence differing in degree and circumstance. Repentance refers more to the change of one's mind with regard to an object, and is properly confined to the time when this change takes place; we therefore, strictly speaking, repent of a thing but once; we may, however, have penitence for the same thing all our lives. Repentance supposes a change of conduct, at least as long as the sorrow lasts; but the term penitence is confined to the sorrow which the sense of guilt occasions to the offender.

Thia Is the ainner's hard lot, that the same thing which makes him need ropantanca makes him also in danger of not obtaining it. Soctr.
Heaven may forgive a crime to penitence,
For Heaven can judge if penitence be true.
Dryden.
Repentance is a term of more general application than penitence, being employed in respect to offences against men as well as against God; penitence, on the other hand, is applicable only to spiritual guilt. Repentance may have respect to our interests here, penitence to our interests hereafter.

But thou, in all thoo doat with early cares, Strive to prevent a fate like theirs, That sorrow on the end may never wait, Nor ahape repentance, make thee wise too lata Rown
Penitence is a general sentiment, which belongs to all men as offending crcatures; but contrition, compunction, and remorse are awakened by reflecting on particular offences: contrition is a continued and severe sorrow, appropriate to one who has been in a continued state of peculiar sinfulness: compunction is rather an occasional but sharp sorrow, provoked by a single offence, or a moment's reflection ; remorse may be temporary, but it is a still sharper pain awakened by some particular offence of peculiar magnitude and atrocity. The prodigal son was a contrite sinner; the brethren of Joseph felt great compunction when they were carried back with their sacks to Egypt; David was struck with remorse for the murder of Uriah.
His frown was full of terror, and his voice Shook the deltnquent with auch fits of awe, Aa left him not, till penitenca had won Lost favor back again, and closed the breach.

Cowpea.
Contrition, thoogh it may melt, ought not to aink or overpower the heart of a Christian.

Blair.

All men, even the most depraved, are subject more ar less to compunctione of conscience.

Blait.
The heart,
Pierc'd with a sharp remoree for guilt, disclaims The coatly poverty of hecatombs,
And offers the best sacrifice itself.
Jeffit.

## REPETITION, TAUTOLOGY.

REPETITION is to TAUTOLOGY as the genus to the species; the latter being a species of repetition. There may be frequent repetition which is warranted by necessity or convenience; but tautology is that which nowise adds to either the sense or the sound. A repetition may, or may not, consist of literally the same words; but tautology, from the Greek ravroc, the same, and $\lambda$ oyoc, a word, supposes such a sameness in expression as renders the signification the same. In the liturgy of the Church of England there are some repetitions, which add to the solemnity of the worship; in most extemporary prayers there is much tautology, that destroys the religious effect of the whole.

The Psalms, for the excellency of their contents, deserve to be oftener repeated, but that the multitade of them permittech not any oftener repetition.

Hoomer.
That is truly and really tautology where the same thing is repeated, though under never so mnch variety of expression.

South.

## REPREHENSION, REPROOF.

Personal blame or censure is implied by both these terms, but the former is much milder than the latter. By REPREHENSION the personal independence is not so sensibly affected as in the case of REPROOF : people of all ages and stations, whose conduct is exposed to the investigation of others, are liable to reprehension; but children only, or such as are in a subordinate capacity, are exposed to reproof. Reprehension amounts to little more than passing an unfavorable sentence upon the conduct of another: reproof adds to this words more or less severe. The master of a school may be exposed to the reprehension of the parents for any supposed impropriety : his scholars are subject to his reproof.

When a man feels the reprehension of a friend seconded by his own heart, he is easily heated into resentment.

Johnson.
There is an oblique way of reproof which takes off from the sharpness of it. Steele.

## TO REPRESS, RESTRAIN, SUPPRESS.

To REPRESS is to press back or down: to RESTRAIN is to strain back or down: the former is the general, the latter the specific term: we always repress when we restrain, but not aice versa. Repress is used mostly for pressing down, so as to keep that inward which wants to make its appearance: restraint is an habitual repression by which a thing is kept in a state of lowness: a person is said to repress his feelings when he does not give them vent cither by his words or actions; he is said to restrain his feelings when he never lets them rise beyond a certain pitch : good morals as well as good manners call upon us to repress every unseemly expression of joy in the company of those who are not in a condition to partake of our joy ; it is prudence as well as virtue to restrain our appetites by an habitual forbearance, that they may not gain the ascendency.

Philosophy has often attempted to repress insolence by asserting that all conditions are levelled by death.

Joinsox.
He that would keep the power of sin from ruoning ont into act, must restrain it from coaversing with the object.

South.
To restrain is the act of the individual toward himself; repress may be an act directed to others, as to repress the ardor and impetuosity of youth; to suppress, which is to keep under, or keep from appearing or being perceptible, is also said in respect of ourselves or others : as to repress one's feelings; to suppress laughter, sighs, etc.
After we had landed on the island and walked aboot four miles through the midst of beautiful plains and sloping woodlands, we at length came to a little hill, on the side of which yawned a horrid cavern, that by its gloom at first struck us with terror, and almost rspreesed curiosity.

Goldgamit.
With him Palemon kept the watch at night, In whose sad bosom many a sigh suppress'd Some painful secret of the senl confess'd.

Falconer.
So likewise when applied to external objects; as to repress the impetuosity of the combatants; to suppress a rebellion, information, etc.
Her forwardness was represeed with a frown by her mother or aunt.

Johnson.
Some, taking dangers to be the only remedy against dangers, endeavored to set up the sedltion again, but they were speedily repressed, and thereby the sedition euppressed wholly.
hayward.

## REPRIEVE, RESPITE.

REPRIEVE comes in all probability from the French repris, participle of reprendre, and the Latin reprehendo, signifying to take back or take off that which has been laid on. RESPITE, in all probability, is changed from respiratus, participle of rexpiro, signifying to breathe again.

The idea of a release from any pressure or burden is common to these terms; but the reprieve is that which is granted; the reepite sometimes comes to us in the course of things: we gain a reprieve from any punishment or trouble which threatens us; we gain a respite from any labor or weight that presses upon us. A criminal gains a reprieve when the punish. ment of death is commnted for that of transportation; a debtor may be said to obtain a reprieve when, with a prison be-
fore hia eyes, he geta such indulgence from hia creditors aa sets him free: there is frequently no respite for peraons in a aubordinate atation, when they fall into the hande of a hard task-master; Sisyphua is feigned by the poets to bave been condemned to the toil of perpetually rolling a stone up a bill as fast aa it rolled back, from which toil he had no respite.

All that I ask is but a short reprieve,
Till I forget to love and and learn to grieve,
Some pause and respite only I require,
Till with my tears I ghall have quench'd my fre. Denham.
A little pause for the use of this inatrument will not only give some respite and refreshment to the congregation, but may be advantageoualy employed, either to reflect on what is pussed of the service, or prepare our minds for what is to come.

Seceer.

## REPROACH, CONTUMELY, OBLOQUY.

Tre idea of contemptuous or angry treatment of others is common to all these terma; but reproach is the general, contumely and obloquy are the particular terms. REPROACH (v. To blame) is either deserved or undeaerved; the name of Puritan is applied as a term of reproach to such as affect greater purity than others; the name of Chriatian is a name of reproach in Turkey: CONTU. MELY, from contumeo, that is, contra tumeo, signifying to swell up against, is always undeserved; it is the inaolent swelling of a worthless peraon against merit in distresa; our Saviour was exposed to the contumely of the Jews: OBLOQUY, from $o b$ and loquor, signifying to speak againat or to the disparagement of any one, is always supposed to be deserved or otherwise; it is applicable to thoae whoae conduct haa rendered them objects of general censure, and whose name, therefore, has almost become a reproach. A man who uses his power only to oppress those who are connected with him will naturally and deservedly bring upon himself much obloquy.

Has foul reproach a privilege from hcav'n $?$
Pope.
The royal captives followed in the train, amdat the horrid yells, and frantic dances, and infamoua contumelies, of the furies of bell.

Burke.
How often and how soon have the faint echoes of renown alept ln silence, or been converted into the clamor of obloguy I

Harvex.

REPROACHFUL, ABUSIVE, SCURRILOUS.
REPROACHFUL, or full of reproach (v. Reproach), when applied to persona, aignifiea full of reproaches; when to thinga, deserving of reproach: ABUSIVE, or full of abuse (v. Abuse), is only applied to the person, aignifying using abuse: SCURRILOUS, in Latin scurrilis, from scurra, signifying like a buffoon or aaucy jester, is employed as an epithet either for persons or things, in the aenae of using scurrility, or after the manner of scurrility. The conduct of a person ia reproachful inasmuch as it provokea, or is entitled to, the reproaches of others; the language of a person is reproachful when it abounds in reproaches, or partakes of the nature of a reproach: a person is abusive who indulges himaelf in abuse or abusive language: and he is scurrilous who adopts scurrility or seurrilous language. When applied to the same object, whether to the peraon or to the thing, they rise in gense: the reproachful is lesa than the abusive, and this than the seurrilons: the reproachful is sometimea warranted by the provocation; but the abuasve and seurrilous are always unwarrantable; reproachful language may be, and generally ia, conaistent with decency and propriety of speech: abusive and scurrolous language are outragea against the laws of good-breeding, if not of morality. A parent may sometimes find it neceasary to address an unruly son in reproachful terms; or one friend may adopt a reproachful tone to another; none, however, but the loweat orders of men, and those only when their angry pasaiona are awakened, will descend to abusive or scurrilous language.

Honor teaches a man not to revenge a contumelious or reproachful word, but to be above it.

Sodte.
Thus envy pleads a nat'ral claim To persecnte the Mnges' fame,
Our poeta in all times abusive,
From Homer down to Pope inclualve. Swift.
I am of opinion that if his Majesty had kept aloof from that wash and offscouring of everything that is low and barbarous in the world, it might be well thought noworthy of bis dignity to take notice of such scurrility.

Buake.
TO REPROBATE, CONDEMN.
To REPROBATE is much atronger than to CONDEMN ; we always condemg
when we reprobate, but not vice versa: to reprobate is to condemn in strong and repreachful language. We reprobate all measures which tend to sow discord in society, and to loosen the ties by which men are bound to each other; we condemn all disrespectful language toward superiors. We reprobate only the thing; we condemn the person also: any act of disobedience in a child cannot be too strongly reprobated; a person must expect to be condemned when he involves himself in embarrasswents through his own imprudence.

Simulation (according to my Lord Chesterfeld) Is by no means to be reprobated as a disguise for chagrin or an engine of wit. Maceenzie. I sea the right, and I approve it, too;
Dondemn the wrong, and yet the wrong pursue. Tate.

## RESERVE, RESERVATION.

RESERVE and RESERVATION, from semvo, to keep, and re, back, both signify a keeping back, but differ as to the object and the circumstance of the action. Reserve is applied in a geod sense to anything natural or moral which is kept back to be employed for a better purpose on a future eccasion; reservation is an artful keeping hack for selflsh purposes: there is a prudent reserve which every man ought to keep in his discourse with a strauger; equivocators deal altogether in mental reservation.

A man, whom marks of condascending graca Teach, while they flatter him, his proper place, Who comes when called, at a word withdraws, Speaks with reserve, and listens with applause. Cowper.
There be three degrees of this hiding and veiling a man's self: first. reservation and secrecy: mecond, dissimulation in the negative; and the third, elmulation.
bacon.

## TO RESERVE, RETAIN.

RESERVE, from the Latin servo, to keep, signifies to keep back. RETAIN, from teneo, to bold, signifies to hold back : they in some measure, therefore, have the same distinction as keep and held.

Te reserve is an act of more specific design ; we reserve that which is the particular ohject of our cheice: to retain is a simple exertion of our power; we retain that which is once come in our possession. To reserve is employed only for that which is allewable; we reserve a thing, that is,
keep it back with care for some future purpese: to retain is often an unlawful act; a debtor frequently retains in his hands the money which he has borrowed.


#### Abstract

Augustus cansed most of the prophetic booka to be burncd as spurions, reserving ouly those which bore the name of some of the sibyls for their anthors.

Pbideadx They who have restored painting in Germany, not having seen any of those fair relics of antiquity, have retained mnch of that barbarous method.

Drynen.


To reserve, whether in the proper or improper application, is employed only as the act of a conscious agent; to retain is eften the act of an unconscious agent: we reserve what we have to say on a subject until a more suitable opportunity offers; the mind retains the impressions of external objects by its peculiar faculty, the memory; certain substances are said to retain the color with which they have been dyed.

[^107]
## REST, REMAINDER, REMNANT, RESIDUE.

REST evidently cemes from the Latin resto, in this case, though not in the former ( $v$. Ease), signifying what stands or remains back. REMAINDER literally signifies what remains after the first part is gone. REMNANT is but a variation of remainder. RESIDUE, from resido, signifies likewise what remains back.

All these terms express that part which is separated from the other and left distinct: rest is the most general, hoth in sense and application; the others have a more specific meaning and use: the rest may he either that which is left hehind by itself, or that which is set apart as a distinct portion: the remainder, remnant, and residue are the quantities which remain when the other parts are gone. The rest is said of any part, large or small; but the remainder commonly regards the smaller part which has been left after the greater part has been taken. A person may he said to sell some and give away the rest: when a number of hearty

## RESTORE

persons sit down to a meal, the remainder of the provisions, after all have been satisfied, will not be considerable. Rest is applied cither to persons or things; remainder only to things: some were of that opinion, but the rest did not agree to it: the remainder of the paper was not worth preserving.
For aince a last must come, A laat farewell : Like gaspa in death, whith the rest are vain,

Dayden.
If he to whom ten talents have been committed has squandered sway five, he is concerned to make a double improvement of the remainder.

Rooers.
Remnant, from the Latin remanens, remaining, is a species of remainder after the greater part has been consumed or wasted: it is, therefore, properly a small remainder, as a remnant of cloth; and metaphorically applied to persons, as a remnant of Israel. A residue is another species of remainder, which resides or keeps back after a distribution or division of anything has taken place; as the residue of a person's property, that which remains undisposed of.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Whatever you take from amusemelits or indo- } \\
& \text { lence will be repaid you a hundred-fuld for all the } \\
& \text { remainder of your days. EAnL of Chatiam. } \\
& \text { For this, far distant from the Latian coast, } \\
& \text { She drove the remnant of the Trojan bost. } \\
& \text { The riaing deluge is not stopp'd with dams, } \\
& \text { But wisely managed, its divided strength } \\
& \text { Is sluiced in channels, and securely drained; } \\
& \text { And while its force is spent, and unsupplied, } \\
& \text { The residue with mounds may be restrain'd. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Shagspeare.

## RESTORATION, RESTITUTION, REPARATION, AMENDS.

RESTORATION is emploped in the ordinary application of the verb restore: RESTITUTION, from the same verb, is employed simply in the sense of making good that which has been unjustly taken, or which ought to be restored. Restoration of property may be made by any one, whether it be the person taking it or not: restitution is supposed to be made by him who has been guilty of the injustice. The dethronement of a king may be the work of one set of men, and his restoration that of another: it is the bounden duty of every individual who has committed any sort of injustice to another to make restitution to the utmost of his power.

The strange proceedings of the Leng Parlia. ment (called the Rump) gave his lordslip hepes that matters began to ripen for the restoration of the royal family.

Lovs.
The jastices may, if tbey think it reasonable, direct restitution of a ratable share of the money given with an apprentice (upon bis disclarge).

## Blacestonh

Restitution and REPARATION ars both employed in the sense of undoing that which has been done to the injury of another; but the former respects only injuries that affect the property, and reparation those which affect a person in various ways. He who is guilty of theft or fraud must make restitution by either restoring the stolen article or its full value: he who robs another of his good name, or does any injury to his person, has it not in his power so easily to make reparation.
He restitution to the value makes,
Ner joy in his exterted treasure takes. Sandys.
Justice requires that all injuries sheuld be repaired.

Johnson.
Reparation and AMENDS ( $v$. Compen sation) are both employed in cases where some mischief or loss is sustained; but the term reparation comprehends the idea of the act of repairing, as well as the thing by which we repair; amends is employed only for the thing that will amend or make better. hence we speak of the reparation of an injury; but of the amends by itself. The term reparation comprehends all kinds of injuries, particularly those of a serious nature; the amends is applied only to matters of inferior importance. It is impossible to make reparation for taking away the life of another. It is casy to make amends to any one for the loss of a day's pleasure.
I am sensible of the scandal I have given by my loose writings, and make what repitration I am able.

Dryden.
The latter pleas'd ; and love (concern'd the most) Prepar'd th' amends for what by love he lost.

Dayden.

## RESTORE, RETURN, REPAY.

RESTORE, in Latin restauro, from the Greek aravpos, a pale, signifies properly to new pale, that is, to repair by a new paling, and, in an extended application, to make good what has been injured or lost. RETURN signifies properly to turn again, or to send back; and REPAY, to pay back.

The common idea of all these terma is that of giving back. What we restore to another may or may not he the aame as what we have taken; justice requirea that it should be an equivalent in value, so as to prevent the individual from being in any degree a aufferer: what we return and repay ought to he preciaely the same as we have received: the former in application to general ohjects, the latter in application only to pecuniary mattcra. We restore upon a principle of equity; we return upon a principle of justice and honor; we repay upon a principle of undeniable right. We cannot always claim that which ought to he restored; but we cannot only claim, hut enforce the claim in regard to what is to be returned or repaid: an honeat man will be scrupuloua not to take anything from another withont restoring to him its full value. Wbatever we have horrowed we ought to return; and when it is money which we have ohtained, we ought to repay it with punctuality. We restore to many as well as to one, to communities as well as to individuala; a king is re stored to hia crown; or one nation restores a territory to another: we return and repay not only individually, but personally and particularly: we return a hook to its owner; we repay a sum of money to him from whom it was borrowed.

When both the chiefs are sunder'd from the fight, Then to the lawful king restore his right.

Diydem.
Whon any one of our relations was found to be a person of a very had character, a tronblesome guest, or one we desired to get rid of, upon his leaving my house, I ever took care to lend him a riding-coat, or a pair of hoots, or sometimes a horse of small value, and I always had the satisfaction to find he never came back to return them.

Golidemith.
As for the hundred pounds to be paid, if you are nnable to raise it yourselves, I will advance it, and you shall repay me at your leisure.

GoLdgmite.
Restore and return may be employed in their improper application, as respects the moral state of persona and tbings; as a king restores a courtier to his favor, or a physician restores his patient to health: we return a favor; we return an answer or a compliment. Repay may be figuratively employed in regard to moral objects, as an ungrateful person repays kindnesser with reproaches.

She was the only person of our little soctets that a week did not restore to cheerfulness. Goгdsuith.
The swain
Receives hts easy food from nature's hand, And just returne of cultivated land. Deyden.
Cxsar, whom franght with Eastern spoila, Our heav'n, the juat reward of himan toils, Securely shall repay with rights divine.

Dryden.

## TO RESTRAIN, RESTRICT.

RESTRAIN (v. Coerce) and RESTRICT are hut variationa from the aame verb; but they have acquired a distinct acceptation: the former appliea to the deaires, as well as the outward conduct; the latter only to the outward conduct. A peraon restrains his inordinate appetite; or he is restrained by othera from doing mis. chief: he ia restricted in the use of hia money. To restrain is an act of power; but to restrict is an act of authority or law : the will or the actions of a child are restrained by the parent; but a patient is restricted in his diet by a physician, or any hody of people may be restricted by laws.

Tully, whose powerful eloquence awhile Restrain'd the rapid fate of rushing Rome.

Tномson.
Though the Egyptians used flesh for food, yet they were under greater restrictions in this particular than most other nations.

Jamer

## RETALIATION, REPRISAL.

RETALIATION, from retaliate, in Latin retaliatum, participle of retalio, compounded of $r e$ and talis, such, aignifies such again, or like for like. REPRISAL, in French repris, from reprendre, in Latin reprehendo, to take again, signifiea to take in return for what has heen taken. The idea of making another anffer in return for the auffering be has occaaioned is common to these terms; but the former is employed in ordinary casea; the latter mostly in regard to a state of warfare, or to active hostilities. A trick practised upon another in return for a trick ia a retaliation; but a reprisal always extende to the capture of aomething from another, in return for what has been taken. Retaliation is very frequently employed in the good aense for what passes innocently between frienda: reprisal has always an unfavorable aense. Goldsmith'a poem, entitled the "Retaliar

Con," was written for the purpose of retaliating on his frienda the humor they had practised upon him; when the quarrels of individuale break through the restraints of the law, and lead to acts of violence on each otber'a property, repri. sals are made alternately by both parties.

> Therefore I pray let me enjoy your friendship In that fair proportion, that 1 desire to return nnto you by way of correspondence and rotaliation.
> Howslu.

Go publislı o'er the plaln,
How mighty a proselyte you gain !
How noble a reprisat on the great!
Swift.

## TO RETARD, HINDER.

To RETARD, from the Latin tardus, slow, aignifying to make alow, is applied to the movements of any object forward; as in the Latin" Impetum inimici tardare :" to HINDER ( $v$. To hinder) is applied to the person moving or acting: we retard or make slow the progress of any scheme toward completion; we hinder or keep back the person who is completing the scheme: we retard a thing, therefore, often by hindering the person; but wc frequently hinder a pereon without expressly retarding, and, on the contrary, the thing is retarded without the person being hindered. The publication of a work is sometimes relarded by the hinderances which an author meets witb in bringing it to a conclusion; but a work may be retarded through the idleness of printers, and a variety of other canses which are independent of any hinderance. So in like manner a person may be hindered in going to his place of deatination; but we do not say that he ia retarded, because it is only the execution of an object, and not the simple movements of the person which are retarded.

[^108]Johnson.
The very nearness of an object sometimes hiniers the sight of it.

Soute.
To retard atops the completion of an object only for a time, but to hinder is to atop it altogether.
It is as natural to delay n letter at such a season, as to retard a melancholy visit to a person one cannot relieve.

Pope.
For these thou sayst, raise all the stormy strife, Which hinder thy repoee, and trouble life.

Prior.

## RETORT, REPAITEE.

RETORT, from re and torqueo, to twist or turn back, to recoil, is an ill-natured reply: REPARTEE, from the word part, aignifiea a amart reply, a ready taking one's own part. The retort is always in anawer to a censure for which one returna a like censure; the repartee is commonly in answer to the wit of another, where one returns wit for wit. In the acrimony of diaputea it is common to hear retort upon retort to an eadleas extent ; the vivacity of diacourse is sometimes greatly enhanced by the quick repartee of those who take a part in it.

Those who have so vehemently urged the dangers of an active life have made use of arguments that may be retorted upon themselves. Johnson.

Henry IV. of France would never be transported beyond himself with choler, but he would pass by anything with some repartee. Howesi.

## RETRIBUTION, REQUITAL.

RETRIBUTION, from tribuo, to bestow, aignifying a bestowing back or giving in return, is a particular term; REQUITAL ( $v$. Reward) is general : the retribution comea from Providence; requital is the act of man: retribution is by way of punishment; requital is mostly by way of reward: retribution is not always dealt out to every man according to his deeds; it is a poor requital for one who has done a kindness to be abuged.

> Chrisi substituted his own body in onr room, to receive the whole stroke of that dreadful retribution inflicted by the hand of an angry omnipotence.

> SOUTH.

Leander was indeed a conquest to boast of, for he had long and obstinately defended his heart, and for a time made as many requitals upon the tender passious of her sex as she raised contributions upon his.

Cumberland.

## RETROSPECT, REVIEW, SURVEY.

A RETROSPECT, which aignifies literally looking back, from retro, behind, and spicio, to bebold or cast an cye upon, ls always taken of that which is past and distant ; REVIEW, which is a view repeated, may be taken of that which is present and before us; every retrospect is a species of review, but every review is not a retrospect. We take a retrospect of our past life in order to draw salutary reflections from all that we have done and suffered; we take a revievo or a sec

## REVILE

ond view of any particular circumstance which is passing before us, in order to regulate our present conduct. The retrospeot goes farther by virtue of the mind's power to reflect on itself, and to recall all past images to itself; the review may go forward by the exercise of the senses on external objects. The historian takes a retrospect of all the eveuts which have happened within a given period; the journalist takes a review of all the events that are passing within the time iu which he ls living.

Belleve me, my lord, I look upon you as a spirit entered into another life, where you ought to despise all little views and mean retrospects.

Pope's Lettera to Atterbory.
The retrospect of life is seldom wbolly unattended by uneasineas and ahame. It too much resembles the reviero which a traveller takes from some eminence of a barren country,

Blatr.
The review may be said of the past as well as the present: it is a view not only of what is, but what has been: the SURVEY, which is a looking over at once, from the French sur, upon, and voir, to see, is entirely confined to the present; it is a view only of that whoh is, and is taken for some particular purpose. We take a review of what we bave already vieved, in order to get a more correct insight into it; we take a survey of a thing in all its parts, in order to get a comprebensive view of it, in order to examine it in all its bearings. A general occasionally takes a review of all his army; he takes a survey of the fortress which he is going to besiege or attack.

We make a general revievo of the whole work, and a general review of nature, that, by comparing them, their full correspondency may appear.

Burnet.
Every man accustomed to take a survery of his own notions will, by a slight retrospection, be able to discover that his miud has undergone many revolutions.

Johinaon.

## TO RETURN, REVERT.

RETURN is the English, and REVERT the Latin: return is therefore used in ordinary cases to denote the coming back to any point of time or place; as to return home, or to return at a certain hour; or to apply again to the same business or employment; as to return to one's writing: to revert is to throw back
with one's mind to any object; we may therefore say, to return or revert to any. intellectual object, with this distinction, tbat to return is to go back to the point where one left off treating of any subject; to revert is simply to carry one's mind back to the same object.

To return to the buainess in hand, the use of a little insight in those parts of knowledge is to accustom our minds to all sorts of ideas.

Locky.
It gives me pleasure to find you so often reverting to a snbject that moat people take so much pains to avoid. Mrs. Rowe.
As the act of an unconscious agent, return is used as before.
One day the soul, aupine with ease and faluess, Revels secure, and fondly tells herself The hour of evil can return no more.

Rowe.
Revert sigaifies either to fall back into the same state, or to fall back by reflection on the same objeot; all things revorted to their primitive order and regularity.
Whatever lies or legendary talea
May taint iny spotless deeds, the guilt, the shame, Will back revert on the inventur's head.

Suirley

## TO REVLLE, VILLFY.

REVILE, from the Latin vilis, signifies to reflect upon a person, or retort upon him that which is vile: to VILIFY, sig. nifies to make a thiug vile, that is, to set it forth as vile. To revile is a personal act, it is addressed directly to the object of offence, and is addressed for the purpose of making the person vile in his own eyes: to vilify is an indirect attack which serves to make the object appear vile in the eyes of others. Revile is said only of persons, for persons only are re. viled; but to vilify is said of persons as well as things. To revile is contrary to all Christian duty; it is commonly resorted to by the most worthless, and practised upon the most worthy; to vilify is seldom justifiable; for we cannot vilify without using improper language; it is seldom resorted to but for the gratifica. tion of ill-nature.
But chief he gloried with licentions style, To lash the great, and monarchs to revile.

Porz
There is nobody ao weak of invention that cannot make aome litthe atories to vilify his enemy.

ADDISON.

## RICHES

## REVISAL, REVISION, REVIEW.

REVISAL, REVISION, and REVIEW wll come from the Latin video, to see, und aignify looking back upon a thing or looking at it again: the terma revisal and revision are, however, mostly employed in regard to what is written ; review is uaed for things in general. The revisal of a book is the work of the author, for the purposea of correction: the review of a hook ia the work of the critic, for the purpose of estimating its value. Revisal and revision differ nelther in sense nor application, unleas that the former ls more frequently employed abstractedly from the object revised, and revision moatly in conjunction: whoever wishes hia work to be correct, will not spare a revisal; the revision of classical booka ought to be intrusted only to wen of profound erudition.

There is in yoor persons a difference nid a pectuliarlty of character preserved through the thote of your actions, that I coold never tuagine hut that this procoeded from a long and careful reedsal of your work.

Loftes.
A commonplace-book accustoms the mind to discharge itsalf of lts reading on paper, instead of ralying on its natural powers of fetention alded by frequent revisions of its ideas.

Eazl of Chatham.
How enohanting must sach a review (of the!r memorandum-books) prove to thosa who make a figure in the polite world.

Hawesemonth.

## to Revive, REFRESH, RENOVATE; RENEW.

REVIVE, from the Latin vivo, to live, signifiea to bring to life again; to REFRESH, to make freah again; to RENEW and RENOVATE, to make new again. The restoration of things to their primitive state is the common idea included in these terms; the difference consists in their application. Revive, refresh, and renovate are applied to animal bodies; revive expreasing the return of motion and spirits to one who was for the time lifeless; refresh expressing the return of vigor to one in whom it has been dlminished; the air revives one who is faint; a cool breeze refreshes one tho lags from the heat. Revive and refresh respect only the temporary state of a body; renovate respects the permanent state, that is, the bealth or powers of a body; one is revived and refreshed after
a partial exhauation; one's health is ren ovated after having been conalderably im paired.
And temper all, thou world-reviving sun, Into the perfect year. Tвомson. Nor less thy worla, Colinmbus! drinks, refresh'd,
The lavish molstore of the melting year.
THOMsON.
All nature feels the renovating force of winter.

Tномson.
Revive is applied likewise in the moral sense; refresh and renovate moatly in the proper aenae; renew only in the moral aense. A diacuasion is said to be revived, or a report to be revived; a clamor is said to be renewed, or entreaties to be renewed: customa are revived which have lain long dormant, and, as it were, dead; practicea are renewed that have ceasod for a time.

Herod ${ }^{4}$ rage being queached by the blood of Mariamos, his love to har again revived.

Paideatx.
The last great age, foretold by sacred rhymes, Renews its finished coursa.

Thoman

## RICHES, WEALTE, OPULENCE, AFFLUENOE.

RICHES, in German reichthum, from reich, a kingdom, is connected with the Latin rego, to rule; because riches and power are intlmately connected. WEALTH, from well, signlfies well being. OPULENCE, from the Latin open, richea, denotes the atate of having rlchea. AFFLUENCE, from the Latin ad and fluo, denotes either the aet of rlches flowing in to a person, or the state of having thinga flowing in.

Riches is a general term denoting any conaiderable abare of property, but without immediate refererice to a poasessor; whatever aerves to make one rich is denominated riches, inaamuch as it supplies us with the means of getting what is raally good; wealth, and the other terma, refer us immediately to outward poasessions:

His best companions innocence and heatth, And his best riches ignorance of wedith.

Goldoinite
Riches is a condition opposed to por. erty; the whole world is divided inted rich and poor, and riches are diattibuted in different degrees ; but wotilh, ogndethow

## RIGHT

and affuence all denote a considerable share of riches: wealth is a positive and substantial share of this world's goods, but particularly of money or the precious commodities; it may be taken in the abstract or in application to individuals: opulence consists of any large share in possessions or property generally, as houses, lands, goods, and chattels, and is applicable to the present and actual condition of the individual. Afluence is a term peculiarly applicable to the fluctuating condition of things whioh flow in in great quantities to a person. We speak of riches as to their effects upon men's minds and manners; it is not every one who knows how to use them: we speak of wealth as it raises a man in the scale of society, and contributes to his weal or well-being: we speak of opulence as the present actually flourishing state of the individual; and of affluence as the temporary condition.

Riches are apt to betray a man into arrogance. ADDISON.
Seek not in needless luxury to waste
Thy wealth and substace with a spendthrift's haste.

Rowe.
Prosperity ls often an equivocal word, denoting merely affluence of possession. Blain.

Our Saviour did not choose for himself an easy and opulent condition.

Blaik.
Wealth and opulence are applied to communities as well as individuals.
Aloog the lawn where scatterd hamlets rose,
Unwieldy wealth and cumb'rons pomp repose.
Goxdsmite.
Indostrious hahits in each bosom relgn, And industry begets a love of gain;
Hence all the good from opulence that springs, With all those ills saperfluous treasnre hrings,
Are here display'd.
Goldsyite.

## RIDICULE, SATIRE, IRONY, SARCASM.

RIDICULE ( $\%$. To deride) has simple laughter in it; SATIRE, in Latin salyr, probably from sat and ira, abounding in anger, has a mixture of ill-nature or severity: the former is employed in matters of a trifling nature ; but satire is employed either in personal or grave mat-
 ing dissimulation, is disguised satire; an ironist seems to praise that which he really means to condemn. SAROASM, from the Greek $\sigma \alpha \rho \kappa a \sigma \mu o s$, and $\sigma a \rho \kappa \iota \zeta \omega$, and oves, flesh, signifying biting or nipping
satire, so, as it were, to tear the flesh, is bitter and personal satire; all the others may be successfully and properly employed to expose folly and vice; but sarcasm, which is the indulgence only of personal resentment, is never justifiable.

Nothing is a greater mark of a degenerate and vicious age than the common ridieule wbich passes on this state of life (marriage). Adorson.

A man resents with more bitterness a satire upon his abilities than his practice.

Hafiesworti.
The severity of this sarcasm stung me with intolerable rage. Hawessworti.
When Regan (in King Lear) connsels him to ask her sister forgiveness, be falls on his knees and asks her, with a striking kind of irony, how such supplicating language as this becometh him. Johnson.

RIGHT, JUST, FIT, PROPER.
RIGHT, in German recht, Latin rectus, signifying upright, not leaning to one side or the other, standing as it ought, is here the general term: the others express modes of right. The right and wrong are defiacd by the written will of God, or are written in our hearts according to the original constitutions of our nature : the JUST, in Latin justus, from jus, law, signifying according to a rule of right, and the unjust, are determined by the written laws of men; the FIT (v. Fit) and PROPER, in Latin proprius, signifying belonging to a given specific rule, are determined by the established principles of civil society.

Between the right and the wrong there are no gradations: a thing cannot be more right or more wrong; whatever is right is not wrong, and whatever is wrong is not right: the just and unjust, proper and improper, fit and unfit, on the contrary, bave various shades and degrees that are not so easily definable by any forms of speech or written rules.
Hear, then, my argumant-confess we must
A God there is supremely wise and just.
If so, however things affect our sight,
As sings our bard, whatever is is right. Jenyws.
The right and wrong depend upon no circumstances; what is once right or wrong is always right or wrong, but the just or unjust, proper or improper, are relatively so according to the circumstances of the case: it is a just rule for every man to have that which is hit

## RIPE

own; but what is $j u s t$ to the individual may be unjust to society. It is proper for every man to take charge of his own concerns; but it would be improper for a man, in an unsound state of mind, to undertake such a charge. Right is applicable to all matters, important or otherwise ; $j u s t$ is employed mostly in matters of essential interest : proper is rather applicable to the minor concerns of life. Everything that is done may be characterized as right or wrong: everything done to others may be measured by the rule of just or unjust : in our social intercourse, as well as in our private transactions, fitness and propriety must always be consulted. As Christians, we desire to do that which is right in the sight of God and man; as members of civil society, we wish to be just in our dealings; as rational and intelligent beings, we wish to do what is fit and proper in every action, however trivial.

I'm assured if I be measur'd rightly
Your Majesty hath no just canae to bate me. Shakspeare.
What is settled by custom, thongh it be not good, yet at least it is ft; and those thinga which lave long gone together may, as it were, confederate within themselvea.

Bacon.
Visitors are no proper companions in the chamber of aickneas.

Johnaon.

## RIGHT, CLAIM, PRIVILEGE.

RIGHT signifies in this sense what it is right for one to possess, which is in fact a word of large meaning: for since the right and the wrong depend upon indeterminable questions, the right of having is equally indeterminable in some cases with every other species of right. A CLAIM ( $v$. To ask for) is a species of right to have that which is in the hands of another; the right to ask another for it. The PRIVILEGE ( $v$. Privilege) is a species of right peculiar to particular individuals or bodies.

Right, in its full sense, is altogether in abstract thing which is independent of human laws and regulations; claims and privileges are altogether connected with the establishments of civil society. Liberty, in the general sense, is an unalienable right which belougs to man as a rational and responsible agent; it is not a claim, for it is set above all question and all condition; nor is it a privi-
lege, for it cannot be exclusively granted to one being, nor unconditionally be tak. en away from another.
In ev'ry atreet a city bard
Rnlea like an alderman his ward, His nndiaputed rights extend
Through all the lane from end to end. Swifr.
Between right and power there is often as wide a distinction as between truth and falsehood; we have often a right to do that which we have no power to do; and the power to do that which we have no right to do: slaves have a right to the freedom which is enjoyed by creatures of the same spscies with themselves, but they have not the power to use this freedom as others do. In England men have the power of thinking for themselves as they please; but by the abuse which they make of this power, we see that in many cases they have not the right, unless we admit the contradiction that men have a right to do what is wrong; they have the power, therefore, of exercising this right only because no other person has the power of controlling them. We have often a claim to a thing which is not in our power to substantiate; and, on the other band, claims are set up in cases which are totally unfounded on any right. Privileges are rights granted to individuals, depending either upon the will of the grantor, or the circumstances of the receiver, or both; privileges are therefore partial rights transferable at the discretion of persons individually or collectively.

Will he not, therefore, of the two evils choose the least, by anbmitting to a master who hath no immediate olaim upon him, rather than to another, who hath already revived several claime upon him?

STIFT.
A thousand bards thy rights disown, And with rebellious arm pretend An equal privilege to descend.

Swift.

## RIPE, MATURE.

RIPE is the English, MATURE the Latin word; the former bas a universal application both proper and improper ; the latter has mostly an improper application. The idea of completion in growth is simply desiguated by the former term; the idea of moral perfection, as far at least as it is attainable, is marked by the latter: fruit is ripe when it requires no more sustenance from the parent stock :

## ROUTE

a judgment is mature which requires no more time and knowledge to render it perfect or litted for exeroise: in the same manner a project may be said to be ripe for execution, or a peaple ripe for revalt; and, on the coutrary, refleotion may be said to be mature to which sufficiency of time has been given, and age may be said to be mature which has attained the highast pitch of perfection. Ripeness is, how. ever, not always a good quality; but maturity is always a perfection: the ripeness of some fruit diminishes the excellence of its flavor: there are some fruits which have no flavor until they come to maturity.
So to bis crowne, she him restor'd againe, In which he dyde, made ripe for death by ald.

Spenter,
Th' Athenian saga, revolving in his mind This weakness, blindness, madness of mankind, Foretold that In maturer days, though late, When time should ripan the decrees of fate, Some god would light us,

Jentie.

## TO RISE, ISSUE, EMERGE.

To RISE ( 3. To arise) may either refer to open or enclosed spaces; ISSUE (v. To arisa) aod EMERGE (v. Emergency) have both a reference to some confined body : a thing may either rise in a body, without a body, or out of a body; but it is. sues and cmerges out of a body. A thing may either rise in a plain or a wood; it issues out of a wood: it may either rise in water or ont of the water; it emerges from the water; that which rises out of a thing comes into view by becoming higher: in this manner an air balloon might rise out of a wood; that which issues comes from the very depths of a thing, and comes, as it were, out as a part of it; but that which energes proceeds from the thing in which it has been, as it were, concealed. Hence, in the moral application, a person is said to rise in life without a reference to his former condition; but he emerges from obscurity: color rises in the face; but words issue from the mouth.

Ye mists and exhalations that now rise, In honor to the world's great author riee.

Muton.
Does not the earth quit scores with all the elements in the noble fruits and productions that issue from it?

Socte.
Let earth dissolve, yon ponderous orbs descend, And grind us into dust, the soul is safe,
The man emerges.
Young.

## TO ROT, PUTREFY, CORRUPT.

The dissolution of bodies by an inter nal process is implied by all these terms: but the first two are applied to natural bodies only; the last to all bodies, natural and moral. ROT is the strongest of all these terms; it denotes the last stage in the progress of dissolution: PUTREFY expresses the progress toward rottenness; and CORRUPTION the commence ment. After fruit bas arrived at its maturity, or proper state of ripeness, it rots: meat which is kept too long putrefies: there ls a tendency in all bodies to cor. ruption; iron and wood corrupt with tlme; whatever is made, or done, or wished by men, is equally liable to be corrupt, or to grow corrupt.
Debate destroys despatch, as fruits we see Rot when they lang too long upon the tree.

Dentam.
And draws the copious stream from swampy fens, Where putrofaction lato life fermeats.

Thombon.
After that they again returned beene,
That in that gardin planted be agayne And grow afresh, as they bad never seene Fleshy cormuption, nor mortall payne.

Speneen.
ROUNDNESS, ROTUNDITY.
ROUNDNESS and ROTUNDITY both come from the Latin rotundus and rota, a wheel, which is the most perfectly round body which is formed: the former tern is, however, applied to all objects in general; the latter only to solid bodies which are round in all directions: one speaks of the roundness of a circle, the roundness of the moon, the roundness of a tree; bitt the rotundity of a man's body which projects in a round form in all directions, and the rotundity of a full cheek, or the rotundity of a turnip.
Bracelets of pearls gate roundness to hep arms. Prior.
Angular bodies lose their points and asperitien by frequent friction, and approach by degrees to uniform rotundity.

Jor ngon.

## ROUTE, ROAD, COURSE.

ROUTE comes in all probability from rotundus, round, and rota, a wheel, signifying the round which one goes. ROAD comes no doubt from ride, signifying the place where one rides, as COURSE, from the Latin cursus (v. Conorse), signifies the place where one walks or runs.

Route is to road as the species to the genus: a route is a circular kind of road; it is chosen as the circuitous direction toward a certain point: the road may be either in a direct or indirect line; the route is always indirect ; the route is chosen only by horsemen, or those who go to a considerable distance ; the road may be chosen for the shorteat distanee; the route and road are purstued in their beaten track; the course is often chosen in the unbeaten track: an army or a company go a certain route; foot-passengers are seen to take a certain course over fields.
Cortes (after his defeat at Mexico) was engaged in deep consultation with his offcers concerning the route which they ought to take in their retreat.

Robertaon.
At our flrst sally into the intellectual world, we all march together along one straight and oper roud.

Johneen.
Then to the stream when neither friends nor force
Nor speed, nor art avail, be shapes his course.
Déniam.

## ROYAL REGAL, KINGLY.

ROYAL and REGAL, from the Latim rex, a king, though of foreign origin, have obtained more general application than the corresponding English term KINGLY. Royal signifies belonging to a king, in its most general sense; regal, in Latin regalis, signifies appertaining to a king, in its particular application ; kingly signifies properly like a king. A royal carriage, a royal residence, a royal couple, a royal salute, royal authority, all designate the general and ordinary appurtenances to a king: regal government, regal state, regal power, regal dignity, denote the peculiar properties of a king: kingly always implies what is becoming a king, or after the manner of a king; a kingly erown is such as a king ought to wear ; a kingly mien, that which is after the manner of a king.

He died, and oh 1 may no reflection shed Its pois'nous venom on the royal dead. Paior.

Jerusalem combin'd must see My open fault and regcel infamy.

Palor.
Sciplo, you know how Massanissa beara
His kingly port at more than ninety years.
Denhan.
TO RUB, CHAFL, FRET, GALL.
To RUB is traced, through the medium of the Northern languages, to the Hebrew
rup; it is the generic term, expressing simply the act of bodies moving in contact with and against otiners; to CHAFE, from the French chauffer, and the Latin calfacere, to make hot, signifies to rab a thing until it is heated: to FRET, like the word fritter, comes from the Latin frico, to rub or crumble, signifying to wear away by rubbing: to GALL, from the noun gall, signifies to make as bitter or painful as gall, that is, to wound by rubbing. Things are rubbed sometimes for purposes of eonvenience; but they are chafed, fretted, and galled injuriously: the skin is liable to chafe from any vio lence; leather will frot from the motion of a carriage; when the skin is once broken, animals will become godled by a continuance of the friction. These terms are likewise used in the moral sense, to denote the actions of things on the mind, where the distinction is clearly kept up: we meet with rubs from the opposing sentiments of others; the angry humors are chafed; the mind is fretted and made sore by the frequent repetition of small troubles and vexations; pride is galled by humiliations and severe degradations.
A boy educated at home meets with continual mubs and disappointments (when he comes into the world).

Beattie.
Accoutred as we were, we both plung'd in The troubled Tiber, chafing with the shores.

Shakgpease.
And full of indignation frets
That women should be such coquettes. SWrift.
Thus every poet in his kind
Is bit by him that comes behind,
Who, tho' too little to be seen,
Can tease and gall, and give the spleen. Swift.
Foul cank'ring rust the hidden treasure frets,
But gold that's put to use more gold begets.
Sharspeafe.

## RUPTURE, FRACTURE, ERACTION.

RUPTURE, from rumpo, to break or burst, and FRACTURE or FRACTION, from frango, to break, denote different kinds of breaking, according to the objects to which the action is applied. Soft substances may suffer a mupture; as the rupture of a blood-vessel: hard substancea a fracture; as the fracture of a bone.

Th' egg, Bursting with kindly rupture, forth disclos'd Its callow young. Milton.
We arrived here all safe and well yesterday afternoon, with no worse accident than some fractures in our tackle.

Mas. Carter

Fraction is used only in respect to broken numbers, as the fraction of a unit.

Pliny put a round number near the truth rathar than a fruction.

Allactanot.
Rupture is also used in an improper spplication; as the rupture of a treaty.

To be an enemy, and once to have been a friend, bas it not embitter the rupture I

Soute.

## RURAL, RUSTIC.

Although both these terms, from the Latin rus, country, signify belonging to the country, yet the former is used in a good, and the latter in a bad or an indifferent sease. RURAL applies to all country objects except man ; it is, therefore, always connected with the charms of nature: RUSTIC applies only to persons, or what is personal, in the country, and is, therefore, always associated with the want of culture. Rusal scenery is always interesting; but the rustic manners of the peasants have frequently too much that is uncultivated and rude in them to be agreeable; a rural habitation may be fitted for persons in a higher station; but a rustic cottage is adapted only for the poorer inhabitants of the country.
E'en now, methinks, as pondering here I stand, I see the rural virtues leave the land.

Golnsmite.
The freedom and laxity of a rustic life produces remgrkable pecnliarities of conduct. Јонкsor.

## S.

## SAFE, SECURE.

SAFE, in Latin salvus, coming from the Hebrew salah, to be tranquil, implies exemption from harm, or the danger of harm; SECURE (v. Certain), the exemption from danger: a person may be safe or saved in the midst of a fire, if he be untouched by the fire; but he is, in such a case, the reverse of secure. In the sense of exemption from danger, safety expresses much less than security: we may be safe without using any particular measures; but none can reckon on any degree of security without great precaution: a person may be very safe on the top of a
coach, in the daytime; but if he wish to secure himself, at night, from falling off, he must be fastened.

It cannot be aafe for any man to walk upon a precipice, and to be alwaya on the very border of destruction.

Soutn.
No man can rationally account himself aecurd unless he could command all the chances of the world.

SOVTE.
SAGE, SAGACLOUS, SAPIENT.
SAGE and SAGACIOUS are variations from the Latin sagax and sagio, probably from the Persian sag, a dog, sagacity being the peculiar property of a dog. SA. PIENT is in Latin sapiens, from sapio, which is either from the Greek oopos, wise, or, in the sense of tasting, from the Hebrew sepah, the lip.

The first of these terms has a good sense, in application to men, to denote the faculty of discerning immediately, which is the fruit of experience, and very similar to that sagacity in brutes which instinctively perceives a thing without the deductions of reason; sapient is now employed only in regard to animals which are trained up to particular arts; its use, therefore, in respect to human beings, is mostly in the lofty or burlesque style.
So strange they will appear, but ao it happen'd That these most aage Academicians sate In solemn consultation-on a cabbage. Cumberland.
Sagacious all to trace the smallest game,
And bold to seize the greatest. Yorme.
Many a wreteh in Bedlam,
Though perhaps among the rout
He wildly flings his filth abont, Still has gratitnde and aapience,
To spare the folks that give them ha'pence.
SWIFT.

## SAKE, ACCOUNT, REASON, PURPOSE, END.

These terms are all employed adverbially, to modify or connect propositions; hence one says, for his SAKE, on his ACCOUNT, for this REASON, for this PURPOSE, and to this END. Sake, which comes from the word to seek, is mostly said of persons; what is done for a person's sake is the same as because of his seeking or at his desire; one may, however, say in regard to things, for the saks of good order, implying what good order requires: account is indifferently employ. ed for persons or things; what is dons

## SAP

on a person's account is done in his behalf, and for his interest; what is done on account of indisposition is done in consequence of it, the indisposition being the cause : purpose is properly personal, and refers to that which a person purposes to himself ; if we ask, therefore, for whe. purpose a thing is done, it may be to know something of a person's chararter and principle : reason and end are apphed to things only: we speak of the reasors as the thing that justifies: we explain why we do a thing when we say we do it for this or that reason: we speak of the end by way of explaining the nature of the thing: the propriety of measures cannot be known unless we know what end it will answer.

## Thou neither dost persuade nee to seek wealth For empire's $8 a k e$, nor empire to affect For giory's sake. <br> Sharspeage.

In matters where his judgment led him to oppose men, on a public account, he would do it rigorousiy and heartily. Atteasuby.
He travelled the world on purpose to converse with the most learned men. Goaadian.
I mark the hnsiness from the common eye
For sundry weighty reasons. Suabapearr.
others are apt to attribute them to some false end er intention.

Adplaon.

## salute, salutation, Greeting.

SALUTE ( $v$. Accost) respects the thing ; and SALUTATION, whieh is a variation of salute, respects the person giving the salute: a salute may consist either of a word or an action; salutations pass from one friend to another: the salute may be oither direet or indireet; the salutation is always direct and personal ; guns are fired by way of a salute: bows are given in the way of a salutation.

[^109]After the first ocluitations they began to make inquiries about their absent friends. The greeting which took placa between the parties tupo their remeeting was general and cordial.

Sir W. Scott.
I was harassed by the multitude of eager salutations, and retarned the common clvilitias with hesitatior and improprlety.

Jonnson.

## sANGuUINARY, BLOODY, BLOODTHIRSTY.

SANGUINARY, from sanguis, is em. ployed both in the sense of BLOODY, or having blood, and BLOOD-THIRSTY, or thirsting after blood: sanguinary, in the first cast, relates only to blood shed, as a smquinary engagement, or a sanguinary connict; bloody is used in the familiar application, to denote the simple presence of thood, as a bloody coat, or a bloody sword.
The scene is now more sanguinary and fuiler of actors; never k as such a confused mysterious civil war as this.

Howell.
And from the wound, Black bloody drops distill'd upon the ground.

DAYDEN.
In the seccod case, sanguinary is employed to characterize the tempers of nersons only; blood-thirsty to characterize via tempers of persons or any other bengs: revolutionists will be frequently sa. $g^{1, i} n a r y$, wecause they are abandoned to their passions, and follow a lawless course of violeace; tigers are by nature the most bloolthirsty of all creatures.

They have seen the French rebel against a mild and lawful monarch with more fury than ever any people has been known to rise against the most illegal usurpe. or the most sanguinary tyrant.

Beras.
The Pernvians fought not like the Mexicans, to glut blood-thirsty divinitiea with human sac. rifices.

Robiatsox.

## SAF, UNDERMINE.

SAP signifies the juice which springs from the root of a tree; hence to sap signifies to come at the root of anything by digging: to UNDERMINE sigaifies to form a mine under the gronnd, or noder whatever is upon the ground: we may sap, therefore, without undermining; and undermine without rapping: we may sap the foundation of a house without making any mine underneath; and in fortifications we may undermine either a mound, a ditch, or a wall, without striking immediately at the foundation: hence, in

## SAVE

the nooral application, to $s \alpha p$ is a more direat and decisive mode of destruction; to undermine is a gradual, and may be a partial action. Infidelity saps the morals of a nation; courtiers undermine one another's interests at court.

## With morning drams,

 A filthy custom whicis he caught from thee, Clean from his former practice, now he saps His youthful vigor.cumberland.
To be a man of lusiness is, in other words, to be a plagoe and spy, a treacherons aupplanter 3nd underminer of the peace of families.

South.

## to satisfy, please, gratify.

To SATISFY ( $\%$. Contentment) is rather to produce pleasure indirectly; to PLEASE (v. Agreeable) is to produce it directly: the former is negative, the latter positive pleasure: as every desire is accompanied with more or less pain, satisfaction, which is the remoral of desire, is itself to a certain extent pleasure; but what satisfies is not always calculated to please; nor is that which pleases, that which will always satrsfy: plain food satigfies a hungry person, but does not please lim when he is not hungry; social enjoyments please, but they are very far from satisfying those who do not restrict their indulgences. To GRATIFY is to please in a high degree, to produce a vivid pleasure: we may be pleased with trifles: but we are commonly gratified with such thlngs as act strongly either on the senses or the affections:.an epicure is gratified with those delicacies which suit his taste; an amateur in music will be gratifiod with hearing a piece of Handel's composition finely performed.
He who has run over the whole clrcke of earthif pleasures will be forced to complain that either they were not pleasiures or that pleasure was not antisfaction.

Sovtr.
Did we consider that the mind of man is the man himaelf, we should think it the most unnatural sort of self-murder to sacrifice the sentiment of the soul to grotify the appetites of the body.

Steele.
TO SATISFY, SATIATE, GLUT, CLOY.
To SATISFY is to take enough: SATIATE is a frequentative, formed from satis, enough, signifying to lave more than enough. GLUT, in Latin glutio, from gula, the throat, signifies to take down the throut. Satisfaction brings
pleasure; it is what nature dewands; and nature, therefore, makes a suitable return: satiety is attended with disgust; it is what appetite demands; but appetite is the corruption of nature, and produces nothing but evil: glutting is an act of intemperance; it is what the inordinate appetite demands; it greatly exceeds the former in degree both of the cause and the consequence: CLOYING is the con sequence of gluttizg. Every healthy per son satisfies himself with a regular portion of food; children, if unrestrained, seek to satiate their appetites, and cloy themselves hy their excesses; brutes, or men debased into brutes, gluat themselves with that which is agreeable to their appetites. So, in the moral application, we satisfy desires in general, or any particular desire; we satiate the appetite for pleasure; one gluts the eyes or the ears by anything that is horrid or painful, or cloys the mind.
The only thing that can give the mind any solid batisfaction is a certain complacency and repose in the good providence of God. Herring.
'Twas not enough
By subtle frand to snatch a single life,
Puny impiety! whole kingdoms fell,
To sate the lust of power.
Porteua.
If the understanding be detained by occupations less pleasing, it returns again to study with greater alacrity than when it is glutted with ideal pleasures. Johnson.
Religions pleasure is such a pleasure as can never cloy, or overwork the miod. Sontr.

## TO SAVE, SPARE, PRESERVE, PROTECT.

To SAVE is to keep or make safe. (v. Safe). SPARE, in German sparen, like the Latin parco, comes from the Hebrew parek, to free. PRESERVE, compounded of pree and servo, to keep, signifies to keep off. PROTECT, v. To defend

The idea of keeping free from evil is. the common idea of all these terms, and the peculiar signification of the term save; they differ either in the nature of the evil kept off, or the circumstances of the agent: we may be saved from every kind of evil; but we are spared only from those which it is in the power of another to inflict: we may be saved from falling, or saved from an illness; a criminal is spared from punishment, or we may be spared by Divine Providence in the midst of some calamity.

The plague destroying those the sword woild spare,
This time to save the few remains of war. Pope. Spare my sight the pain
Of seeing what a world of tears it cost you.
Dryden.
We may be saved and spared from any evils, great or small; we are preserved and protected only from evila of magnitude: we may be saved either from the inclemency of the weather, or the fatal vicissitudes of life: we may be spared the pain of a disagreeable meeting, or we may be spared our lives; we are preserved from ruin, or protected from oppression. To save and spare apply to evils that are actual and temporary ; preserve and protect to those which are posaible or permanent: we may be saved from drowning; a person may be preserved from infection, or protected from an attack. To save may be the effect of accident or design; to spare is always the effect of Intentional forbearance; to preserve and protect are the effect of a apecial exertion of power; the latter in a still higher degree than the former: we may be preserved, by ordinary means, from the evile of human life; but we are protected by the government, or by Divine Providence, from the active assaults of those who aim at doing us mischief.

A wondrous ark
To save hlmself and household from amid A world devote to universal wreck. Mixton.
Let Cesar spread his conquesta far,
Less pleas'd to triumph than to epars.
JOHNSON.
Cortes was extremely sollcitous to preserve the city of Mexico as much as possible from beling destroyed.

ROEEETSON،
How poor a thing is man, whom death itself Cannot protect from Injuries !

Randolph.
To spare and protect refer mostly to personal injuries; aave and preserve are said of whatever' one keeps from injury on aocount of its value; as to savs one's good hame, to preserve one's honor.
Attilitus sacrific'd himself to sate
That faith which to his barb'rous foes he gave.
Deneam.
Then to preserve the fame of such a deed
For Pythia slain were Pythian games decreed.
Duyben.

## SCARCITY, DEARTH.

SCARCITY (v. Rare) is a geñeric term to denote the circumstance of a thing be-
ing scarce. DEARTH, which is the same as dearness, ia a mode of scarcity applled in the literal sense to provisions most, ly , as' provisions are mostly dear when they are scarce; the word dearth, tberefore, denotes scarsity in a high degree: whatever men want, and find it diffloult to procure, they complain of lta scarcity: when a country has the misfeztune to bo visited with a famine, it experiences the frightfullest of all dearths.
They drink very few liquors that have not lain In fresco, insomuch that a scarcity of snow would raise a mutiny at Naples.

ADDISON.
I find the dearth at this time very great. Wheat was at four marks the quarter. Burnet,

Dearth is figuratively applied to moral objects; ss a dearth of intelligence, of talent, and the like.
The French have brought on themselves that dearth of plot.

Deyden.

## SCHOLAR, DISCIPLE.

SCHOLAR and DISCIPLE are both applied to euch ss learn from others: but the former is said only of those who learn the rudiments of knowledge; the latter of one who acquires any art or science from the instruction of another: the scholar ia opposed to the teacher; the disciple to the master: ohildren are alwaye scholars; adult persons may be disciples. Scholars chiefly employ themselves in the atudy of words; diseiples, as the discuples of our Saviour, in the study of things: we are the scholars of any one under whose care we are plaoed, or from whom we learn anything, good or bad; we are the disciples only of those who are distinguished, and for the most part in the good sense, though not al. ways so: children are sometimes too apt scholdrs in learning evil from one another. Philosophers of old had their disciples, and nowadays there are many who have been exalted into that character who have their disciples and followera.
The Romans confessed themselves the sichol ars of the Greeks.

JOHNSON. We are not the disciples of Voltaire. Buber.

## SCHOOL, ACADEMY.

The Latin term schola signifiés a loi-tering-place, a place for desultory conver sation or inatruction, from the Greek exo$\lambda y$, leisure; heftce it has been extended
to any place where instruction is given, particularly that which is communicated to youth. ACADEMY derives its name from the Greek $\alpha \times a \delta \eta \mu \mu$, the name of a public place in Athens, where the philosopher Plato first gave his lectures, which afterward became a place of resort for learned men; hence societies of learned men have since been termed academies. The leading idea in the word SCHOOL is that of instruction given and doctrine received; in the word academy is that of association amoag those who have already learned: hence we speak in the literal sense of the school where young persons meet to be taught, or in the extended and moral sense of the old and new school, the Pythagorean school, the philosophical school, and the like; but the academy of arts or sciences, the Freach academy, being members of any academy and the like.

The world is a great school, where deceit, in all its forms, is one of the lespons that is first learned.

Blair.
As for other academies, such as those for painting, sculpture, or architecture, we have not so much as heard the propogal. Suaftesbuay.

## TO SCOFF, GIBE, JEER, SNEER.

SCOFF comes from the Greek $\boldsymbol{\sigma \kappa \omega \pi \tau \omega}$, to deride. GIBE and JEER are connect. ed with the words gabble and jabber, denoting an uaseemly mode of speech. SNEER is connected with sneeze and nose, the member by which sneering is performed.
Scoffing is a general term for expressing contempt; we may scoff either by gibes, jeers, or sneers; or we may scoff by opprobrions language and contemptuous looks with gibing, jeering, or sneering: to gibe, jeer, and sneer, are personal acts; the gibe and jeer consist of words addressed to an individual: the former has most of ill-nature and reproach in it; the latter has more of ridicule or satire in it; they are hoth, however, applied to the actious of vulgar or unseemly people, who practise their coarse jokes on others.
Truth from his lips prevaird with double sway,
And fools who came to scoff remain'd to pray.
GoLDsmitn.
And sneers as learnedly as they,
Like females o'er their morning tea.
SWIFT.
Scoff and sneer are directed either to persons or things, as the object; gibe and
jeer only toward persons; scoff is taken only in the proper sease; sneer derives its meaning from the literal act of sneering: the scoffer speaks lightly of that which deserves serious attention: the sneerer speaks either actually with a sneer, or as it were by implication with a sneer: the scoffers at religion set at naught all thoughts of decorum, they openly avow the little estimation in which they hold it; the sneerers at religion are more sly, but not less malignant; they wish to treat religion with contempt, but not to bring themselves into the contempt thay deserve.
The fop aets learning at deffance,
Scoffs at the pedant und the acience.
Gar.
Shrewd fellows, and snch arch waga! A tribe That meet for nothing bat to gibe. SwIFT.
That jebring demeanor is a quality of great offence to others and danger toward a man'a self.

LORD WENTHORTH.
There is one short passage atill remaining (of Alexes the poet'a) which coaveya a sneer at Pythagoras.

Ccmberiano.
Where town and country vicars flock in tribes,
Secur'd by numbers from the laymen'a gibes.
Swift.
Midas, expos'd to all their jeers,
Had loat his art, and kept his ears.
SWIFT.

## to scruple, hesitate, waver.

To SCRUPLE (v. Conscientious) simply keeps us from deciding; the terms HESITATE ( $v$. To demur) and WAVER, from the word wave, signifying to move backward and forward like a wave, bespeak a fluctuating or variable state of the mind. We scruple simply from motives of doubt as to the propriety of a thing; we hesitate and waver from various motives, particularly such as affect our interests. Conscience produces scruples, fear produces hesitation, irresolution produces wavering: a person scruples to do an action which may hurt his neighbor or offend his Maker; he hesitates to do a thing which he fears may not prove advantageous to him; he wavers in his mind between going or staying, according as his inclinations impel him to the one or the other: a man who does not scruple to say or do as he pleases will be an offensive companion, if not a dangerous member of society: he who hesitates only when the doing of good is proposed. evinces himself a worthless memher of society; he who wavers between his duty
and his inclination will seldom maintsin a long or doubtful contest.
The Jacohina desire a ehanga, and they will have it if they can ; if they cannot have it by English cabal, they will make no aort of acruple to have it by the cabal of France.

Burke.
The lorda of the cougregation did not hesitate a moment whether they should employ their whole strength in one generoue effort to rescue their religion and liberty from impending destruction.

Robertson.
It is the greatest abaurdity to be wavering and unsettled without closing with that aide which appears the moat aafe and probable.

ADDI8ON.

## SEAL, STAMP.

SEAL is a specific, STAMP a general term : there cannot be a seal without a stamp; but there may be many stamps where there is no seal. The seal, in Latin sigillum, signifies a signet or little sign, consisting of any one's coat of arms or any device; the stamp is, in general, any impression whatever which has been made by stamping, that is, any impression which is not easily to be effaced. In the improper sense, the seal is the authority; thus, to set one's seal is the same as to authorize, and the seal of truth is any outward mark which characterizes it: but the stamp is the impression by which we distinguish the thing; thus a thing is said to bear the stamp of truth, of sincerity, of veracity, and the like.

Therefore not long in force this charter stood, Wanting that asal, it must be seal' $d$ in blood.

Dengam.
Wisdom for parts is madness for the whole. This stampa the paradox, aod gives us leave To call the wisest weak.

Youso.

## geaman, Waterman, sailor, MarINER.

All these words deuote persons occupied in navigation; the SEAMAN, as the word implies, follows his business on the sea; the WATERMAN is one who gets his livelihood on fresh water: the SAILOR and the MARINER are both specific terms to designate the seaman: every sailor and mariner is a seaman; although every seaman is not a sailor or mariner; the former is one who is employed about the laborious part of the vessel; the latter is one who traverses the ocean to and fro, who is attached to the water, and
passes his life upon it. Men of all rankg are denominated seamen, whether officers or men, whether in a merchantman or a king's ship: sailor is only used for the common men, or, in the sea phrase, for those before the mast, particularly in vessels of war; hence our sailors and sol diers are spoken of as the defenders of our country: a mariner is an indepen. dent kind of seaman who manages his own vessel, and goes on an expedition on his own account; fishermen, and those who trade along the coast, are in a particular manner distinguished by the name of mariners.

Thus the tose'd seaman, after boist'rous atorms, Landa on hia couotry'a breast.

Many a lawyer who makes but an indifferent figure at the bar might have made a very elegant waterman. South.
Through storms and tempests ao the sailor drives.

Sulrley.
Welcome to me, as to a ainking mariner
The lucky plank that bears him to the ahore.
LEE.
TO SECOND, SUPPORT.
To SECOND is to give the assistance of a second person; to SUPPORT is to bear up on one's own shoulders. To second does not express so much as to support: we second only by our presence or our word; but we support by our influence, and all the means that are in our power: we second a motion by a simple declaration of our assent to it; we support a motion by the force of persuasion: so likewise we are said always to second a person's views when we give him openly our countenance by declaring our approbation of his measures; and we are said to support him when we give the assistance of our purse, our influence, or any other thing essential for the at tainment of an end.

The blasting vollied thunder made all speed, And seconded thy else not dreaded spear.

Mútos.
Impeachments no can best resiat, And axe support the civil list.

Gar.

## SECOND, SECONDARY, INFERIOR.

SECOND and SECONDARY both come from the Latin secundus, changed from sequundus and sequor, to follow, signifying the order of succession: the former sim. ply expresses this order; but the latter
includes the accessory idea of comparative demerit: a person stands second in a list, or a letter is second which immediately succeeds the first; but a consideration is secandary, or of secondary importance, which is opposed to that which holds the first rank. Secondary and INFERIOR both designate some lower degree of a quality; but secondary is only applied to the importance or value of things; inferior is applied generally to all qualities: a man of business reckons everything as secondary which does not forward the object he has in view; men of inferior abilities are disqualified by nature for high and important stations, although they may be morc fitted for lower staticns than those of greater abilities.
Fond, foolish man : with fear of death surpris'd, Which either should be wish'd for or despis'd; This, if our souls with bodies death destruy,
That, if our souls a second life enjoy. Denham.
Many, instead of endeavoring to form their own opinions, content themselves with the secondary knowledge which a convenient bench in a coffee- house can supply.

Johnson.
Who am alone
From all eternity ; for none I know Second to me, or like.

Mrton.
Hast thon not made me here thy substitute, And these inferior far beneath me set?

Milton.

## secret, hidden, latent, occult, MYSTERIOUS.

What is SECRET (v. Clandestine) is so apart or removed away as to be out of observation; what is HIDDEN ( $v$. To conceal) is so covered over as to be altogether concealed: as, a corner may be secret; a hole under ground is hidden.
Ye boys, who pluck the flow'rs and spoil the spring,
Beware the secret snake that shoots a sting.
Diyden.
The blind laborions mole
In winding mazes works her hidden bole.
DRYDEN.
What is secret is known to some one; what is hidden may be known to no one: it rests in the breast of an individual to keep a thing secret; it depends on the course of things if anything remains hidden: every man has more or less of that which he wishes to keep secret; the talent of many lies hidden for want of opportunity to bring it into exercise, as
many treasures lie hidden in the eartb for want of being discovered and brought to light. A secret may concern only the individual or individuals who hold it, and those from whom it is kept; but that which is hidden may concern all the world: sometimes the success of a transaction depends upon its being kept secret; the stores of knowledge which yet remain hidden may be much greater than thase which have beed laid open. The LATENT, in Latin latens, lying hid, is the secret or concealed, in cases where it ought to be open: a latent motive is that which a person intentionally, though not justifably, keeps to himself; the latent cause for any proceeding is that which is not revealed.

The cruelty of this boy, which he had long practised in so secret a manner that no creature snspected it, was at length discovered. Cowper.
Then deeply think, 0 man! how great thou art, Pay thyself homage with a trembling heart; Enter the sacred temple of thy breast, And gaze and wander there a ravisb'd guest: Gaze on those hidden treasnres thon shalt find, Young.
Men'ry confus'd, and interrupted thonght, Death's harbingers, lie latent in the draught.

PBiok.
OCCULT, in Latin occultus, participle of occulo, compounded of oc or ob and culo or colo, to cover over by tilling or ploughing, that is, to cover over with the earth, or by any natural body, and MYSTERIOUS ( $v$. Dark), are species of the hidden: the former respects that which has a veil naturally thrown over it; the latter respecte that mostly which is covered with a supernatural veil: aa occult science is one that is hidden from the view of persons in general, which is attainahle but by few; occuit causes or qualities are those which lie too remote to be discovered by the inquirer: the operations of Providence are said to be mysterious, as they are altogether past our finding out; many points of doctrine iu our religion are equally mysterious, as connected with and dependent upon the attributes of the Deity.

Sone men have an occult power of stealing on the affections.

Johnson.
From his void embrace,
Mysterious heaven I that moment to the ground, A blackened corse, was struck the beauteous maid.

Thomson.

## SECULAR, TEMPORAL, WORLDLY.

SECULAR, in Latin secularis, from setrdum, an age or division of time, significs belonging to time br this life. TEMPORAL, in Latin temporalis, from tempous, time, signifies lasting only for a time. WORLDLY signifies after the manner of the vorld.

Sectilar is opposed to ecclesiastical; temporal and worldly are opposed to spiritual or eternal. The idea of the world or the outward objects and pursuits of the vorld, in distinction from that which is set above the world, is implied in common by all the terms; but secular is an indifferent term, applicable to the allowed pursuits and concerns of men; temporal is used either in an indifferent or a bad sense; and worldly mostly in a bad sense, as contrasted with things of more value. The office of a clergyman is ecclesiastical, but that of a school-master is secular, which is frequently vested in the same hands; the Üpper House of Parliament consists of lords spiritual and temporal; worldly interest has a more powerful sway upon the minds of the greal bulk of mankind than their spiritual interests.

Some baw nothing in what has been done in France hut a firm and temperate exertion of freedom, so consistent with morals and piety, as to make it deserving not only of the secular applause of dashing Machiavelian politicians, but to make It a fit theme for all the devont effusions of sacred eloquence.

Bukke.
The ultimate purpose of government ls temporal, and that of religion is eternal, happiness.

Johnson.
Worlaly things are of such quality as to lessen upon dividing.

Gnove.

## SEDULOUS, DILIGENT, ASSIDUOUS.

The idea of application is expressed by these epithets; but SEDULOUS, from the Latin sedulus and sedeo, signifying sitting close to a thing, is a particular, DILIGENT ( $v$. Active, diligent) is a generial term: one ls sedulous by habit; one is diligent either habitually or occasionally: a sedulous scholar pursues his studies with a regular and close application; a scholar may be diligent at a certain period, though not invariably so. One is sedulous from a conviction of the importance of the thing; one may be diligent by fits and starts, according to the humor of the moment.

One thing I would offer 18, that he would corm stantly and wordulously read Tully, which will in. seneibly work thin into a good Latin style. Locee
I would recommead a diligent attendance on the courts oif juistice (to a student for the bar).

Dennina.
ASSIDUOUS and sedulous both express the quality of sitting or sticking close to a thing, but the former may, like diligent; be employed on a partial occasion; the latter is always permanent: we may be assiduous in our attentions to a person; but we are sedulous in the important concerns of life. Sedulous peculiarly respects the quiet employments of life, but may be applied to any pursuit requiring persevering attention; a teacher may be entitled sedulous: diligent respects the active employments; one is diligent at work: assiduxity holds a middle rank; it may be employed equally for that which requires active exertion, or otherwise: we may be assiduous in the pursuits of literature, or we may be assiduons in onr attendance upon a person, or the performance of any office.

Metbinks her sons before me patient stand, Where the broad ocean leana against the land, And, $88 d u l o u s$ to stop the coming tide, Lift the tall rampire's artifcial pride. Goldsitta.
We flatter ourselves that we shall cultivate with great diligence the arts of peace.

Jomenon.
Man cannot retain througb life that respect and assiduity (toward a woman) by which he pleases for a day or a month.

Johnbon.

## TO SEE, PERCEIVE, OBSERVE.

SEE, in the German sehen, Greek $\theta$ eao$\mu a t$, Hebrew sacah or soah, is a general term; it may be either a voluntary or involuntary action: PERCEIVE, from the Latin percipio or per and capio, to take into the mind, is always a voluntary action; and OBSERVE ( $v$. To notice) is an intentional action. The eye sees when the mind is absent; the mind and the eye or other senses perceive in conjunction: hence, we may say that a person sees, but does not perceive: we observe not merely by a simple act of the mind, but by its posltive and fixed exertion. We see a thing without knowing what it is; we perceive a thing, and know what it is, but the impression passes away; we ob. serve a thing, and afterward retrace the image of it in our mind. We see a stat
vnen the eye is directed toward it; we perceive it move if we look at it attentively; we observe its position in different parts of the heavens. The blind cannot see, the absent cannot perceive, the dull cannot observe. Seeing, as a corporeal action, is the act only of the eye; perceiving and observing are actions in which all the senses are concerned. We see colors, we perceive the state of the atmosphere, and observe its changes.

There plant eyes, all mist from thence Purge and disperse, that 1 may oes and tell Of things invisible to mortal sight. Mllton
Sated at length, ere long I might perceive Strange alteration in me.

Militon.
1 doubt not but the same discrimination in the cast of countenaoces would be discoverable in hares (as in sheep) ; a circumatance little auspected by those who have not had opportunity to observe it.

Cowpen.
Seeing sometimes extends further in its application to the mind's operations, in which it has an indefinite sense; but perceive and observe have both a definite sense: we may see a thing distinctly and clearly, or otherwise; we perceive it always with a certain degree of distinctness; and observe it with a positive degree of minuteness: we see the truth of a remark; wh perceive the force of an objection; we observe the reluctance of a person. It is further to be observed, however, that, when see expresses a mental operation, it expresses what is purely mental; perceive and observe are applied to such objects as are seen by the senses as well as the mind. We see the light with our eyes, or we see the truth of a proposition with our mind's eye; but we perceive the difference of climate, or we perceive the difference in the comfort of our situation; we observe the motions of the heavenly bodies.

## Who is so gross <br> As cannot see this palpable device,

Yet who so bold hut says he aees it not,
Whma euch ill dealings must be seen in thought?
Suarspeare.

## I perceive these lords

At this encounter do so much admire, That they devour their reason, and scarce think Tbeir eyes do offices of truth. Shakspeare.
Every part of your last letter glowed with that warmth of friendship which, though it was by no means new to me, 1 could not but obeerve with peculiar satisfaction.

Melmoth'a Letters of Ciceao.

TO SEEK, SEARCH.
To SEEK and SEARCH (v. To exam ine) are but variations from the same word, and are both employed in the sense of looking after something that is not in sight: seek applies to that which is near at hand and easily found; search, to that which is remote, hidden, or not to be found without difficulty: to search, therefore, is properly to seek laboriously; we seek a person by simply going to the place where he is supposed to be; search is made from place to place when it is not known where he is: a school-boy seeks birds'-nests; the botanist searches for plants.

I have a venturous fancy, that shall $8 e e k$
The squirrel's hoard, and fetch thee theoce new nuts. Shakapeare.
Errors, like straws, upon the surface flow;
He who would $\theta$ earch for pearls must dive below. Dryden.

These terms may also be applied to moral objects with the same distinction: as to seek peace, knowledge; to search the thoughts, to search into mysteries.

> Sweet peace, where dost thon dwell?
> 1 humbly crave,
> Let me once know.
> I oought thee in a secret cave,
> And ask'd if peace were there. Herbert.

Vain, very vain, my weary search to find
That bliss which only centres in the mind.
Goldsmite.

## TO SEEM, APPEAR.

The idea of coming to the view is expressed by both these terms; but the word seem rises upon that of appear. SEEM, from the Latin similis, like, signifies literally to appear like, and is therefore a species of appearance; APPEAR, from the Latin appareo or pareo, and the Greek $\pi a \rho \varepsilon \mu \mu$, to be present, signifies to be present, or before the eye. Every object may appear; but nothing seems, except that which the mind admits to appear in any given form. To seem requires some reflection and comparison of objects in the mind one with another ; it is, therefore, peculiarly applicable to matters that may be different from what they appear, or of an indeterminate kind; that the sun seems to move is a conclusion which we draw from the exercise of our senses, and comparing this case with others of a similar nature; it is only by a further research into the operations of nature that
we discover this to be no conclusive proof of its motion. To appear, on the contiary, is the express act of the things themselves on us; it is, therefore, peculiarly applicable to such objects as make an impression on us: to appear is the same sa to prement itself: the stars appear in the firmament, but we do not say that they soem; the sun appears dark through the clouds.

Lsin'd into foam, the fierce conflicting brine Goeme o'er a thousand raging waves to burn. Тномвол.
Oheav'nly poet! Such thy verse appsare, So sweet, so charning to my ravish'd ears.

Dayden.
They are equally applicable to moral as well as natural objects with the abovementioned distinction. Seem is said of that which is dubious, contingent, or future ; appear, of that which is actual, positive, and past. A thing seems strange which we are led to conclude as strange from wbat we see of it: a thing appears clear when we have a clear conception of it: a plan seems practicable or impracticable; an author appears to understand his subject or the contrary. It seems as if all efforts to reform the bulk of mankind will be found inefficient; it appears, from the long catalogue of vices which are still very prevalent, that little progress has hitherto been made in the work of reformation.

No man had ever a greater power over himseif, or was less the man he rebmed to be, which shortly after appsared to everybody, when he cared less to keep on the mask. Clarendon.

## SELF-WILL, SELF-CONCEIT, SELFsUFFICIENCY.

SELF-WILL signifies the will in one's self: SELF-CONCEIT, conceit of one's self: SELF-SUFFICIENCY, sufficiency in one's self. As characteristics they come very near to each other, but that depravity of the will which refuses to submit to every control either within or without is born with a person, and is among the earliest indications of character; in some it is less predominant than in others, but, if not early checked, it is that defect in our natures which will always prevail; self-conceit is a vicious habit of the mind which is superinduced on the original character ; it is that
which determines in matters of judg. ment: a self-willed person thinks nothing of right or wrong; whatever the impulse of the moment suggests, is the motive to action : the self-conceited person is alway: much concerned about right and wrong, but it is only that which he conceives to be right and wrong; self.sufficiency is a species of self-conceit applied to action: as a self-conceited person thinks of no opinion but his own; a self-sufficient person refuses the assistance of every one in whatever he is called upon to do.
First appetite enlists him truth's sworn foe, Then obstinate eelf-will confirms him so.

Confes.
Nothing so hanghty and assuming as ignorance, where eelf-conceit hids it set up for infallihle.

Sovte.
There, safe in self-sufficient impudence,
Withont experience, honesty, or sense,
Unknowing in her interest, trade, or laws,
He vainly undertakes his country's canse.
Jenyns.

## SENIOR, FLDER, OLDER.

These are all comparatives expressive of the same quality, and differ, therefore, less in sense than in application. SENIOR is employed not only in regard to the extent of age, but also to duration either in office or any given situation: ELDER is employed only in regard to age: an officer in the army is a senior by virtue of having served longer than another; a boy is a senior in a school either by virtue of his age, his standing in the school, or his situation in the class; when, therefore, age alone is to be expressed, elder is more suitable than sen. ior; the elder children or the elder branches of a family are clearly understood to include those who have priority of age.
How can you admit your aeniore to the examination or calling of them, not only being inferior in office and calling, but in gifts also?

Whitgifn
They bring the comparison of younger daugh. ters conforming themselves in tbeir attire to their elder sisters.

Hoorez.
Senior and elder are both employed as substantives, OLDER only as an adjective: hence we speak of the seniors in a school, or the elders in an assembly; but an older inhabitant, an older family. Elder has only a partial use; older is employed in general cases: in speaking of children in the same family we may say,
the elder son is heir to the estate; he is older than his brother by tea years.

The Spartans to their highest magisitrate The Dame of elder did appropriate. Deniam.

Since oft
Man must compute that age he cannot feet, He scarce believes he's older for his years.

Young.

## SENSE, JUDGMENT.

SENSE (v. Feeling) signifies in general the faculty of feeling corporeally or perceiving mentally; in the latter case it is syuonymons with JUDGMENT, which is a special operation of the mind. The sense is that primitive portion of the understanding wbich renders an account of things; and the judgment that portion of the reason which selects or rejects from this acconut. The sense is, so to speak, the reporter which collects the details, and exposes the facts; the judyment is the judge that passes sentence upon them. According to the strict import of the terms, the judgment depends upon the sense, and varies with it in degree. He who has no sense has no judgment; and he who loses sense loses judgment: since sense supplies the knowledge of tbings, and judgment proaounces upon them, it is evident that there must be sense before there can be judgment.
Then is the soul a nature, which contains The power of sense within a greater power.

Davies.
His apprehension was keèn and ready; his judgment deep and sound; his reasen clear and comprehensive; his method and elocution elegaht and easy. Life of Loid Ellegmere.

On the other hand, sense may be so distinguished from judgment, that there may be sense without judgment, and judgment withont sense: sense is the faculty of perceiving in general; it is applied to abstract science as well as general knowledge : judgment is the faculty of determining, that is, of determining mostly in matters of practice. By sense the mind perceives by an immediate act, by the judgment it arrives at conclusions by a process. It is the lot of many, therefore, to bave sense in matters of theory, who have no judgment in matters of practice; while others, on the contrary, who have nothing above common sense will have a soundness of judgment that is not to be surpassed. Nay, further, it is possible
for a man to have good sense, and yet not a solid judgment: as they are both natural faculties, mea are gifted with them as variously as with every other faculty. By good sense a man is enabled to discern, as it were, intnitively, that which requires another of less sense to pouder over and study; by a solid judgment a man is enabled to avoid those errors in conduct which one of a weak judgment is al wayts falling into. There is, however, this distinction betweea sense and judgment, that the deficiencies of the former may be supplied by diligence and attention; but a defect in the latter is not so easily to be supplied by efforts of one's own. A man may improve his sense in proportion as he has the means of information; but the judgment once matured rarely makes any advances toward improvement afterward.
There's something previous ev'n to taste: 'tls serse,
Good sense, which only ls the gift of heav'B,
And, though no science, fairly worth the sevell; A light within yourself you minst perceive, Jones and Le Notre have it not to give. Pope,

In all instances where our experience of the past has been extersive and uniform, our jud ${ }^{2}$ ment concerming the future amounts to certainty,

Beattie.
The words sense and judgment are fre: quently employed without any epithets to denote a positively large share of these facnlties.

The fox, in deeper cuinning vers'd,
The beanties of her mind rehears'd, And talk'd of knowledge, taste, and sense, To which the fair have vast pretence. MODRE:

To speak without flattery, few have like use of learning, or like judgment in learning, as I have observed in yollr lordship:

Bacon.
As epithets, sensible and judicious both denote the possession of these faculties in a high degree, but in their application they are distinguished as above. A writer or a speaker is said to be sensible; a friend, or an adviser, to be judicious. Sense displays itself in the conversation or the commnolcation of one's ideas; judgment in the propriety of one's actions. A sensible man may be an entertaining companion, but a judicious man in any post of command is an inestimable treasure. Sensible remarks are always calculated to please and interest sensible people; judicious measures have
a sterling value in themaelves that is appreciated according to the importance of the object. Hence it ls obvious that to be sensible is a deairable thing, but to be judicious is an indiapensable requisite in those who have to act a part.

I havs been tired with accounts from sensibls mon furaished with matters of fact which have happened within their own $\mathrm{knowledge}$.

Addisan.
Your observations are so judioious, I wish you had not been se sparing of them.

Sia W. Joner.

## BENBIBLE, BENSITIVE, SENTIENT.

Als these epithets, which are derived from the same source ( $v$, To feel), have obviously a great samedess of meaning, though not of application, SENSIBLE and SENSITIVE both denote the capacity of being moved to feeling: SENTIENT implics the very act of feeling. Senssible expresses either a habit of the body and mind, or only a particular state referring to some particular object: a person may be sensible of things in general, or sensible of cold, sensible of injuries, sensible of the kindnesses which he bas received from an individual. Sensitive signifies alwaye an babitual or permanent quality; it is the characteristic of objects: a sensitive creature implies one whose sense is by distinction quickly to be acted upon; a sensitive plant is a peculiar species of plants, marked for the property of having sense or being sensible of the toucb.

And, with affection wondrous sensible, He wrung Bpssanio's hand, and so they parted.

Shatrapase.
Those creatures live more alone whose food, and thergfore prey, is upon other senatitive creatres.

Темрие.
Sensible and sensitive have always a reference to external objects; but sentient expresses simply the possession of feeling or the power of feeling, and exeludes the idea of the causc. Hence, the terms sensible and sensitive are applied only to persons or corporeal objects: but sentient, which conveys the most abstract meaning, is applicable to men and spirits; sentient beings, taken absolutely, may include angels as well as men; it is restricted in its meaning by the context only.

If elrcumspection and cantion are a part of wisdom, when we work orly upon insuimate matter, surely they become a part of duty too, when the subject of our demolition and construction is not brick and mortar, but sentient beings, by the sudden alteration of whose condition and habits multitudes may be rendered miserable. BusEg.

## SENSIBLE, PERCEPTIBLE.

These epitheta are here applied not to the persons capable of being impressed, but to the objects capable of lmpressing: in this case SENSIBLE ( $v, T a$ fed) applies to that which acts on the sensea merely; PERCEPTIBLE ( $v$. To see), to that which acts on the senses in conjunction with the mind. All corporeal objects are naturally termed sensible, inas. much as they are sensible to the eye, the ear, the nose, the touch, and the taste; particular things are perceptible, inasmuoh as they are to be perceived or recognized by the miad. Sometimes sensible signifies discernible by majns of the senses, as when we speak of a sensible difference in the atmosphere, aod in this casc it comes nearer to the meaning of perceptible; but the latter always refers more to the opcration of the mind than the former: the difference hetween colors is said to be scarcely perceptible when they approach very near to each other; so likewise the growth of a body is said not to be perceptible when it cannot be marked from one time to another by the difference of state.
I have suffered a sensible less, if that word is strong eneugh to express the misfortune which has deprived me of so excellent a man.

Melmoth's Letters of Ciceao.
What must have been the state into which the Assembly has brought your affairs, that the rer lief afforded by so vast a supply has been hardly yerceptible !

Burke.

## SENSUALIST, VOLUPTUARY, EPICURE.

The SENSUALIST lives for the lndulgence of his senses: the VOLUPTUARY (from voluptas, pleasure) is devoted to his pleasures, and, as far as these pleasures are the pleasures of sense, the voluptuary is a sensualist: the EPICURE, from Epi curus, is oDe who makes the pleasures of sense his god, and in this senae be is a sensualist and a voluptuary. In the ap. plication of these terms, however, the sen. sualist is one who is a slave to the groseest appetites; the voluptuary is one who studies hia pleasures so as to make them
the most valuable to himself; the epicure is a species of voluptuary who practises more than ordinary refinement in the choice of his pleasures.

Let the senoualist satisfy himself as he is able; he will find that there is a certain living spark withln which all the drink he can pour in will never be able to quench.

South.
To fill up the drawing of this personage, be conceived a voluptuary, who in his person should be bloated and blown up to the size of a Silenus; lazy, luxurious, in sensucality a satyr, iu intemperance a bacchanalian. Cumberland.

What epicure can be always plying his palate?

Socte.

## sentence proposition, period, purase.

SENTENCE, in Latin sententia, is but a variation of sentiment (v. Opinion). PROPOSITION, v. Proposal. PERIOD, in Latin periodus, Greek $\pi \varepsilon \rho \iota o \delta o s$, from $\pi \varepsilon \rho c$, about, and odog, way, signifies the circuit or round of words which renders the sense complete. PHRASE, from the Greek $\varphi \rho a \zeta \omega$, to speak, signifies the words uttered.

The sentence consists of any words which convey sentiment: the proposition consists of the thing set bcfore the mind, that is, either our own minds or the minds of others; hence the term sentence has more special regard to the form of words, and the proposition to the matter contained : they are both used technically or otherwise: the former in grammar and rbetoric; the latter in logic. The sentence is simple and complex ; the proposition is universal or particular. Period and phrase, like sentence, are forms of words, but they are solely so, whereas the sentence depends on the conncction of ideas by which it is formed: we speak of sentences either as to their structure or tbeir sentiment; bence the sentence is either grammatical or moral : but the period regards only the structure; it is either well or ill turned: the term phrase denotes the character of the words; hence it is either vulgar or polite, idiomatic or general : the sentence must consist of at least two words to make sense; the phrase may be a single word or otherwise.

[^110]fate, and yet that something is in our own powv er, cannot extricate himself.

HAMMOND.
Disastrous words can best disaster show,
In angry phrase the angry passions glow.
ELPAINETONE.

## TO SENTENCE, DOOM, CONDEMN.

To SENTENCE, or pass sentence, is to give a final opinion or decision which is to influence the fate of an object. CONDEMN, from damnum, a loss, is to pass such a sentence as shall be to the hurt of an object. DOOM, in Saxon dom, a judgment, comes from deman, to judge or decm.

When these terms are taken in the juridical sense, to sentence is indefinite as to the quantum of punishment, it may be great or small; a criminal may be sentenced to a mild or severe punishment: to condemn and doom are always employed to denote a severe punishment, and the latter still severer than the former. A person is condemned to the galleys, to transportation for life, or to death; he is doomed to eternal misery.
At the end of the tenth book, the poet joins this heautiful circumstance, that they offered up their penitential prayers on the very place where their jndge appeared to them when he pronounced their sentence.

Addison.
It so happened, by one of the jndges withdrawing upon a sudden fit of the stone, the court was divided, one half for the condemning him, and the other half that he was not guilty.

Clarendon.
To sentence is always the act of some conscious agent; but to condemn and doom may be the effect of circumstances, or brought about by the nature of things. A person is always sentenced by some one to suffer in consequence of his conduct; he is condemned or doomed, either by his misfortune or his fault, to suffer whatever circumstances impose upon him; immoral writers are justly condenned to oblivion or infamy; or persons may be condemned by their hard lot to struggle through life for a bare living; and some are doomed by a still harder lot to penury and wretchedness.
Llberty (Thomson's " Liberty ") called in vain upon her votaries to read her praises; her praises were condemned to harbor spiders and gather dust.

Johnson.
Even the ahridger, compiler, and translator, though their labers cannot be ranked with those of the dinrnal biographer, yet must not be rashly doomed to annihilation.

Johnson

To sentence is to pass sentence in the judicial sense only ; but the noun sentence is taken in the sense of a judgment, and has likewise a moral as well as a judicial application, in which latter cese it admits of a further comparison with condemn or condemnation. The sentence is a formal and the condemnation an informal judgment: the sentence may be favorable or anfavorable ; the condemnation is alwsys anfavorable: critics pronounce their sensence on the merits or demerits of a work; the public may condemn a measure in any manner by which they make their sentiments known. To doom, which signifies only to determine the fate of a person, is not allied to the other terms in their moral application.

Let him aet out some of Luther's works, that hy them we may pass aentence apon his doctrines.

ATTERBURY.
This practice being Intended only to honor Christ, the Sun of Righteousness, who hath risen upon ns to eulighten ns with that doctrine of salvation, to which we then declare our adherence, it ought not to be condemned as superatition.

SECEER.

## BENTENTIOUS, SENTIMENTAL.

SENTENTIOUS signifies having or abounding in sentences or judgments; SENTIMENTAL, having sentiment ( $v$. Opinion). Books snd suthors are termed sententious; but travellers, society, intercourse, correspondence, and the like, are characterized as sentimental. Moralists, whose works and conversation abound in moral sentences, like Dr. Johnson's, are termed sententious; novelists and romance writers, like Mrs. Radeliffe, are properly sentimental. Sententious books always serve for improvement; sentimental works, unless they are of a superior order, are in general hurtful.

His (Mr. Ferguson's) love of Monteaquieu and Tacitus has led him into a manner of writing too short-winded and sentontious.

Gray.
In books, whether moral or amusing, there are mo passages more captivating than those delicate strokes of aentimental morality which refer our sotions to the determination of feeling.

MaC\& 2 nzere,
GENTIMENT, SENBATION, PERCEPTION.
SENTIMENT and SENSATION are obviously derived from the same source ( $v$. To feel). PERCEPTION, from permive ( $v$. To see), expresses the act of per-
ceiving, or the impressions produced by perceiving.

The impressions which objects maks upon the person are designated by all these terms; but the sentiment has its seat in the heart, the sensation is confined to the senses, and the perception rests in the understanding. Sentiments are lively, sensations are grateful, perceptions are clesr. Gratitude is a sentiment the most pleasiug to the human mind; the sensa. tion produced by the action of electricity on the frame is generally unplessant; a nice perception of objects is one of the first requisites for perfection in any art.
I am framing every possible pretence to live hereafter according to my own taste and asntiments. Melmotr's Letteaf of Cicebo.

Diversity of constitution or other circumstances vary the sensations, and to them Java pepper is cold.

Glanvil.
Matter hath no life nor perception, and is not conscious of its own existence. Bentley.

The sentiment extends to mannere, and renders us alive to the happiness or misery of others as well as our own; it is that by which men are most nearly allied to each other: the sensation is purely physical, and the effect of external objects upon either the body or the mind: perceptions carry us into the district of science; they give us an interest in all the surrounding objects as intellectual observers. A man of spirit or courage receives marks of honor, or affronts, with very different sentiments from the poltroon: he who bounds his happinese by the present fleeting existence must be cereful to remove every painful sensation: we judge of objects as complex or sim. ple according to the number of perceptions which they produce in us.
Alike to council or the assembly came, With equal souls and sentiments the same.

Porn.
When we describe our qensations of another's sorrows in condolence, the customs of the world scarcely admit of rigid veracity. Josnaon.
When first the trembling eye recelves the day, External forms on young perception play.

LANOGORHE
TO SEPARATE, SEVER, DISJOIN, DETACH.
To SEPARATE ( $v$. To abstract) is ths general term: whatever is united or joined in any way may be separated, be the

Junotion natural or artificial; but to SEVER, which is but a variation of separate, is a mode of separating natural bodles, or bodles natutally joined: we may separate $\ln$ part or entirely; we sever entirely: we separate with or without violence; we sever with tiolence only: we may separate papers which have been pasted together, or fruits which have grown together; but the head is severed from the body, or a branch from the trunk
Can a body be inflammable from which it would puzzle a chemist to separata an inflammable ingredient?

Botce.
To mention only that apacies of shell-fish that grow to the surface of several rocks, and immediately dis npon their being aevered from tha place where they grow.

Addison.
To separate may be said of thliggs whioh are only remotely connected; DISJOIN, signifying to destroy a junction, is said of that which is intimately connected so as to be joined: we separate as conFenlance requires; we may separale in a rlght or a wrong manner; we mostly dis. join things which ought to remain joined: we separate syllables in order to dis. tingulsh them; but they are sometimes disjoined in writitg by an accidental erasa nre. To DETACH, signifying to destroy a contact, has an intermediate sense between separale and disjoin, applylng to bodies which are neither so loosely connected as the former, nor so closely as the latter: we separate things that directly meet in no point; we digjoin those which may meet in many points; we detach those things which meet in one polint only.
Our Savioar did not reparate from the Jewish Church, thongh the Seribes and Pharisees, who ruled in ecclesinstical matters at that tims, had pervertad the law.

BENNET.
In times and regions, so disjoined from each other that there can scarcely ba imagined any communication of sentiments, has prevalled a general and uniform expectatioh of propitiating God by corporeal ansterities.

Johnson.
The several parts of it are detached one from the other, atid yet join again one cannot tell how.

Pope.
Separate, sever, and detach may be applied to mental as well as corporeal objects; persons may be separated from edch other by diversity of interests or ppinions; they may be severed frotin each
other whon thelr affections are estranged toward each other; they may be detachod from each other by ciroumstances after having been attached by any tie.

They (the French Republicana) never have abandoned, and never will abandon, their old steady maxim of separating the people from their government.

BURRE.
Better I were distract,
So should my thonghts be severod from my grtets.

Shakspeard
As for the detached rhapsodies which Lycurgus in more aarly times brought with him ont of Asia, they mat hava been exceadingly imperfect.

Cumberland.

## 8EQUEL, CLOSE.

SEQUEL is a species of CLOSE; lt ls that which follows by way of termination; but the close is simply that whioh closes, or puts an end to anything. There cannot be a sequel without a close, but there may be a close without a sequel. A atory may have either a sequel or a close; When the end is detached from the beginning so as to follow, it is a sequel; if the beginning and end are uninterrupted, it is simply a close. When a work is publishea in distinct parts, those which follow at the end may be termed the sequel: if it appears all at once, the concluding pages are the close.

Oh let mas say no more;
Gather the sequel by what went liefore.
Shagapeahe
A tale shoula be jtudicions, clear, sulecinct,
The language plain, and incidents woll link'd; Tell oot as new what everybody knows, And, new or old, still hasten to a cloae.

Cowpek.

## SERIES, COURSE.

A SERIES, in Latin series, from sero, to bind or connect, is applied to things which are connected with each other, simply in order of time or number. COURSE, in Latin cursus, from curro, to run, sigmfying the line formed or the direction taken in running, appliés to things which are so connected together as to form, as it were, a line; a series of events are such as follow in order of time; a series of tumbers of any work are such as follow in numerical order; a course of events ate such as tend to the same end; a course of lectures, such as are delivered on the same subject.

You may believe me I shall never forget from whom this long series of applications took its rise,

BEATfis

If it be asked what is the improper expectation which it is dangerous to indulge, experience will nnswer, that it is an expectation that requires the common courss of things to be changed.

Johngon.

## SERVANT, DOMEISTIC, MENIAL, DRUDGE.

IN the term SERVANT' is included the ldea of the service performed: in the term LOMESTIC, from domus, a house, is included the idea of one belonging to the house or family: in the word MENI. AL, from manus, the hand, is included the idea of labor; and the term DRUDGE, that of drudgery. We hire a servant at a certain rate, and for a particular service; we are attached to our domestics according to theip assiduity and attention to our wighes; we employ as a menial one who is unfit for a higher employment ; and a drudge in any labor, however hard and disagreeable.

A servant dwells remote from all knowledge of his lord's purposes.

Sovtr.
Montezuma was attended by his own domestics, and served with his usual state.

## Robentson.

Some were his (King Charlcs's), own menial servants, and ate bread at his table hefore they lifted up their heel against him.

South.
He who will be vastly rich must resolve to be a dradage all his days. Sọutir.

## SERVITUDE, SLAVERY, BONDAGL.

SERVITUDE expresses less than SLAVERY, and this less than BONDAGE.

Servitude, from sprvio, conveys simply the idea of performing a service without specifying the principle upon which it is performed, Among the Romans, servics signified a slave, because all who served wepe literally slaves, the power over the person being almost, uulimited. The maild influence of Ghristianity has corrected men's notions with regard to their rights as well as their duties, and estabhshed servitude on the just principle of I matual compact, without any infraction on that most precious of all human gifts, personal liberty. Slavexy, which marks a condition incompatible with the existence of this invaluable endowment, is a term odious to the Christian ear: it had its origin in the grossest state of society ; the word being derived from the German vlave, or Silavonians, a fierce and intrepid
people who made a long stand against the Germans, and, being at last defeated, were made staves. Slavery, therefore, in cludes not only servitude, but also the odi.ous circumstance of the entire subjection of one individual to another. Bondage, from to bind, denotes the state of being bound, that is, slavery in its most aggravated form, in which, to the loss of person al liberty is added cruel treatment; the term is seldom applied in its proper sense to any persons but the Israelites in Egypt. In a figurative sense, we speak of being a slave to our passions, and under the bondage of sin, in which cases the terms preserve precisely the same distinction.

## It is fit and necesssary that some persons in the world should be in love with a spleodid servitude. South.

So different are the geniuses which are formed under Turkish slavery and Grecisn liberty.

ADDISON.
Our cage
We make a choir, as doth the prison'd bird, And sing our bondage freely. Shakspeare.

The same distinction exists between the epithets servile and slavish, which are employed only in the moral application. He who is servile has the mean character of a servant, but he is still a free agent; bat he who is slauish is bound and fet tered in every possible form.
That servile path thou nobly dost decline, Of tracing word by word, and line by line. Those are the labor'd birtlis of slavish brains, Not the effect of poetry, but paios

Denhay.

## SHADE, SHADOW.

SHADE and SHADOW, in German schatten, are in all probability conneeted with the word shine, show ( $v$. To show, etc.). Both these terms express that darkness which is occasioned by the sun's rays being intercepted by any body; but shade simply expresses the absence of the light, and shadow signifies also the figure of the body which thus intercepts the light. Trees naturally produce a shade, hy means of their branches and leaves: and wherever the image of the tree is reflected on the earth that forms its shadow. It is agreeable in the heat of summer to sit in the shade; the constancy with which the shadow follows the man has been proverbially adopted as a simile for one wha clings olose to another.

Welcome, ye ohades ? ye bowery thlekets, hall Tномson.
At every step,
Solemn and slow, the shadows blacker fall, And all is awful listening gloom around. Tномson.
In the moral application they are more widely distinguished in their signification. As a shadè implies darkness, so to be in the shade is the same as to be in obscurity; as the shadow is but a reflection or appearance, so, in the moral sense, the shadow of a thing is that which is opposed to the substance.
The pious prince then seeks the shade Which hides irom sight the pious maid.

Daynen.
As a man he has hardly left him the shadozo of a good quality.

Cowpea.

## TO SHAKE, TREMBLE, SHUDDER, QUIVER, qUAKE.

SHAKE, SHUDDER (in the German schïtteln, schütten), QUIVER, and QUAKE, in the Latin quatio, cutio, and the Italian scussere, are all derived from one common original; TREMBLE comes from the Latin tremo.

To shake is a generic term, the rest are but modes of shaking: to tremble is to shake from an inward cause, or what appears to be so: in this manner a person trembles from fear, from cold, or weakness; and a leaf which is imperceptibly agitated by the air is also said to tremble: to shudder is to tremble violently: to quiver and to quake are both to trem. ble quickly; but the former denotes rather a vibratory motion, as the point of a spear when thrown against wood; the latter a quick motion of the whole body, as in the case of bodies that have not sufficient consistency in themselves to remain still.

Under his burning wheels
The steadfast empyrean shook throughout, All hut the throne itself of God. Milton.
The trembling pilot, from his rudder torn, Was headlong hurl'd.

Dayden.
He said, and hurl'd against the mountain aide
His quivering spear.
Driden.
Thereto as cold and dreary as a snake,
That seem'd to tremble evermore and quake.
Spanser.
TO SHAKE, AGITATE, TOSS.
SHAKE, v. To shake. AGITATE, in Catin agito, is a frequentative of ago,
to drive, that is, to drive different ways TOSS is probably contracted from torsi perfect of torqueo, to whirl.
a motion more or less violent is sig. nified by all these terms, which differ both in the manner and the cause of the motion, Shake is indefinite, it may dif. fer in degree as to the violence; to agitate and toss rise in sense upon the word shake: a breeze shakes a leaf, a storm agitates the sea, and the waves toss a vessel to and fro: large and small bodies may be shalken; large bodies are agitated: a handkerchief may be shaken; the earth is agitated by an earthquake. What is shaken and agitated is not removed from its place; but what is tossed is thrown from place to place. A house may frequently be shaken, while the foundation remains good; the waters are most agi. tated while they remain within their bounds; but a ball is tossed from band to hand.

An nnwholesome blast of air, a cold, or a aurfeit, may shake in pieces a man's hardy fabric. Soutr.
I found the magnetical needle greatly agitated near the summit of the monntain. Brydons.
Toss'd all the day in rapid circles round, Breathless I fell.

POPE
To shake and toss are the acts eithe, of persons or things; to agitate is the act of things when taken in the active sense. A person shakes the hand of another, or the motion of a carriage shakes persons in general, and agitates those who are weak in frame: a child tosses his food about; or the violent motion of a vessel tosses everything about which is in it. To shake arises from external or internal causes; we may be shaken by others, or shake ourselves from cold : to agitate and toss arise always from some external action, direct or indirect; the body may be agitated by violent concussion from without, or from the action of perturbed feelings; the body may be tossed by various circumstances, and the mind may be toss$e d$ to and fro by the violent action of the passions. Hence the propriety of using the terms in the moral application. The resolution is shaken, as the tree is by the wind ; the mind is agitated like troubled waters; a person is tossed to and fro in the ocean of life, as the vessel is tossed by the waves.

## Not my firm faith Can by his hand be shaken or seduc'd.

Milton.
We all mnst have observed that a speaker agitated with passion, or an actor who is indeed strictiy an imitator, are perpetually changing the tone snd pitch of their voice, as the sense of their words varies.

Sim W. Jones.
Your mind is tossing on the ses,
There where your argosies
Do overpeer the petty traffickers. Saazspeaze.

## sharp, ACUTE, KEEN.

The general property expressed by these epithets is that of sharpness, or an ability to cut. The term SHARP, in German, etc., scharf, from seheren, to cut, is generic and indefinite; the two others are modes of sharpness differing in the circumstance or the degree: the ACUTE (v. Acute) is not only more than sharp in the common sense, but signifies also sharp-pointed: a knife may be sharp; but a needle is properly acute. Things are sharp that have either a long or a pointed edge; but the KEEN (v. Acute) is applicable only to the lorg edge; and that in the highest degree of sharpuess: a common knife may be sharp; but a razor or a lancet are properly said to be keen. These terms preserve the same distinction in their figurative use. Every pain is sharp which may resemble that which is produced by cutting; it is acute when it rosembles that produced by piercing deep: words are said to he tharp which have any power in them to wound; they are keen when they cut deep and wide.
Be sure yoa avold as much as yon can to inquire after those that have been sharp in their judgments towsid me. Earl of Strafford.

Wisdom's eye
Acute for what? To spy more miseries. Youno. To this grest end kssn instinct stings him on. Youno.

TO SHINE, GLITTER, GLARE, SPARKLE, RadLATE.
SHINE, in Saxon schinean, German cheinen, is in all probability connected with the words show, see, etc. GLITTER and GLARE are variations from the German gleissen, glänzen, etc., which have a similar meaning. To SPARKLE signifies to produce sparks; and spark is in Saxon spearce, low German and Dutch spark. To RADIATE is to produce rays, from the Latin radius, a ray.

The emlssion of light is the common idea conveyed by these terms. To shina expresses simply this general idea: glii. ter and the other verhs include some collateral idea in their signification. To shine is a steady emission of light; to glitter is an unsteady emission of light, occasioned by the reflection on transparent or bright bodies: the sun and moon shine whenever they make their appearance; but a set of diamonds glitter hy the irregular reflection of the light on them; or the brazen spire of a steeple glitters when the sun in the morning shines upon it. This is the same in the improper as the proper application.
Yet something shines more glorious in his word, His mercy this.

Walles.
The happiness of success glittering before him withdrsws his attention from the strociousness of the guilt.

JOHNSON.
Shine snecifies no degree of light; it may be barely sufficient to render itself visible, or it may be a very strong degree of light: glave, on the contrary, denotes the highest possible degree of light: the sun frequently glares when it shines only at intervals; and the eye also glares.
This glorious morning star was not the transitory light of a comet, which shines and glares for awhile, and then presently vanishes into nothing.

SODTH.
Agsinst the capitol I met a lion,
Who glar'd upon me, and went suriy hy Without annoying me.

Shakepeare.
To shine is to emit light in a full strearn; but to sparkle is to emit it in small portions; and to radiate is to emit it in long lines. The fire sparkles in the hurning of wood; or the light of the sun sparkles when it strikes on knobs or small points ; or the eye sparkles: the sun radiates when it seems to emit its light in rays.

His eyes so sparkled with a lively flame.
DAYDEK.
Now had the sun withdrawn his radiant light.
Deydek

## SHOCK, CONCUSSION.

SHOCK denotes a violent shake or agitation: CONCUSSION, a shaking together. The shock is often instantaneous, hut does not necessarily extend beyond the act of the moment; the concussion is permanent in its consequences, it teads to derange the system. Hence the different application of the terms: the shock mas

## SHORT

affect either the bedy or the mind; the concussion affects properly only the body, or corporeal objects: a violent and sudden blow produces a shock at the moment it is given; but it does not always produce a concussion: the violence of a fall will, however, sometimes produce a concussion in the brain, which in future affects the intellect.

He stood the shock of a whole host of foes. Andigon.
How can that concussion of atoms be capable of begetting those internal and vital affections, that self-cousciousness, and those other powers and energies that we feel in onr minds, seeing they only strike upon the ontward surfaces? They cannot inwardly pervade one another; they cannot have any penetration of dimensions and conjunction of substance.

Bentley.
As shock conveys no idea of separation, only of impression, it is equally applicable to the mind and the body. Sudden news of an exceedingly painful nature will often produce a shock on the mind; hut time mostly serves to wear away the effcet which has been produced.

> It is inconceptible how any sach man, that hath stood the shock of an eternal daration withont corruption or alteration, sbould after be corrnpted or altered.

## TO SHOOT, DART.

To SHOOT and DART, in the proper sense, are clearly distinguished from each other, as expressing different modes of sending bodies to a distance from a given point. From the circumstances of the actions arise their different application to other objects in the improper sense; as that which proceeds by shooting goes forth from a body unexpectedly, and with great rapidity; so, in the figurative sense, a plant shoots up that comes so unexpectedly as not to be seen; a star is said to shoot in the sky, which seems to move in 3 shooting manner from one place to another.
Tell, how like a tall old oak, how learning shoots To heaven her branches, and to hell her roots.

Denham.
From a similarity in the form of rays, lightning, etc., to darts, they are figuradively said to be darted.
Till safe at distance to his god he prays,
The god who darts around the world his rays.

## SHORT, BRIEF, CONCISE, SUCCINCT, SUMMARY.

SHORT, in French court, German kurg Latin curtus, Greek кupros, is the generic, the rest are specific terms: everything which admits of dimensions may be short, as opposed to the long, that is, either naturally or artificially; the rest are species of artificial shortness, or that which is the work of art: hence it is that material, as well as spiritual, objects may be termed short: but the BRIEF, in Latin brevis, in Greek $\beta$ paxus, CONCISE, in Latin concisus, signifying cut inte a small body, SUCCINCT, in Latin succinctus, participle of succingo, to tuck up, signifying brought within a small compass, and SUMMARY (v. Abridgment) are intellectual or spiritual only. We may term a stick, a letter, or a discourse, short; but we speak of brevity only in regard to the mode of speech; conciseness and succinctness as to the matter of speech; summary as to the mode either of speaking or acting: the brief is opposed to the prolix; the concise and succinct to the diffuce; the summary to the circumstantial or ceremonious. It is a matter of comparatively little importance whether a man's life ho long or short; but it deeply concerns him that every moment be well apent: brevity of expression ought to be consulted hy speakers, even more than by writs ers; conciseness is of peculiar advantage in the formation of rules for yoיng persons; and succinctness is a requisite in every writer who has extensive materials to digest ; a summary mode of proceeding may have the advantage of saving time, but it has the disadvantage of incorrectness, and often of injustice.
The widest excursions of the mind are made
by short fights frequently repeated.
Jonnson.
Premeditation of thought and brevity of expression are the great ingredients of that reverence that is required to a pious and acceptable prayer.

South.
Aristotle has a dry conciseness, that makes one imagine one is perusing a table of contents.

Gaix.
Let all your precepts be succinct and clear,
That ready wits may comprebend them soon.
Roscomion
Nor spend their time to show their reading, She'd have a summary proceeding. SwF

TO SHOW, OR EHEW, POINT OUT, MARK, INDIOATE.
SHOW, in German sohauen, etc., Greek Ocaomat, from the Hebrew shoah, to look upon, is here the general term, and the others specific: the common jdea included In the signification of them all is that of making a thing visible to another. To Whow is an indefinite term ; one shows by simply setting a thing before the eyes of anuther: to POINT OUT, to fix a point spon a thing, is specific; it is to show some particular point by a direct and immediate application to it : we show a person a book when we put it lnto his hands; but we point out the beautles of lts contents by making a point upon them, or accompanying the aotion with some particular movement, which shall dlrect the attention of the observer in a specific manner. Many things, therefore, may be shown which cannot be painted out: a person shows himseif, but he does not point himself out; towns, houses, gardens, and the like, are shown; but single things of any description are pointed out.

If I de feign,
Oh let me in my present wildness dte, And never live te shono the incredolons werld The neble change that I have purposed.

Shakapeare.
I shail do justice to those who have distinguiahed themselves in learniog, and point out their beautiea.

ADDIson.
To show and point out are direct personal acts ; to MARK (v. Mark, impression), i,e., to put a mark on, is an indirect means of makking a tbing visible or observable: a tradesman marks the prices of the articles which he sets forth in his shop.

[^111]Show and mark denote the acts of conscious or unconscious agents; point out, that of conscious agents only: INDICATE ( $v$. Mark, sign), that of unconscious agents oniy: in this case, what shows, serves as an evidence or proof; what marks, serves to direct or guide; what indicates, serves 2 an index to point out. That shows the
fallacy of forming schemes for the fut. ure; it marks the progress of time; it indicates decay.
The glowworm shows the matin to be near, And 'gins to pale hls ineffectual fire.

SKAKgryagt
Weakness of coansels, fluctnation of opinion, and deflelency of splrit, marked hia administration during an inglerious period of sixteen years.

Coxs.
Above the steeple ahines a plate, That turna and turne, to indioate
From what point blows the weather, Cowper,
In an extended moral application they preserve the same distinction; to shond is to prove in a general way that a thing ls or will be ; to indicate is to show or point out in a particular manner that a thing is.
That streugthens our argument. Exceptio probat regutam. Some belng found, ahows that if all remained many weuld be found.

JOHNEON,
Amidst this wreck of human nature, tracel still remain which indieate ita quther. BLaIR.

## TO SHOW, EXIIIBIT, DISPLAY.

To SHOW (v. To show) is here, as before, the generic term ; to EXHIBIT ( $v$. To give) and DISPLAY, in French deployer, in all probability changed from the Latin plico, signifying to unfold or set forth to view, are specific: they may all designate the acts either of persons or things; the first, however, does this cither in the proper or the improper sense; the latter two rather in the improper sense. To show is an indefinite action applied to every object: things are shown for purposes of convenience; as one shows a book to a friend: exhibit is applied to matters that are extraordinary or unnsual ; things are exhibited to attract notice; as to exhibit flowers or animals: we show to one or many; we exhibit or display in as publio a manner, and to as great numbers, as possible; as to show the marks to the by-standers; to exhibit a figure upon a pole; to display one's finery.
Signor Recmpero, who obligingly engages to be our cicerone, has shown us some curieus remains of antiquity.
brtdone.
If any claim redreas of injustice, thay ahould Bxhibit their petition in the street.

Shakspeare.
They are all couched in a pit with their lights put out, which at the very time of our meetiog they will at ence digphay to the night.

Shakspzarz

They admit of the same distinction when applied to moral objects: we may show courage, dislike, or any other affection; exhibit skill, prowess, etc., in the field of battle ; display heroism, and whatever may shine forth.

The courage he had ohovoed in oppoaing ship-
money raised his reputation to a great height.
Clafendon.
He has no power of assuming that dignity or slegance, which some who have little of either in common life can earhibit on the atage.

JORNaON.
Which interwoven Britons aeem to raise, And show the triumph that their shame displays.

Deyden.
When said of things, they differ principally in the manner or degree of clearness with which the thing appears to present itself to view : to show is, as before, altogether indefinite, and implies simply to bring to view; exhibit implies to bring inherent properties to light, that is, apparently by a process; to display is to set forth so as to strike the eye : the windows on a frosty morning will show the state of the weather; experiments with the air-pump exhibit the many wonderful and interesting properties of air; the beauties of the creation are peculiarly displayed in the spring season.
Then let us fall, but fall amid our foes, Despair of life the means of living ahowa.

Driden.
The world has ever been a great theatre, exhibiting the same repeated scena of the follies of men.

Blair.
Thou Heav'n's alternate beauty canst diaplay, The blnsh of morning and the Milky Way.

Dayden.
SHOW, EXHIBITION, REPRESENTATION, SIGHT, SPECTACLE.
SHOW signifies the thing shown (v. To show $)$ : EXHIBITION signifies the thing exhihited ( $v$. To show); REPRESENTATION, the thing represented; SLGHT, the thing to be seen; and SPECTACLE, from the Latin specto, stands for the thing to be beheld.

Show is here, as in the former article, the most general term. Everything set forth to view is shown; and, if set forth for the amusement of others, it is a show. This is the common idea included in the terins exhibition and representation: but thow is a term of vulgar meaning and ap-
plication; the others have a higher uat and signification. The show consists of that which merely pleases the eye; it is not a matter either of taste or art. but merely of curiosity: an exhibition, wit the contrary, presents some effort of talent or some work of genius; and a represen tation sets forth the image or imitation of something by the power of art: hence we speak of a show of wild beasts; an exhibition of paintings; and a theatrical representation. The conjuror makes a show of his tricks at a fair to the wonder of the gazing multitude; the artist makes an exhibition of his works; representations of men and manners are given on the stage.
Charm'd with the wonders of the show,
On $8 v^{\prime}$ ry aide, above, below,
She now of this or that inquires,
What least was understood admires. Gar.
Copley's picture of Lord Chatham's death is an exhibition of itself. Beattie.

There are many virtues which in their own natnre are incapable of any outward representation.

Addigon.
Shows, exhibitions, and representations are presented by some one to the view of others; sights and spectacles present themselves to view. Sight, like show, is a vulgar term; and spectacle the nobler term. Whatever is to be seen to excite notice is a sight, in which general sense it would comprehend every show, hut in its particular sense it includes only that which casually offers itself to view: a spectacle, on the contrary, is that species of sight which has something in it to interest either the heart or the head of the observer: processions, reviews, sports, and the like, are sights; but battles, bullfights, or public games of any description, are spectacles, which interest, but shock the feelings.
Their varions arms afford a pleasing aight.
DETDES
The weary Britons, whose warrable youth
Was by Maximilian lately ledd away,
Were to those pagans made an open pray,
And daily spectucle of sad decay.
SPENSER

## SHOW, OUTSIDE, APPEARANCE, SEMBLANCE.

Where there is SHOW ( $v$. To show) there must be OUTSIDE and APPEAR. ANCE; but there may be the last with. out the former The term show alwaye
denotes an aetion, and refers to some person or thing as agent; but the outside may be merely the pasaive quality of some thing. We speak, therefore, of a thing as mere show, to signify that what is shown is all that existg; and in this aense it may be termed mere outside, as consiating only of what is on the outside. In describing a house, however, we speak of ita outside, and not of its show; as also of the outside of a book, and not of the show. Appearance denotes an action as well as show; but the former is the aet of an unconscious agent, the latter of one that is conscious and voluntary: the appearance presents itself to the view; the show is purposely presented to view. A person makes a show so as to be seen by others; hia appearance is that which showe itself in him. To look only to show, or to be concerned for show only, signifies to be concerned for that only which will attract notice; to look only to the outside signifies to be concerned only for that which may be seen in a thing, to the disregard of that which ia not aeen : to look only to appearances signifies the aame as the former, except that outside is said in the proper sense of that which literally atrikes the eye; but appearances extend to a man's conduct, and whatever may affect his reputation.
You'll find the friendship of the world la show,
Mere ontward show.
The greater part of men behold nothing more than the rotation of hnman affairs. This is only the outside of things.

Blaib.
Every accusation against peraons of rank was heard with pleasure (by James I. of Scotland). Every appearance of gnilt was examined with rigor.

Robebtyon.
SEMBLANCE or seeming ( $v$. To seem) alwaye conveys the idea of an unreal appearance, or at least is contrasted with that whieh is real; he who only wears the semblance of friendsbip would be ill deserving the confidence of a friend.
Bnt man, the wildest beast of prey, Wears iriendship'a semblance to betray.

Moore.
SHOW, PARADE, OSTENTATION.
These terme are aynonymous when they imply abstraet actions: SHOW is here, as in the preceding article, taken in the vulpar sense; OSTENTATION and

PARADE include the idea of something partieular. Show consists aimply in letting that be seen which a person mighy if he pleased keep out of view ; parade is a studious effort to ahow, it is that which serves to attract notice: in this manner a person may make a show of his equipage or furniture, who gets it out to be geen; he makes a parade of his wealth if he sets it forth with any artifice or formality so as to make it more striking. Ostentation is, like parade, a atudied show, but it refers rather to the intention of the person than to the method by which the show is made. Show and parade may, therefore, according to the circumstances, serve the purpose of os. tentation. A person makes a show of his liberality, or a parade of his gifta, and thus he gratifiee his ostentation.
'Tis not alone my inky cloak, good mother, Nor cnatomary suits of solemn black, Nor the dejected 'havior of the visake, Togethe- with all forms, modes, 8 owos of grief, That can uenute me truly sad. Shakbpeare.
Be rich, bnt of your wealth make no parade.
Swift.
His charity to those in want, and bounty to learned men, was extraordinary, but without ootentation.

Bubnet.
When taken in reference to things, the show is oppoged to the reality; it is that which shows itself: the parade and on tertation is that which is ceremonious and artificial: the former in respect to what strikes the eye, and the latter in rospect to what strikes the mind.

Great in themselves,
They smile auperior of external showo.
Somervicle,
It was not in the mere paruds of royalty that the Mexican potentates exhibited their power.

Robertson.
We are dazzled with the aplendor of titles, the ostentation of learning, and the noise of victories.

SPECTATOR

## SHOWY, GAUDY, GAY.

SHOWY, having or being full of show ( $v$. Show, outside), is mostly an epithet of dispraise ; that which is showy has aeldom anything to deserve notice beyond that which eatches the eye: GAUDY, from the Latin gaudeo, to rejoice, signifies literally full of joy; and is applied figuratively to the exterior of objects, but with the annexed bad idea of being atrik

Ing to an excess: GAY, on the contrary, which is only a contraction of gaudy, is used in the same sense as an epithet of praise. Some things may be showy, and in their nature properly so; thus the tail of a peacook is showy: artificial objects may likawise be showy, but they will not be preferred by persons of taste: that which is gaudy is always artificial, and is always chosen by the vain, the vulgar, and the ignorant; a mald-servant will bedizen herself with gaudy-colored ribbons. That which is gay is either nature itself, or dature imitated in the best manner: spring is a gay season, and flowers are its gayest accompaniments.
Men of warin imaginations neglect solid and substantial happiness for what is showy and euperficial.

Adpison.
The gaudy, babbling, and remorsaful day
Is crapt into the bosom of the sea. Searspeare. Jocuid day
Upon tha mountain-tops site gayly dress'd.
Shatipeare.
SICK, SICKLY, DISEASED, MORBID.
SICK denotes a partial state, SICKLY a permanent state, of the body, a proneness to be sick: he who is sick may be made well; but he who is sickly is seldom really well: all persons are liable to be sick, though few have the misfortune to be sickly: a person may be sick from the effect of cold, violent exercise, and the like; but he is sickly only from constitution.
For aught I see, they are as sick that surfeit $h$ too much, as they that starve with nothing. Shakapeare.

## both Homer and Virgil were of a very delicate ad aickly constitution. <br> Walsin.

Bickly expresses a permanent state of indisposition unless otherwise qualified; but DISEASED expresses a violent state of derangement without specifying its duration; it may be for a time only, or for a permanency: the person, or his constitution, is sickly; the person, or his frame, or particular parts, as his lungs, his inside, his brain, and the like, may be diseased.
Would we know what health and ease are worth, let us ask one that is aickly and in pain. and we have the price.

Grew.
They should choose such places as were operi to the favorable aspecta and influence of the beavepu; where there was a well-tempered soil,
clear air, pure springs of water, that diseasid persons coming from unhealthy places might obtain recovery.

Sick, sidkly, and diseased may all bs used in a motal application; MORBID is used in to other, except in a technical sense. Sick denotes a partial state, as before, namely, a state of disgust, and is always asseciated with the object of the sickness; we are sick of turbulent enjoy ments, and seek for tranquillity: sickl3 and morbid are applied to the habitual state of the feelings or character; a sickly sentimentality, a morbid sensibility: diseased is applied in general to individuals or communities, to persons or to things ; a person's mind is in a diseased state when it is under the influence of corrupt passions or principles; society is in a diseased state when it is overgrown with wealth and luxury.

He was not so aick of his master as of his work. L'Estranok.
There affectatioh, with a sickly fthlen,
Shows th her cheek the roses of eightean. Paph.
For a mind $d l_{s 8 a s e d}$ with vain longings after unattainable advantages, no medictne can be pra. scribed. Jounaon.
While the distempere of a relaxad flbre prog. nosticate all the morbid force of convalsion in the body of the state, the ateadiness of the physician is overpowered by the very aspect of the diserse.

Bures.

## GICKNEAE, ILLLNEAE, INDISPOBITION.

SICKNESS denotes the state of being sick ( $v$. Sick): ILLNESS that of being ill ( $v$. Eivil) : INDISPOSITION that of beitig not well disposed. Siakness denotes the state generally or particularly ; illness denotes it particularly: we speak of sickness as opposed to good health; in sickness or in health; but of the illness of a particular person: when sickness is sald of the individual, it designates a protracted state: a person may be said to have much sickriess in his family. Illness de netes only a particular or partial sichness. a person is said to have had an illness at this or that time, in this or that place, for this or that period. Indisposition is a slight illness, such a one as is capable of deranging him either ln his enjoytuents or in his business; colds ars the ordunary causes of indisposition.
Sickness is a aort of earthly old age : tt teach.


This is the first letter that I have ventured apon which will he written, I fear, vacillantibus literis; as Tully says, Tyro's letters were after his recovery from an itlness. Atteasury.
lt is not, as you cenceive, an indisposition of body, hut the mind's disease.

Fosd.

## SIGN, SIGNAL.

SIGN and SIGNAL are both derived from the same source ( $v, M a r k$, sign), and the latter is but a species of the former. The sign enables us to recognize an object; it is, therefore, sometimes natural: signal serves to give warning; it is always arbltrary. The movements which are visible in the countenance are commonly the signs of what passes in the heart; the beat of the drum is the signal for soldiers to repair to their post. We converse with those who are present by signs; we make ourselves understood by those who are at a distance by means of vignals.
The ned that patifles the will divine, The faithful, fix'd, irrevocable \&ignt, This seals thy sult.

Pope.
Then first the trembling earth the aignal gave, And flashing fres enlighten all the cave.

Daynen.

## SIGNAL, MEMORABLE.

SIGNAL aignifies serving as a aign, MEMORABLE signifies worthy to be remembered. They both express the idea of extraordinary, or being distinguished from every other thing: whatever is signal deserves to be atamped on the mind, and to aerve as a sign of some property or characteristic; whatever is memorable impresses upon the memory, and refuses to be forgotten: the former applies to the moral character; the latter to events and times: the Seriptures furnish us with many signal instances of God's vengeance against impenitent siuners, as also of his favor toward those who obey his will ; the Reformation is a memorable event in the annals of ecclesiastical history.
We find, in the Acts of the Apostles, not only no opposition to Christianity from the Pbarisees, but several signal eccasions in which they assisted its frst teachers.

Worren.
That such deliverances are actually afforded, those three memorable examples of Abimelech, Esan, and Balaam sufficiently demonstrate.

South.

## TO SIGNALIZE, DISTINGUISF.

To SIGNALIZE, or make one's self a sign of anything, is a much stronger term
than simply to DISTINGUISH; it is in the power of many to do the latter, but few only have the power of effecting tha former: the English have always signal. ized themselves for their unconquerable valor in battle; there is no nation that has not distinguished itself, at some pe. riod or another, in war.
The kuight of La Mancha gravely recounts to his companion the adventures by which he is to signalize himself.

Johnson.
The valued fle
Distinguishes the swift, the slow, the subtle.
Shagspeare.

## SIGNIFICANT, EXPRESSIVE.

The SIGNIFICANT is that which serves as a sign; the EXPRESSIVE is that which speaks out or declares; the latter is therefore a stronger term than the former: a look is significant when it is made to express an idea that passes in the mind; but it is expressive when it is made to express a fecling of the whole mind or heart: looks are but occasionally significant, but the countenance may be habitually expressive. Significant is applied in an indifferent sense, accordiog to the nature of the thing signified; but expressive is always applied to that which is good: a significant look may convey a very bad idea; but an expressive counte. nance always expresses good feeling.
I could not help giving my friend the merehant a sigrificant look upon this occasion.

Cumberland.
Through her expressive eyes her soul distinctly spoke.

Littleton.
The distinction between these words is the same when applied to things as to persons: a word is significant of whatever it is made to signify, but a word is expressive according to the force with which it conveys an idea. The term significant, in this case, simply explains the nature; but the epithet expressive characterizes it as something good: teohnical terms are significant only of the precise ideas which belong to the art; most languages have some terms which are peculiarly expressive, and consequently adapted for poetry.
Common life is full of this kind of significant expressions, by knocking, beckoning, frownhag, and pointing.

Holder.
The English, madam, particularly what we call the plain English, is a very copious and eapressive language.

Richardson

SIGNIFICATION, MEANING, IMPORT, SENSE.
The SIGNIFTCATION (v. To express) is that which is signified to another; the MEANING is that which the person meaus to express: this latter word, therefore, is properly used in connection with the person meaning.
A lie consists in this, that it is a false signifisation knowingly and voluntarily used. Soutn.
When beyond her expectation I hit upon her meaning, I can perceive a sudden clond of disappointment spread over her face. Johnson.
The signification of a word is that which it is made to signify, and the meaning is that which it is meant to express: in this sense, therefore, we may indifferently say the proper, improper, metaphorical, general, etc., signification or meaning of words; but, in reference to individuals, meaning is more proper than signification, as to convey a meaning, to attach a meaning to a word, and not to cunvey or attach a signification.

> It was very frequent to dedicate their encmy's armor and hang it in their temples, but the Lacedæmonians were forbidden this custom, which perhaps mas he the meaning of Cleomenes's reply.

On the other hand, it is more appropriate to say a literal signification than a literal meaning.
The use of the word minister is brought down to the literal signification of it, a servant; for now to serve and to minister, servile and ministerial, are terms equivalent.

Sodth.
There is also this further distinction between signify and mean, that the latter is applied in its proper sense to things as well as words.

## What meane this shouting? Sharspeare.

IMPORT, from im or in and porto, to carry, signifying that which is carried or conveyed to the understanding, is most allied to signification, inasmuch as it is applied to single words. The signification may include the whole or any part of what is understood by a word; the import is the whole that is comprehended under a word. The signification of words may be lcarned by definition, but their full import can be collected only from examples.

[^112]SENSE ( $v$. Feeling), signifying that which is perceived by the senses, is most nearly allied to the word meaning, inas much as they both refer to the mind of the individual; but the sense being that which is rational and consistent with sense, is that which is taken or admitted abstractedly.

Satan, in tempting our Lord, separated the word "stone" from its metaphorical meaning, to change the sbnse of the promise and promote his own malicious intentions.

Jones.
It is no hard matter for witty men to put perverse aenses on Scripture to favor their heretical doctrines.

Sherloca.

## TO SIGNIFY, IMPLY.

SIGNIFY, v. To express. IMPLY, from the Latin implico, to fuld in, signifies to fold or involve an idea in any object.

These terms may be employed either as respects actions or words. In the first case signify is the act of the person mak. ing known by means of a sign, as we signify our approbation by a look; imply marks the value or force of the action; our assent is implied in our silence. When applied to words or marks, signify denotes the positive and established act of the thing; imply is its relative act: a word signifies whatever it is made literally to stand for; it implies that which it stands for figuratively or morally. The term house signifies that which is constructed for a dwelling; the term residence implies something superior to a house. A cross, thus, + , signifies addition in arithmetic or algebra; a loug stroke, thus $\quad$, with a break in the text of a work, implies that the whole sentence is not completed. It frequently bappens that words which signify nothing particular in themselves may be made to imply a great deal by the tone, the manner, and the connection.

[^113]
## TO SIGNIFY, AVAIL.

SIGNIFY ( $v$. To signify) is here employed with regard to events of life, and their relative importance. AVAIL (v. To avai') is never used otherwise. That
which a thing signifies is what it contains; if it signifies nothing, it contains nothing, and is worth nothing; if it signifies much, it contains much, or is worth much. That which avails produces; if It avails nothing, it produces nothing, is of no use; if it avails much, it produces or is worth much. We consider the end no to its signification, and the mesns as to their avail. Although it is of little or no signification to a man what becomes of his remains, yet no one can be reconciled to the ides of lesving them to be exposed to contempt; words are but too often of little avail to curb the unruly wills of children.

As for wondera, what slyndieth telling as of them?

Cumberland.
What avail a parcel of statutes agaiust gaming, when they who make them conspire together for the infraction of them? Cumbzaland.

## bilence, TacITURNITY.

The Latins have the two verbs sileo and taceo: the former oi which is interpreted by some to signify to cease to speak; and the latter not to begin to speak; others msintain the direct contrary. According to the present use of the words, SILENCE expresses less than TACITURNITY: the silent man soldom speaks, the taciturn man will not speak st sll. The Latins designated the most profound silence by the epithet of taciturna silentia.

Taciturnity is alwsys of some durstion, arising either from necessity or from a particular frame of mind.

Pythagoras enjoined his scholars an absolute silances for a long novitiate. I am far from approving such a taciturnity; hut I highly approve the end and intent of Pythagoras's injuncIion.

Earl of Chateam.
1 have talked more already than I have formerly done in three visits. You remember my taciturnity, never to be forgotten by those who knew me.

Cowper.
Silence always supposes something occasional that is adopted to suit the convenience of the party.
silencs is the perfectest herald of joy:
I were but little heppy, if I could say how much.
Shaksfeare.

## SILENT, TACIT.

SILENT ( $v$. Silence) chsracterizes either the person or the thing: a person
is silent as opposed to one that talks; plsce is silent ss opposed to one that is noisy. TACIT (v. Silence) characterizes only the sct of the peraon; a person gives a tacit consent, or there was a tacil agreement between the parties.
The people beheld the violence of their conduct in silent fright, internally disapproving, yet not daring to avow their detestation. Gowdmita

In elective governmenta there is a tacit covegant tbat the king of their own making ahal! make ols makers princes.

L'Eatrange.

## SILENT, DUMB, MUTE, SPEEC:ILKSS.

- Nor speaking is the common idea included in the signification of these terma, which differ either in the cauae or the circumstance: SILENT ( $v$. Silence) is altogether an indefinite and general term, ex. pressing little more than the common idea. We may be srlent bccauae we will not apeak, or we may be silent because we cannot speak; but in distinction from the other terms it is alwaya employed in the former case. DUMB, from the German dumm, stupid or idiotic, denotes a physicsl incapacity to speak: hence persons are ssid to be born dumb; they may likewise be dumb from temporary physical causea, as from grief, shame, and the like, a person may be struck dumb. MUTE, in Latin mutus, Greek $\mu v \tau \tau 0 g$, from $\mu \nu \omega$, to sbut, significs a shut mouth, a temporary disability to spesk from arbitrary and incideatal causes: hence the office of mutes, or of persons who engage not to speak for a certain time; and, in like manner, persons are said to be mute who dare not give utterance to their thoughts.
But silent, breathing rage, resolv'd and skill'd By mutrail aid to fix a doubtful fleld, Swift march the Greeks.

Pope.
The truth of it is, half the great talkers in the nation would be struck $d u m b$ were this fountain of discourse (party lies) dried up. Addigon. Long muts he stood, and, leaning on his steff, His wonder witness'd with an idiot langh.

## deydek.

SPEECHLESS, or void of speech, denotes a physical incapacity to speak from incidental causes; as when a person falla down speechless in an apoplectic fit, or in consequence of a violent contusion.

[^114]Thumsont

The terms silent, mute, and dumb are also applied to things as well as persons, the former two in the sense of not send. ing forth a sound; as the silent grove, a muse tongue, or a mute letter: dumb, in the sense of being without words; as dumb show.

And Just before the confmes of the wood, The gliding Lethe leads her silent flood.

Dayden.
Tis listening fear and dumb amazement all.
Thombon.
Wute was his tongue, and upright stood his hair.
Dayden.
SIMILE, SIMILITUDE, COMPARISON.
SIMILE and SIMILITUDE are both drawn from the Latin similis, like: the former signifying the thing that is like, the latter either the thing that is like, or the quality of boing like: in the former sense only it is to be compared with sim. ile, when employed as a figure of speech or thought; everything is a simile which associates objects together on account of any real or supposed likeness between them; but a similitude signifies a prolonged or continued simile. The latter may be expressed in a few words, as when we say the godlike Achilles; but the former enters into minute circum. stances of COMPARISON, as when Ho. mer compares any of his heroes fighting and defending themselves against multitudes to lions who are attacked by dogs and men. Every simile is more or less a comparison, but every comparison is not a simile: the latter compares things only as far as they are alike, but the former extends to those things which are different: in this manner, there may be a comparison between large things and small, although there can be no good simile.
There are also several noble similes and allusioos in the first book of Paradise Lost.

Addison.
Such as have a natural bent to solitude (to earry on the former aimilitude) are like waters which may be forced into fountains. Pope.
Your image of worshipping once a year in a certain place, In imitation of the Jews, is but a comparison and simile non est idem.

Johnson.
SIMPLE, SINGLR, SINGULAR.
SIMPI E, in Latin simplex or sine pliect, without a fold, is opposed to the complex,
which has many folds, of to the com pound, which has several parts involved or connected with each other. SINGLE and SINGULAR ( $y$. One) are opposed, one to double, and the other to multifa. rious. We may speak of a simple circumstance as independent of anything; of a single instance or circumstance as unaccompanied by any other; and a sin. gular instance as one that rarely has ite like. In the moral application to the person, simplicity, as far as it is opposed to duplicity in the heart, can never be excessive: but when it lies in the head, so that it cannot penetrate the folds and doublings of other persons, it is a fault. Singleness of heart and intention is that species of simplicity which is altogether to be admired: singularity may be either good or bad according to circumstances; to be singular in virtue is to be truly good; bnt to be singular in manner is affectation, whieh is at variance with geduine simplicity, if not directly opposed to it.

Nothing extraneous must cleave to the eye in the act of secing; its bare object must be as naked as truth, as simpte and unmixed as sin. cerity. Soutig.
Mankind with other animals compare,
Single, bow weak and impotent they are :
Jenyms
From the union of the crowns to the Revolu. tion in 1688, Scotland was placed io a political situation the most singular and most unappy,

Roaeatson.

## SIMPLE, SILLY, FOOLISH.

The SIMPLE (v. Simple), when applied to the understanding, implies such a con. tracted power as is incapable of combination; SILLY, whioh is but a vaviation of simple, and FOOLISH, i.e., like a fool, rise in sense upon the former, signifying either the perversion or the total deficiency of understanding; the behavior of a person may be silly who from any ex cess of feeling loses his sense of propriety; the conduct of a person will be fool is $h$ who has not judgment to direct him. self. Country people may be simple owing to their want of knowledge; children will be silly in company if they have tod much liberty given to them; there are some persous who never acquire wisdom enough to prevent them from committing fooliah errors.

## And bad the simple natives

Observ'd his suga advice, Their wealth and tame some yeara ago Had reach'd ahove the akiea.

Swirt. Two goda a ailly woman have nudone. Drynew.
Virgil justly thonght it a foolish figure for a grave man to be overtaken by death, while he was waighing the cadence of words and meazurling verses.

Waish.

## gIMULATION, DISBIMULATION.

SIMULATION, from similis, is the making one's self like whst one is not; and DISSIMULATION, from dissimilis, unlike, is the making one's self appesr unlike what one really is. The hypocrite puts on the semblance of virtue to recommend himself to the virtuous; the dissembler concesls bis vices when he wants to gain the simple or lgnorant to his side.
Simulation ia a pretence of what is not, and
diesimulation ia a concealment of what is.
Tatler.
He wonld naver auffer any man to depart from bim with an opinion that he waa inclined to gratify him, when in truth he waa not hoiding that duarimutation to be the worat sort of lying.

Claremdon.
SINCERE, HONEET, TRUE, PLAIN.
SINCERE ( $v$, Candid) is here the most oomprehensive term: HONEST (v. Honasty), TRUE, and PLAIN ( $\%$, Even) are but modes of sincerity.

Sincerity is a fundamental characterletle of the person; honesty ls but s part of sincerity, it denotes simply the ahsence of intentional or fraudulent conceslment; we look for a sincere friend to tell us everything; we look for an honest compsnion who will spesk without disguise; truth is a characteristic of sincerity, for a sincere friend is $s$ true friend; but sincerity is, properly speaking, only a mode of trutb. Sincere and honest are personsl chsracteristics; true is a chsracterlstic of the thing, ss s sincere man, an honest confession, a true ststement.

[^115]A sincere man must needs be plain, be cause plainness consists in an unvarnished style; and the sincere man will alwaya sdopt that mode of speech which ex. presses bis sentiments most truly; but a person may be ocessionally plain in his speech who is not so from sincerity. The plain, whether it respects the language or the conduct, is that which is divested of everything extraneous or artificial, and so far plainness is an auxiliary to truth, by ensbling the truth to be better seen.

Poatical ornaments destroy that character of truth and plainness which ought to charactertze hiatory.

Reynocide.

## SITUATION, CONDITION, STATE, PRE-

DICAMENT, PLIGHT, CASE.
SITUATION (v. Place) is said generslly of objects as they respeot others; CON. DITION ( $v$. Condition), as they respeot themselves: our situation consists of those external ciroumstances in respsot of property, honor, liberty, and the like, whloh affect our standing in soeicty generally. Whatever affects our person immedlstely is our candition: a person who is unable to pay a sum of money to save himsolf from a prison is in a had situation: a traveller who ls left in a ditch robbed and wounded is In a bad condition.

The man who has a character of his own is littie changed hy varying his situation.

Mas. MONTAOCE,
It is indeed not easy to prescribe a successful manner of approach to tha diatressad or necessitous, whose condition snbjects every kind of behavior equally to miacurriage. Jonnaon.

Situation and condition sre said of that which is contingent and chsingesble, the latter still more so than the former; STATE, from sto, signifying thst position in which one stands, is said of thst which is comparstively stsble or established. A tradesman is in a good situation who is in the way of carrying on a good trade: his sffairs are in a good state if be is enabled to snswer every demand and to keep up his credit. Hence it is that we speak of the state of heslth and the state of the mind, not the situation or condition, because the body and mind are considered ss to their genersl frame, and not as to any relstive or particuler circumstances; so likewise a state of infan. cy, 4 state of guilt, a state of innocencea
and the like; but not either a situation or a condition.

Your situation is an odd one ; the ducheas is your treasurer, and Mr. Pope tells me yon are the duke'a.

SWIFT.
Patience itself is one virtue by which we are prepared for that atate in which evil ahall be no more. Johnson.
When speaking of bodies, there is the same distinction in the terms as in regard to individuals. An army may be either in a situation, a condition, or a state. An army that is on service may be in a critical situation with respect to the enemy and its own comparative weakness; it may be in a deplorable condition if it stand in need of provisions and necessaries: an army that is at home will be in a good or bad state, according to the regulations of the commander-in-chief. Of a prince who is threatened with invasion from foreign enemies, and with a rebellion from his subjects, we should net say that his condition, but his situation, was critical. Of a prince, however, who like Alfred was obliged to fly, and to seek safety in disguise and poverty, we should speak of his hard condition: the state of a prince cannot be spoken of, but the state of his affairs and government may; hence, likewise, state may with most propriety be said of a nation : but situation seldom, unless in respect to other nations, and condition never. On the other hand, when speaking of the poor, we seldom employ the term situation, because they are seldom considered as a body in relation to other bodies: we mostly speak of their condition as better or worse, according as they have more or less of the comforts of life; and of their state as regards their moral habits.

No situation could be more onfavorable than that in which it (the army) found itself.

Gошрммтт.
And oh ! what man's condition can be worse
Than his whom plenty starves, and blessings curse?
The beggars but a common fate deplore, The rich poor man's emphatically poor.

Cowley.
Relate wbat Latium was; Declare the past and present atate of things.

Dryden.
These terms may likewise be applied to inanimate objects; and, upon the same
grounds, a house is in a good situation as respects the surrounding objects; it is in a good or bad condition as respects the painting, and exterior altogether; it is in a bad state as respects the beams, plaster, roof, and interior structure altogether. The hand of a watch is in a different situation every hour; the watch itself may be in a bad condition if the wheels are clogged with dirt; but in a good state if the works are altogether sound and fit for service.
We have been admiring the wonderful strength of this place both by nature and art; it ia certainly the happiest situation that can be imagined.

Baydone.
Six of the houses of her ancestora were in ruins. The church of Skipton, in consequence of the damage it had sustained during tbe siege of the castle, was in little better condition.

Whitaker.
There are many remaids of antiquity in this city, indeed most of them are in a very ruinous stato.

BRYDONE.
Situation and condition are either permanent or temporary. The PREDICAMENT, from the Latin predico, to assert or declare, signifies the committing onc's self by an assertion ; and, when applied to circumstances, it expresses a temporary embarrassed situation occasioned by an act of one's own : hence we always speak of bringing ourselves into a predicament. PLIGHT, contracted from the Latin plicatus, participle of plico, to fold, signifies any circumstance in which one is disagreeably entangled; and CASE (v. Case) signifies anything which may befall us, or into which we fall, mostly, though not necessarily, contrary to our inclination. Those latter two terms, therefore, denote a species of temporary condition, for they hoth express that which happens to the object itself, without reference to any other. A person is in an unpleasant situation who is shut up in a stage-coach with disagreeable company. He is in an a wkward predicament when, in attempting to please one friend, he displeases anoth. er. He may be in a wretched plight if he is overturned in a stage at night, and at a distance from any habitation. He will be in evil case if he is compelled to put up with a spare and poor diet.

Satan beheld their plight, And to his mates thus in derision call'd.

Mrlon

The offender's life lies in the mercy Of the duke only, 'gainat all other voice, In which predicament I aay thou stad'at.

Shakspeare.
Our cass is like that of a traveiler upon the Alpa who should fancy that the top of the next hill must end his journey because it terminatea his prospeet.

Addiaon.
sIZe, MAGNITUDE, GREATNESS, BULK.
GIZE, from the Latin cisus and coedo, $t o$ cut, aignifying that which is cut or framed according to a certain proportion, is a general term including all manner of dimension or meaaurement; MAGNLTUDE, from the Latin magnitudo, answering literally to the English word GREATNESS, is employed in science or in an abstract aense to denote aome apecific meaaurement ; greatness is an unscientific term applied in the same senae to objects in general: size is indefinite, it never characterizes anything either as large or small; but magnitude and greatness alwaye auppose aomething great; and BULK (v. Bulky) denotes a considerable degree of greatness: things which are diminutive in size will often have an extraordinary degree of beauty, or some other adventitioua perfection to compenaate the deficiency; astronomers have classed the stars according to their different magnitudes; greatness has been considered as one source of the sublime; bulk ia that speciea of greatness which destroys the aymmetry, and consequently the beauty, of objects.
Soon grows the pigmy to gigantie size.
Dryden.
Then form'd the moon
Glohose, and every magnitude of stars.
Milton.
Awe is the first sentiment that rises in the mind at the view of God's greatness. Blaia. His hugy bulk on seven high volnmes roll'd.

Dryden.

## SKETCH, OUTLINES.

A SKETCH may form a whole; OUTLINES are hut a part: the sketch may comprehend the outlines, and some of the particulars; outlines, as the term beapeaka, comprehend only the line on the exterior: the sketch, in drawing, may serve as a landacape, as it presents some of the features of a country; but the outlines gerve only as bounding lines, within which the sketch may be formed. So in the mor-
al application, we speak of the sketche of countriea, characters, mannera, and the like, which serve as a description; but of the outlines of a plan, of a work, a proj. ect, and the like, which serve as a basis on which the subordinate parts are to bs formed: barbarous nations present us with rude sketches of nature; an abridgment is little more than the outlines of * larger work.

In few, to close the whole, The moral muse has shadow'd out a sketch Of most our weakness needa believe or do.

Youna
This is the outling of the fable. Jounson.

GKIN, HIDE, PEEL, RIND.
SKIN, which ia in German schin, Swed. ish skinn, Danish skind, probably connected with the Grcek ak $\quad$ vos, a tent or covering, is the term in most general use; it is applicable both to human creatures and to animals: HIDE, in Saxon hyd, German hout, Low German huth, Latin cutis, from the same root as the Greek $\kappa \varepsilon v \theta \varepsilon \iota \nu$, to hide, cover, is used only for the skins of large animals: we speak of the skins of birds or insecta; but of the hides of oxen or horses and other animala, which are to be aeparated from the body and converted into leather. Skin is equally applied to the inanimate and the animate world; but PEEL, in German fell, etc., Latin pellis, a skin, in Greek $\phi \varepsilon \lambda \lambda o s$ or $\phi \lambda 00 \mathrm{~g}$, bark, which is from $\phi \lambda a \omega$, to burst or crack, because bark is easily broken, and RIND, in all probability changed from round, signifying that which goes round and envelops, belong only to inanimate objects: the skin is generally aaid of that which ia interior, in distinction from the exterior, which is the peel: an orange has both its peel and its thin skin underneath; an apple, a pear, and the like, has a peel. The peel is a soft substance on the outside; the rind is generally interior, and of a harder substance: in regard to a stick, we speak of its peel and its inner skin; in regard to a tree, we speak of its bark and its rind: hence, likewise, the term rind is applied to cheese, and other incrusted substances that envelop bodies.

The priest on skins of offerings takes his ease, And nightly visions in his alumbers sees.

Deyderit

The body is covered with a strong hide exactvy resembling leatber.

Pennant.
On twigs of hawthorn he regal'd, On pippina' russet peel.

Cowper.
As when the atock and grafted twig combin'd, Shoot up the same and wear a common rind.

Addigon.

## SLACK, LOOSF,

SLACK, in Saxon slaec, Low German slack, French lache, Latin laxus, and LOOSE, in Saxon laes, both from the Hebrew halatz, to make free or loose, differ more in application than in sense: they are both opposed to that which is close bound; but slack is said only of that which is tied, or that with which anything is tied; while loose is said of any substances, the parts of which do not adhere closely: a rope is slack in opposition to the tight rope, which is stretched to its full extent; and in general cords or strings are said to be slack which fail in the requisite degree of tightness; but they are said to be loose in an indefinite manner, without conveying any collateral idea: thus the string of an instrument is denominated slack rather than loose; on the other band, loose is said of many bodies to which the word slack cannot be applied: a garment is loose, but not slack; the leg of a table is loose, but not slack.
The vein in the arm is that which Aretzus commonly opens; and he gives a particular cautiou in this case to make a slack compression, for fear of producing a convulsion. Absutheot.
War wearied hath perform'd what war can do, And to disorder'd rage let loose the reins.

Milion.
In the moral application, that which admits of additional activity is denominated slack; and that which fails in consistency and elose adherence is loose: trade is slack, or a person's zeal, etc., becomes slack; but an engagement is hose, and principles are loose.
Nor were it Just, would he resume that shape, That slack devotion should his thunder 'scape.

Wallea.
Nor fear that be who sits so loose to life, Should too much shun its labors and its atrife.

Denham.

## TO SLANT, SLOPE.

SLANT is probably a variation of Leaned, and SLOPE of slip, expressive of A sideward movement or direction: they ore the same in sense, but different in upplication; slant is said of small bodies
only; slope is said indifferently of all bodies, large and small: a book may bc made to slant by lying in part on anoth. er book on a desk or a table; but piece of ground is said to slope.

As late the clouds, Justling or push'd with winds, rude in theil shock,
Fire the slant lightning.
Milton. Its uplands sloping deck the mountain's side.

Golbsmitir.
TO SLEEP, SLUMBER, DOZE, DROWSE, NAP.
SLEEP, in Saxon sloepan, low German slap, German schlaf, is supposed to coms from the low German slap or slack, slack, hecause sleep denotes an entire relaxation of the physical frame. SLUMBER, in Saxon slumeran, etc., is but an intensive verb of schlummern, which is a variation from the preceding sloepan, etc. DOZE, in low German dusen, in all probability comes from the same root as the Latin dormio, to sleep. DROWSE is a variation of doze. NAP is in all prohability a variation of nob and nod.

Sleep is the general term, which designates in an indefinite manner that state of the hody to which all animated beings are subject at certain seasons in the course of nature; to slumber is to sleep lightly and softly; to doze is to in. cline to sleep, or to begin sleeping; to nap is to sleep for a time: every one who is not indisposed sleeps during the night; those who are accustomed to wake at a certain hour of the morning commonly slumber only after that time; there are many who, though they cannot sleep in a carriage, will yet be obliged to doze if they travel in the night; in bot climates the middle of the day is commonly chosen for a nap.
From carelessuess it ahall fall into a slumber, and from a shumber it shall settle into a deep and long sleep.

Souti.
There was no sleeping under his roof; if be happened to doze a little, the jolly cobbler waked him.

L'Eatrange.
He drowsed upon his couch. South.
And see ! delighted, down he drops, secure Of sweet refreshment, ease without annoy, A luscious noonday nap.

Shengtofr

## SLEEPY, DROWSY, LETHARGIC.

SLEEPY (v. To sleep) expresses eithe\% a temporary or a permanent state

DROWSY, whlch comea from the low German drusen, and is a variation of doze ( $v$. To slcep), expreasea mostly a temporary atate; LETHARGIC, from lethargy, in Latin lethargia, Greek $\lambda \eta \theta a \rho \gamma ı a$, compounded of $\lambda \eta \theta \eta$, forgetfulness, and a $a$ yos, swift, signifying a proneness to forgetfulness or sleep, describea a permanent or halsitual atate.

Sleepy, as a temporary state, expreasea also what is natural or seasonable; drowsizess expreasca an inclination to sleep at unseasonable hours; it is natural to be sleepy at the hour when we arc accuatomed to retire to rest; it ia common to be drowsy when sitting still after dinner. Sleepiners, aa a permanent atate, is an infirmity to which some persons are aubject constitutionally; lethargy ia a dieease with which people, otherwiae the moat wakeful, may be occasionally attacked.

She wak'd her sleepy erew, And, rising hasty, took a short adien. Dayden. Droway am I, and yet can rarely sleep.

Sidney.
Too long Jove lull'd us in letharote charms, But now in peals of thunder calls to arms.

Dryden.
TO SLIP, SLIDE, GLIDE.
SLIP is in low German slipan, Latin labor, to slip, and libo, to pour, Greek $\lambda_{e i} \beta_{o \mu} a l$, to pour down as water does, and the Hebrew salap, to turn aside. SLIDE is a variation of slip, and GLIDE of slide.

To slip is an involuntary, and alide a voluntary, motion: those wio go on the ice in fear will slip; boys stide on the ice by way of amusement. To slip and slide are lateral movements of the fect; but to glide ia the movement of the whole body, and just that easy motion which ia made by slipping, sliding, fying, or swimming: a peraon glides along the surface of the ice when he slides; a vessel glides along through the water.

[^116]tentional errors; he slides into a course of life who wittingly, and yet without difficulty, falla into the practice and habita which are recommended; be glides through life if he pursuea hia course amoothly and without interruption.
Every one finds that many of the Ideas which he desired to retain have irretrievably slipped away.

Johnson.
Nor could they have ald into those brutish immoralities of life had they duly manured those first practical notions and dictates of right resson.

Sotres.
If one of mean affuls
slay plod it in a week, why may not I
Gilide thither in a day?
Sharspesaz.

## SLOW, DILATORY, TARDY, TEDIOUB.

SLOW is doubtless connected with sloth and slide, whieh kind of motion when walking ia the slowest and the laziest. DILATORY, from the Latin $d e-$ fero, dilatus, to defer, aignifies prone to defer. TARDY, from she Latin tardus, aignifies literally alow. TEDIOUS, from the Latin tedium, wearinese, signifiea causing wearincss.

Slow is a general and unqualified term applicable to the motion of any object, or to the motiona and actiona of persona in particular, and to their dispositiona alao; dilatory relatea to the diaposition only of persons: we are slow in what we are about; we are dilatory in aetting about a thing. Slow is applied to corporeal or mental actiona; a peraon may be slow in walking, or slow in conceiving: tardy is applicable to mental actions; we are tardy in our proceedings or our progress; we are tardy in making up accounts or in concluding a treaty. We may be slow with propriety or not, to our own Inconvenience or that of othera; when we are tedious we are alwaya ao improperly: "To be slow and sure" is a vulgar proverb, but a great truth; by this we do ourselvea good, and inconvenience no one; but he who is tedious is slow to the annoyance of othera: a prolix writer must alwaya be tedious, for he keepa the reader long in auapenae before be comes to the conclusion of a period.

The powers above are slow In punishing, and should not we resemble them? Dryden,
A dilatory temper is unft for a place of trust. ADDIBOX

The swains and tardy neat-herds came, and last
Menalcas, wet with beating winter-mast.
Dayden.
Her sympathizing lover takes his stand
High on th' opponent bank, and ceaseless sings
The tedious time away.
тномвок.

## TO SMEAR, DAUB.

To SMEAR is literally to do over with mear, in Saxon smer, German schmeer, in Greek $\mu \nu \rho o s$, a salve. To DAUB, from $d o$ and $u b, \ddot{u} b e r$, over, signifies literally to do over with anything unseemly, or in an unsightly manner.

To smear in the literal sense is applied to such substances as may be rubbed like grease over a body; if said of grease itself, it may be proper, as coachmen smear the coach-wheels with tar or grease ; but if said of anything else, it is an improper action, and tends to disfigure, as children smear their hands with ink, or smear their clothes with dirt. To smear and daub are both actions which tend to disfigure; but we smear by means of rubbing over; we daub by rubbing, throwing, or any way covering over: thus a child smears the window with his finger, or he daubs the wall with dirt.

Smear'd as she was with black Gorgonian blood, The fury sprang above the Stygian flood.

Deyden.
He's honest, though $d a u b$ ' $d$ with the dust of the mill.

Cuningeiam.
By a figurative application, smear is applied to bad writing, or whatever is soiled or contaminated, and daub to bad painting, or to whatever is executed coarsely or clumsily : indifferent writers who wish to excel are fond of retouching their letters until they make their perfornance a sad smear; bad artists, who are injudicious in the use of their pencil, load their paintings with color, and convert them into daubs.

[^117]Sharspeare.
In truth the age demanded nothing correct, mothing complete; capable of tasting the power af Dryden's numbers, and the majesty of Kneller's heads, it overlooked doggerel and daubinog.

## SMELL, SCENT, ODOR, PERFUME, PRA GRANCE.

SMELL and melt are in all probability connected together, because smells arise from the evaporation of bodies. SCENT, changed from sent, comes from the Latin sentio, to perceive or feel. ODOR, in Latin odor, comes from oleo, in Greck $0 \zeta \omega$, to smell. PERFUME, compounded of per or pro, and fumo or fumus, a smoke or vapor, that is, the vapor that issues forth. FRAGRANCE, in Latin fragrantia, comes from fragro, anciently frago, that is, to perfume or smell like the fraga or strawberry.

Smell and scent are said either of that which receives, or that which gives the smell; the odor, the perfume, and fragrance, of that which communicates the smell. In the first case, smell is said generally of all living things without dis. tinction; scent is said only of such animals as have this peculiar faculty of tracing objects by their smell: some persous have a much quicker smell than others, and some have an acuter smell of particular objects than they have of things in general: dogs are remarkable for their quickness of scent, by which they can trace their masters and other objects at an immense distance; other animals are gifted with this faculty to a surprising degree, which serves them as a means of defence against their enemies.
Next in the nostrils she doth use the smell;
As God the breath of life in them did give, So makes he now his power in them to dwell, To judge all airs, whereby we breathe and live.

Davies
Its (the dog's) scent is exqnisite, when has nose is moist.

Pennant.
In the second case, smell and scent are compared with odor, perfume, and fragrance, either as respects the objects communicating the smell, or the nature of the smell which is communicated. Smell is indefinite in its sense, and universal in its application ; scent, odor, perfume, and fragrance are species of smell: every object is said to smell which acts on the olfactory nerves; flowers, fruits, woods, earth, water, and the like, have a smell;' scent is most commonly applied to the smell which proceeds from animal bodies; the odor is said of that which is artificial or extraneous; the perfume and
fragrance of that which is natural; the buraing of tl:ings produces an odor; the perfunce and fragrance arises from flowers or sweet-8melling herbs, spices, and the like. The terms smell and odor do not specify the exact nature of that which issues from bodies; they may both be either pleasant or unpleasant; but smell, if taken in certain connections, signities a had smell, and odor signifies that which is sweet: meat which is kept too long will have a smell, that is, of course, a bad smell; the odors from a sacrifice are acceptable, that is, the swcet odors ascend to heaven. Perfume is properly a wide-spreading smell, and when taken without any epithet sigoifies a pleasant smell; fragrance never signifies anything but what is good; it is the sweetest and most powerful perfume: the perfume from flowers and shrubs is as grateful to one sense as their colors and conformation are to the other; the fragrance from groves of myrtle and orauge trees surpasses the beauty of their fruits or foliage.

All sweet amells have joined with them some earthy or crade odors.

Bacon.
Then carses his conspiring feet, whose scent Betrays that safety which their swiftness lent.

DENHAM
So flowers are gathered to adorn a grave,
'ro lose their freshness among bones and rottenness,
And have their odore stifled in the dust. Rowe.
At last a soft and solemn breathing sound Rose like a steam of rich distilled perfumes. miltos.
Soft vernal fragrance clothed the flow'ring earth. MASON.

## TO SOAK, DRENCH, STEEP.

SOAK is a variation of suck. DRENCH is a variation of drink. STEEP, in Saxoo steapan, etc., from the Hebrew satep, signifies to overflow or overwhelm.

The idea of communicating or receiving a liquid is common to these terms. A person's clothes are soaked in rain when the water has penetrated every thread; he himself is drenched in the rain when it has penetrated, as it were, his very body ; drench, therefore, in this case only expresses the idea of soak in a stronger manner. To steep is a species of soaking employed as an artificial proc2ss; to soak is, however, a permanent
action by which bard things are rendered soft; to steep is a temporary action by which soft bodies become penetrated with a liquid: thus salt meat requires to be soaked; fruits are steeped in brandy.

Drill'd through the sandy stratam, every way The waters with the sandy stratum rise, And clear and aweeten as they soak along.

## Thomson.

And deck with fruitful trees the fields aronnd, And with refreshing waters drench the gronnd. DRTDEK.
O sleep, 0 gentle sleep,
Nature's soft norse! how have I frighted thee, That thon no more wilt weigh my eyelids down, And steep my senses in forgetfulness?

Shakbpeare.
sober, grave.
SOBER (v. Abstinent) exprcsses the absence of all exhilaration of spirits: GRAVE (v. Grave) expresses a weight in the intellectual operations which makes them proceed slowly. Sobriety is therefore a more natural and ordinary state for the human mind than gravity: it behooves every man to be sober in all situations; but those who fill the most important stations of life must be grave. Even in our pleasurcs we may observe sobriety, which keeps us from every unseemly ebullition of mirth; but on particular occasions, where the importance of the suhject ought to weigh on the mind, it becomes us to be grave. At a feast we have need of sobriety; at a funeral we have need of gravity.

Now came still ev'ning on, and twilight gray Had in her sober liv'ry all things clad. Mintor.
So spake the cherub, and his grave rebuke, Severe in youthful beanty, added grace Invincible.

Milfor.
Sobriety extends to many more objects than gravity; we must be sober in our thoughts and opinions, as well as in our outward conduct and behavior; but we can be grave, properly speaking, only in our looks and our outward deportment.

He had jnst sentiments of the dignity of haman nature in him, and a nniversal charity for it in others; not measoring the wisdom he atndied by the sabtilty and cariosity of specniation, hat by a tober and dae government of his 0 min actions.

LLOTD.
Skill'd in the globe and aphere, he oracely stands,
And with his compass measures seas and lands.
Defidek

## SOCIAL, SOCIABLE.

SOCIAL, from socius, a companion, signifies belonging or allied to a compaoion, having the disposition of a companion; SOCIABLE, from the same, signifies able or fit to be a companion; the former is an active, the latter a passive quality: social people seek others; sociable people are sought for by others. It is possible for a man to be sorial, and not sociable; to be sociable, and not social: he who draws his pleasures from society without communicating his share to the common stock of entertainments is social, but not sociable; men of a taciturn disposition are often in this case; they reccive more than they give: he, on the contrary, who has talents to please company, but not the inclination to go into company, may be sociable, but is seldom social; of this deacription are bumorists who go into company to gratify their pride, and stay away to indulge their liumer.

## Social friends

Attun'd to happy unison of soul.
Thombon.
To make man mild, and suciahle to man, To cultivate the wild licentious savage With wisdom, discipline.

Addison.
Social and rociable are likewise applicable to thiogs, with a similar distinction; social intercourse is that intercourse which men have together for the purposes of society; social pleasures are what they enjoy by associating together: a path or a carringe is denominated sociable which encourages the association of many.

Absolute solitude is not good for us; the rocial sffeetions must be cherished. Beatie.

Sciences are of a sockable disposition, and flourish best in the neighborhood of each other.

Beacestone.

## SOCIETY, COMPANY.

SOCIETY ( 1. Association) and COMPANY ( $v$, Association) here express either the persons associating, the act of sasociating, or the state of being associted. In either case society is a general, and company a particular, term; as respects persons associating, society comprehends either all the associated part of mankind, as when we speak of the Inws of wociety, the well-being of sacicty; or it is said only of a particular number of indivlduals associated, in which latter
case it comes nearest to company, and differs from it only as to the purpose of the association. A society is always formed for some aolid purpose, as the Humane Society; and a company is always brought together for pleasure or protit, as has already been observed. Good sense teaches us the necessity of conforming to the pules of the society to which we belong: good-breeding prescribes to us to render ourselves agreeable to the company of which we form a part.
I am here, at present, quite alone, which comes nearest to the happiness one find in the soviety of those one loves best.

Mas. Montagp.
Kuowledge of men and manners, and conversation of the best company of both sexes, is necessary.

Dryden.
When expressing the abstract action of associating, the term society is even more general and indefinite than beforc; it expresses that which is common to mankind; and company that which is peculiar to individuals. The love of society is inherent in our nature; it is weakened or destroyed only by the vice of our constitution, or the derangement of our system: every ene naturally likes the company of his own friends and connections in preference to that of strangers. Society is a permanent and habitual act ; company is only a partioular act suited to the occasion: it bchooves us to shun the society of those from whom we can learn no good, altheugh we may sometimes be obliged to be in their company. The society of intelligent men is desirable for those who are entering life; the compa$n y$ of facetious men is agreeable in trav. elling.
Unhappy he, who from the first of joys, Society, cut off, is left alone Amid this world of death. Thomson.
Compreny, though it may reprieve a man from his melancholy, cannot secure hin from his consejence.

SOUTR.
SOFT, MILD, GENTLE, MEEK.
SOFT, in Saxon soft, German sanft, comes most probably from the Saxon sib, Gothic sef, Hebrew sabbath, rest. MILD, in Saxon milde, milide, German, etc., milde, is connected with our mell and milk, the
 soothe with soft woids, and $\mu \varepsilon \lambda$, hooey, etc. GENTLE, v. Gentle, MEEK, like
the Latin mitis, may in all prohability come from the Greek $\mu \varepsilon \iota \omega$, to make less, signifying to make one's self small, to be humble.

All these terms denote the absence of an unpleasant action, sometimes also a positively pleasant action, and sometimes a positive readiness to yield to the action of other bodies. Soft is taken in these different senses, as a soft pressure or tread which is not easlly felt or heard, and a soft substance that yields readily to the touch or pressure. Mild and gentle are mostly taken in the sense of not acting with an unpleasant force; as mild cheese, or mild fruits, gentle motion. Meek is taken in the passive sense of not reslsting force to force. The first three terms have a physical and moral application; the latter only a moral appllcation. Soft is applied to such objeots as act pleasantly in point of strength on the ear or the sye; as a soft voioe, a boft light; or pleasantly in point of smoothnees on the feeling; as a soft oushion, a soft skin. Mild and gentle are applled to objeots that aot not unpleasantly on the senses; as mild bear, not too strong slther for the palate or the body; mild alr, that ls, not unpleasantly cold; gentle exeroise, gentle motion, not violent or exosssive in degree: so a gentle stream, and a gentle rain. Theas tarms ars, agreeably to this distinctlon, applied to the sams objects; a soft volee, soft musio, as that Whioh is positively pleasant; a gentle voice is one not loud.

And ever against eating cares, Lap me in aoft Lydlan airs.

Milton.
Close at mine ear one called me forth to walk, With gentle voice.

Milton.
A soft air or climate is positively pleas. ant; a mild air or climate is simply without any undue cold ; a gentle wind is op. posed to one that is boisterous.

- Soft stillness, and the night,

Become the tonches of aweet harmony.
Shakspeare.
Such as were permitted soon went forward to tha milder climates.

Goldsmife.
Ae when the woods by gentle winds are stirr'd.
Dryden.
Soft is sometimes applied to motion in the purely negative sense; as a soft sitep, i.e., one made without great pressure of the foot; a gentle motion is onc that is
made slowly, not quick. It is necessary to tread softly when no noise is to be made; and to move gently when oue is ill.

Pray you tread aofily, that the bllnd mole may not
Hear a foot fall.
Shatspeare.
How inevitably does immoderate lenghter end in a sigh, which is only natnre's recovering itself after a force done to it ; bat the religions pleasure of a well-dieposed mind moves genthy, and therefore constantly.

Souta.
So likewise when these terms are applied to objects that act on the inoral feelings, they adnit of a similar distinction. Words are elther soft, mild, or gentle; soft words are calculated to soften or diminish the angry feeling of others. The proverb says, "A sofi auswer turneth uway wrath." A reproof is mild, inasmuch as it does not wound the feelings; a oensure, or admonition, or a reproach, is gentle, inasmuch as it is frea from asperity. So likewiss punishmenta are mild that infliot little pain; means of coerolon are gentle that are not violent. Manners are soft, mild, and gentle, but eofthers in this oase is not always oommendable. Too muoh eofthess in the manners of a man is inconsistent with manly firmness. Mildness and gentleness are more gonerally commendahls, Mild manners are peculiarly becoming in superiors, or those who have the powsr of oontrolling others, provided they do not interfere with good order. Gentle manners are becoming in all persons who take a part in social life. Softness of manner may likewise be assumed, but mildness and gentleness are always genuine; the former arising from the temper, the latter either from the temper or from good-breeding, of which it is the greatest mark.

[^118]When these terms are employed as oharacteristica of the person or his disposition, they are comparable with meek, which is used only in this sense. Soft
as far as it denotes as susceptibility of ooft or tender emotions, may and ought to exist in both sexes; but it ought to be the peculiar characteristic of the female sex ; mildness, as a natural gift, may disqualify a man for command, unless it be tempered by firmness and discretion. Gentleness, as a part of the character, is not so much to be recommended as gentleness from habit.
And much he blames the softness of his mind, Obnoxious to the charms of womankind.

Drynen.
She bad all the courage and liberality of the other sex, united to the devotion, order, and economy (perhaps not all the softneess) of her own.

Whitaker.
He anited in a most remarkahle degree the secmingly repugnant characters of the mildest of men, and the most vehement of orators.

Meceintose.
Let no cormplaisace, oo gentleness of temper, no weak desire of pleasing on your part, no wheedling, coaxing, nor fiattery on other people's, make you recede one jot from any point that reason and prudence have bid yoa pursue.

Chesteafield.
Meekness denotes the forbearance to use force, even in cases of peculiar provocation : in those who are called upon to direct or command it may be carried to an excess.

A yielding timid meekness is always abused and insulted by the unjust and the unfeeling, but meekness, wheo austained by the fortiter $2 \pi r 6$, is always respected and commonly auccessful.

Cheateafielo.
Gentle, mild, and meek are likewise applied to animals: the former to designate that easy flow of spirits which fits them for being guided in their movements, and the latter to mark that passive temper that submits to every kind of treatment, however harsh, without an indication even of displeasure. A borse is gentle, as opposed to one that is spirited; the former is devoid of that impetus in himself to move, which renders the other ungovernable: the lamb is a pattern of meekness, and giclds to the knife of the butcher without a struggle or a groan.

[^119]Thombon.
They (the Arabian mares) are less vicions, of a gentler aature, and not so apt to neigh.

Goldanati

## solicitation, importunity.

SOLICITATION is general; IMPOR TUNITY is particular: it is importunate or troublesome solicitation. Solicitation is itself indeed that which gives trouble to a certain extent, but it is not always unreasonable: there may be cases in which we may yield to the solicitations of friends, to do that which we have no objection to be obliged to do; but importunity is that solicitation which never ceases to apply for that which it is not agreeable to give. We may sometimes be urgent in our solicitations of a friend to accept some proffered bonor; the solicitation, however, in this case, although it may even be troublesome, yet it is sweetened by the motive of the action: the importunity of beggars is often a politic means of extorting money from the passenger.

Although the devil cannot compel a man to sln, yet he can follow a man with continual 80lieitations.

South.
The torment of expectation is not easily to be borne when the heart has no rival engagements to withdraw it from the importunities of desire.

Jounson.

## SOLITARY, SOLE, ONLY, SINGLE.

All these terms are more or less opposed to several or many. SOLITARY and SOLE, both derived from solus, alone or whole, signify one left by itself; the former mostly in application to particular sensible objects, the latter in regard mostly to moral objects: a solitary shrub expresses not only one sbrub, but one that has been left to itself: the sole cause or reason signifies that reason or cause which stands unsupported by anything else. ONLY, that is, onely, signifying the quality of unity, does not include the idea of descrtion or deprivation, but it comprehends that of want or deficiency: he who bas only one shilling in his pocket means to imply that he wants more, or ought to have more. SINGLE, which is an abbreviation of singular ( $v$. Simple), signifies simply one or more detached from others, without conveying any other collateral idea: a single sheet of paper may be sometimes more convenient than a double one; a single shilling may be all that is necessary for the present purpose: there may be singlo
ones, as well as a single one; but the other terms exclude the idea of there being anything else. $\Lambda$ solitary act of generosity is not sufficient to characterize a man as generous: with most criminals the sole ground of their defence rests upon their not having learned to know aod do better: harsh language and severe looks are not the only means of correcting the faults of others: single instances of extraordinary talents now and then present themselves in the course of an age.

The cattle in the fields and meadnws green, Those rare and solitary, these in flocks.

Milton.
All things are but lnsipid to a man, in comparison of that one which is the sole minion of ints fancy.

South.
Will save us trial Thy fear
Single against the wicked.
Milton.
In the adverbial form, solely, only, and singly are employed with a similar distinction. The disasters which attend an unsuccessful military enterprisc are seldom to be attributed solely to the incapacity of the general: there are many circumstances both in the natural and moral world which are to be accounted for only by admitting a providence as presented to us in Divine revelation: there are many things which men could not effect singly that might be effected by them conjointly.

You knew my father well, and in him me, Left solaly heir to all his lands. Sinakspeare.

The practice of virtue is attended not only witi present quiet and satisfaction, but with comfortable hope of a future recompense. Nelson.

They tend to the perfection of human nature, and to make men singly and personally good.

Tillotson.

## SOLITARY, DESERT, DESOLATE.

SOLITARY, v. Alone. DESERT is the same as deserted. DESOLATE, in Latin desolatus, signifies made solitary.

All these epitbets are applied to places, but with different modifications of the common idea of solitude which belongs to them. Solitary simply denotes the absence of all beings of the same kind: thus a place is solitary to a man where there is no human being but himself; and it is solitary to a brute, when there are no brutes with which it can hold so-
ciety. Desert conveys the idea of a place made solitary by being shumed, from its unfitness as a place of residence; all deserts are places of such wildness as seem to frighten away almost all inbabitants. Desolate conveys the idea of a place made solitary, or bare of inhabitants, and all traces of habitation, by violent means: desolation is solitude coupled with wretchedness ; every country may become desolate which is exposed to the inroads of a ravaging army, and a person may be desolate who feels himself uable to associate with others.
The first time we behold the hero (Ulysses), we find lim disconsolately sitting on the solitory shore, sighing to return to Ithaca.

Wiarton.
A peopled city made a desert place. Driden.
Supporting and supported, polish'd fricnds
And dear relations mingle into bliss ;
But this the rugged savage never felt,
E'en desolate in crowds.
Thomson.

## TO SOLVE, RESOLVE.

SOLVE and RESOLVE both come from the Latin solvo, in Greek $\lambda v \omega$, in Hebrew sal, to loosen.

Between solve and resolve there is no considerable difference either in sense or application: the former seems merely to speak of unfolding in a general manner that which is wrapped up in obscurity; to resolve is rather to unfold it by the particular method of carrying one back to first principles; we solve a problem, and resolve a difficulty.
He would solve a bigh dispute Witi conjugal caresses.

Milton.
Something yet of donbt remains,
Which only thy dolution can resolve. Milton.

## SOME, ANY.

SOME, in Saxon sum, connceted with the word sum, signifying a collected or specitied quantity, is altogether restrictive in its sense: ANY, from a one, is altogether universal and indefinite. Some applies to one particular part in distiaction from the rest: any to every individual part without distiaction. Some think this, and others that: any person might believe if he would; any one can conquer his passious who calls in the aid of religion. In consequence of this distinction in sense, some caa ouly be used in particular affirmative proposi-
tions ; but any, which is equivalent to all, may be either in negative, interrogative, or hypothetical propositions: some say so: does any one believe it? He will not give to any.
Some to the shores do fiy, Some to the woods, or whither fear advis'd.

DANIEL.
He is a path, if any be misled,
He is a robe, if any naked be,
If any chance to hunger, he is bread,
If any be a bondsman, he is free. FLETCHER.

## SOON, EARLY, BETIMES.

All these words are expressive of time; but SOON respects some future period in general; EARLY, or ere, before, and BETIMES, or by the time, hefore a given time, respect some particular period at no great distance. A person may come soon or early; in the former case he may not be long in coming from the time that the words are spoken; in the latter case he comes before the timc appointed. He who rises soon does nothing extraordinary; but he who rises early or betimes exceeds the usual hour considerably. Soon is said mostly of particular acts, and is always dated from the time of the person speaking, if not otherwise expressed; come soon signifies after the present moment: early and besimes, if not otherwise expressed, have always respect to some specific time appointed; come early will signify a visit, a mecting, and the like; do it betimes will signify before the thing to be done is wanted: in this manner, both are employed for the actions of youth. An early attention to religious duties will render them habitual and pleasing; we must begin betimes to bring the stubborn will into subjection.
But soon, too soon / the lover turns his eyes; Again she falls-again she dies-she dies.

POPE,
Pope not being sent early to school, was taught to read by an aunt. Johnson.

Happy is the man who betimes acquires a relish for holy solitude.

Hohne.

## SORRY, GRIEVED, HURT.

SORRY and GRIEVED are epithets somewhat differing from their primitives sorrow and grief (v. Affliction), inasmuch as they are applied to ordinary subjects. We speak of being sorry for anything, however trivial, which concerns our-
selves; but we are commonly grieved for that which concerns others. I am sorry that I was not at home when a person called upon me; I am grieved that it is not in my power to serve a friend who stands in need. Both these terms respect only that which we do ourselves: HURT (v. To displease and To injure) re spects that which is done to us, denoting painful feeling from hurt or wounded feelings; we are hurt at being treated with disrespect.
The ass, approaching next, confess'd
That in his heart he lov'd a jest; One fault he hath, is sorry for't, His ears are half a foot too short.

SWIFT.
The mimic ape began to chatter,
How evil tongues his name bespatter;
He saw, and he was griev'd to see't,
His zeal was sometimes indiscreet.
Swift.
No man is hurt, at least few are so, by hearing his neighbor esteemed a worthy man.

Blatr.

## SOUL, MIND.

These terms, or the equivalents to them, have been employed by all civilized nations to designate that part of human nature which is distinct from matter. The SOUL, however, from the German seele, etc., and the Greek $\zeta a \omega$, to live, like the anima of the Latin, which comes from the Greek averos, wind or breath, is represented to our minds by the subtlest or most ethereal of sensible objects, namely, breath or spirit, and denotes properly the quickening or vital principle. MIND, on the contrary, from the Greek $\mu \mathrm{c} \nu_{0} \mathrm{~S}$, which signifies strength, is that sort of power which is closely allied to, and in a great measure dependent upon, corporeal organization: the former is, therefore, the immortal, and the latter the mortal, part of us; the former connects us with angels, the latter with brutes; in the former we distinguish consciousness and will, which is possessed by no other created being that we know of; in the latter we distinguish nothing but the power of recelving impressions from external objects, which we call ideas, and which we have in common with the brutes. Poets and philosophers speak of the soul in the same strain, as the active and living principle.
Man's soul in a perpetual motion finws, And to no outward cause that motion owes.

Denham

In bashful coynass, or In maidan pride, Tha suth return concesl'd, save when it stole la sideloug glances from her downcast syes, Or from her awelling soul in stifiad sighs.
'I'HOMSON.
The soul conaists of many facultiea, as the understanding, and tha will, with all the senses, both outward and inward; or, to speak more philosophically, the soul can exert berself in many different ways of action.

ADDison.
The ancients, though unaided by the light of Divine revelation, yet represent. ed the soul as a distinct principle. The Psyche of the Greeks, which was the name they gave to the human soul, was feigned to be one of their incorporeal or celestial beings. The anima of the Latins was taken precisely in the modern sense of the soul, by which it was distingulshed from the animus or mind. Thus the Emperor Adrian is said on his dying bed to have addressed his soul in words which clearly denote what he thought of its independent existence:

> Animula vagula, blandula, Qux nunc abibis in loca? Hospes comesque corporis, Pallidnla, rigida, undula, Nec (ut soles) duls joca!

The mind, being considered as an attribute to the soul, is taken sometimes for one faculty, and sometimes for another; as for the understanding, when we say a person is not in his right mind.

I am a very foolish fond old man;
I fear I am not in my perfect mind.
SHAKSPEARE.
Sometimes for the intellectual power:
I thought the aternal mind
Had made us mastars.
DRYDEN.
Or for the intellectnal capacity:
We say that learning's endless, and blame fate
For not allowing life a longer date ;
He did tha utmost bounds of knowledge find,
He found them not so large as was his mind.
Cowley.
Or for the imagination or conception.
In the Judgment of Arlstotle and Bacon, the true poet forms his imitations of nature after a model of ideal perfection, which perhaps has no existence but in his own mind.

Beatile.
Sometimes the word mind is employed to denote the operations of the thinking faculty, the thoughts or opinions:

The ambiguons god,
In these mysterioas words his mind expresa'd: Soma truths revealed, in terms involved the rest.

Dhyden.

The earth was not of my mind, If you suppose as fearing you it shook.

SHARAPEARE
Or the will, choice, determination, as in the colloquial phrase, to have a mind to do a thing.

All the arguments to a good life will be vety insignificant to a man that liath a mind to be wicked, when remission of sins may be had on such cheap terms.

Tillotsin.
Our question is, whether all be $\sin$ which is done without direation by Scripture, and not whether tbe Israelites did at any time amiss by following their own minds without askjug counsel of God.

Hooere.
Sometimes it stands for the memury, as in the familiar expressions to call to mind, put in mind, etc.

The king knows their disposition; a small touch will put him in mind of them. Bacon. These, and more than I to mind can bring, Menalcas has not yet forgot to sing. Dryden.

They will put him in mind of his own waking thoughts, ere these dreams had as yet made their impressiona un this fancy.

Atteneuny.
A wholesome law, time out of mind,
Had been conflrm'd by fate's decree.
Swipt.
Lastly, the mind is considered as the seat of all the faculties:

Every faculty is a diatinct taste in the mind, and hath objects ascommodated to its proper relish.

ADDIson.
And also of the passions or affections.
E'en from the body's purity, the mind
Recetves a secret sympathetic aid. Tromson.
This word, being often used for the soul giving life, is attributed abasively to madmen when we aay that they are of a distracted mind, insterd of a broken understsnding: which word mind we usa also fur opinion, as I am of this or that mind; and sometimes for men's conditions or virtues, as he is of am honest mind, or a man of a just mind; sometimes for affection, as I do this for my mind's sake, ete.

Raleige.
The soul being the better part of a man, is taken for the man's self; as Horace says, in allusion to his friend Virgil, "et serves animæ dimidium meæ:" hence the term is figuratively extended, in its application, to denote a human being:

The moral is the case of every soul of us.
L'Estbange.
It is a republic; there are in it a hundred bourgeois, and about a thonsand souls. AdDiaon.
Tha poor soul sat singing by a aycamore-tree.
SBATGPEATM
Or the individual in general.

Join voices, all ye living soulg. Ye birds That singing $u p$ to heaven-gate ascend Bear on your wings and in your notes his praise. Mhton.
Also, what is excellent, the essential or principal part of a thing, the spirit.

Thou sun, of this great world both eye and soul. Militon.
He has the very boul of bounty. Shazspeare.
There is some soul of goooness in things evil, Would men observingly distil it out.

Sharapeare.

## sound, sane, healthy.

SOUND and SANE, in Latin sanus, comes probably from sanguis, the blood, because in that lies the seat of health or sickness. HEALTHY, v. Healthy.

Sound is extended in its application to all things that are in the state in which they ought to be, so as to preserve their vitality; thus, animals and vegetables are said to be sound when in the former there is nothing amiss in their breath, and in the latter in their root. By a figurative application, wood and other things may be said to be sound when they are entirely free from any symptom of decay; sane is applicable to human beings, in the same sense, but with reference to the mind; a sane person is opposed to one that is insane.

He hath a heart as sound as a bell, and his tongue is the clapper: for what his heart thinks his tongue speaks.

Suakipeare.
How pregnant sometimes his replies are, A happiness that often madness hits on, Which aanity and reason could not be So prosperonsly delivered of.

Sharapeane.
The mind is also said to be sound when It is in a perfect state to form right opinions.

But Capys, and the rest of sounder mind, The fatal present to the flames design'd.

Detoen.
Healthy expresses more than either sound or sane; we are healthy in every part, but we are sound in that which is essential for life; he who is sound may live, but he who is healthy enjoys life.
But the eourse of succession (to the crown) is the hoalthy hablt of the British constitution. Buree.

## SOUND, TONE.

SOUND, in Latin sonus, and TONE, in Latin tonus, may probably both come from
the Greek rovog, from relvw, to stretch or exert, signifying simply an exertion of the voice; and that is connected with the Hebrew shaon, a noise.

Sound is that which issues from any body, so as to become audible; tone is a species of sound which is produced from particular bodies: a sound may be accidental; we may hear the sounds of waters or leaves, of animals or men: tones are those particular sounds or modulations of sound, which are made either to express a particular feeling or to produce harmouy; a sheep will cry for its lost young in a tone of distress; an organ is so formed as to send forth the most solemn tones.

The sounds of the voice, according to the vorious tonches which raise them, form theniselves into an acute or grave, quick or slow, lond or soft, tone. Hughea.
SPACE, ROOM.

SPACE is in Latin spatium, Greek $\sigma r a \delta \iota o \nu$, Æol. $\sigma \pi a \delta \iota o \nu$, a race-ground. ROOM is in Suxon, etc., rum, Hebrew ramah, a wide place.

These are both abstract terms, expressive of that portion of the universe which is supposed not to be occupied by any solid body : space is a general term, which includes within itself that which infinitely surpasses our comprehension; room is a limited term, which comprehends those portions of space which are artificially formed: space is either extended or bounded; room is always a bounded space: the space between two objects is either natural, incidental, or designedly formed; the room is that which is the fruit of design, to suit the convenience of persons : there is a sufficient space between the heavenly hodies to admit of their moving without confusion; the valne of a house essentially depends upon the quantity of room which it affords : in a row of trees there must always be vacant spaces between each tree; in a coach there will be only room for a given number of persons.

The man of wealth and pride Takes up a space that many poor supplied.

Grolnamith.
For the whole world, without a native hone, Is nothing but a prison of a larger room.

Cowley.
Space is only taken in the natural sense; room is also employed in the

## SPEAK

moral application: in every person there is ample room for amendment or improvement.

He was incapable of laying traps for discourse, or putting other people's conversation asida to make room for his own.

Cumbelland.

## TO SPEAK, SAY, TELL.

SPEAK, in Saxon specan, is probably changed from the German sprechen, and connected with brechen, to break, the Latin precor, to pray, and the Hebrew barek, to bless. SAY, in Saxon seegan, German sagen, Latin seco or sequor, changed into dico, and Hebrew shoch, to speak or say. TELL, in Saxon taellan, low German tellan, etc., is probably an onomatopecia in language.

To speak may simply consist in uttering an articulate sound; but to say is to communicate some idea by means of words : a child begins to speak the moment it opens its lips to utter any acknowledged sound; but it will be some time before it can say aoything: a person is said to speak bigh or low, distinctly or indistinctly; but he says that which is true or false, right or wrong: a dumb man canoot speak; a fool cannot say anything that is worth hearing: we speak languages, we speak sease or nonsense, we speak intelligibly or uniatelligibly; but we say what we think at the time.
He that questioneth much shall learn much, and content much, for he shall give occasion to those whom he asketh to please thamselves in өpeaking.
bacon.
Hz possessed to admiration that rare faculty of olways saying enough, and not too much, on sny subject.

Cumberland.
In an extended sense, speak may refer as much to sense as to sound; but then it applies only to general cases, and say to particular and passiag circumstances of life : it is a great abuse of the gift of speech not to speak the truth; it is very culpable in a person to say that he will do a thing and not to do it.

In what I now shall say of him, I have spoken the truth conscientiously.

Cumberland.
To say and tell are both the ordinary actions of men in their daily intercourse; but say is very partial, it may comprehend single unconnected sentences, or even single words: we may say yes or
no; but we tell that which is connected, and which forms more or less of a narrative. To say is to communicate that which passes in our own minds, to express our ideas and feelings as they rise; to tell is to communicate events or circumstances respecting ourselves or others: it is not good to let children say foolish things for the sake of talking; it is still worse for them to be encouraged in telling everything they hear: when every one is allowed to say what he likes and what he thinks, there will commonly be more speakers than hearers; those who accustom themselves to tell long stories impose a tax upon others, which is not repaid by the pleasure of their company.
Say, Yorke (for sure, if any, thou canst tell), What virtue is, who practisc it so well? Jen yns

## TO SPEAK, TALK, CONVERSE, DISCOUREE.

The idea of communicating with, or communicating to, another, by means of signs, is common in the signification of all these terms: to SPEAK ( $u$. To speal) is an indefinite term, specifying no circumstance of the action; we may speak only one word or many; but TALK, which is but a variation of tell (v. To speak), is a mode of speaking, namely, for a continuance : we may speak from various motives; we talk for pleasure; we CONVERSE ( $v$. Conversation) for improvement, or intellectual gratification: we speak with or to a person; we talk commonly to others; we converse with others. Speaking a language is quite distinct from writiog it: those who think least talk most: conversation is the rational employment of social beings, who seek by an iaterchange of sentiments to purify the affections, and improve the understanding.
Falsehood is a speaking against our thoughts. SOUTH.
Talkere are commonly vain, and crednlons withal; for he that talketh what he knoweth, will also talk what he knoweth not. Bacon. Words learned by rote a parrot may rehearse, But talking is not always to converse. Cowper. Go, therefore, half this day, as friend with friend, Converse with Adam. Milon.

Conversation is the act of many togeth. er; DISCOURSE, in Latin discursus, ex.
pressing properly an examining or deliberating upon, like talk, may be the act of one addressing himself to others; parents and teachers discourse with young people on moral dutiés.
Let thy discourse be such, that thou mayst give Profit to others, or from them receive. Denham.

## SPECIAL, SPECIFIC, PARTICULAR.

SPECIAL, in Latin specialis, signifies belonging to the species; SPECIFIC, in Latio specificus, from species, a species, and facio, to make, signifies making a specres; PARTICULAR, belonging to a particle or small part. The apecial is that whioh comes under the general; the particular is that which comes under the special: hence we speak of a special rule; but a particular case. Partimular and specific are both applied to the properties of iadividuals; but particular is said of the contingeat circumstances of things, specific of their inherent properties: every plant has something particular in itself different from others, it is either longer or shorter, weaker or stronger; but its specific property is that which it has in common with its species: particular is, therefore, the term adapted to loose discourse; specific is a scientific term which describes things minutely.

God claims it as a npectal part of his prerogative to have the entire disposal of riches. South.

Every state has a particular principle of happiness, and this principle may in each be carried to a mischievous excess.

GoLDSM1TH.
The imputation of being a fool is a thing which mankind, of all others, is the most impatient of, it being a blot upon the prime and specifie perfection of human nature.

South.
The same may be said of particularize and specify: we particularize for the sake of information; we specify for the sake of instruction: in describing a man's person and dress we particularize if we mention everything singly which can be said upon it; in delineating a plan it is necessary to specify time, place, dlstance, materials, and everything else which may be connected with the carrying it into execution.

St. Peter doth not specify what these waters
were.
BURNET. were.

The numbers I particularize are about thirtysix millions.

BUnze.

TO SPEND, EXHAUST, DRAIN.
SPEND, contracted from expend, in Latio expendo, to pay away, signifies tc give from one's self. EXHAUST, from the Latin exharerio, to draw out, signifies to draw out all that there is. DRAIN, a variation of draw, signifies to draw dry.

The idea of taking from the substance of anything is common to these terms; hut to spend is to deprive it in a less degree than to exhaust, and that in a less degree than to drain: every one who exerts himself, in that degree spends his strength; if the exertions are violent he exhausts himself; a country which is drained of men is supposed to have no mote left. To spend may be applied to that which is either external or inherent in a body; exhoust to that which is inherent; drain to that which is external of the body in which it is contalned: we may speak of spending our wealth, our resources, our time, and the like; but of exhausting our streagth, our vigor, our voice, and the like; of draining, in the proper application, a vessel of its liquid, or, in the improper application, draining a treasury of its contents: heace arises this further distinction, that to spend and to exhaust may tend, more or less, to the injury of a body; but to drain may he to its advantage. Inasmuch as what is spent or exhausted may be more or less esseatial to the soundaess of a body, it canaot be parted with without diminishing its value, or even destroying its existence; as when a fortune is spent it is gone, or when a person's strength is exhausted he is no longer able to move: on the other hand, to drain, though a more complete evacuation, is not always injurious, but sometimes even useful to a body; as when the land is drained of a superabundaace of water.

Your tears for such a death in vain you spend, Which straight in immortality shall end.

Dembam.
Many of our propisions for ease or happiness are earhausted by the present day. Jonsson.
Teaching is not a flow of words nor the drainthg of an hour-glass.

South.
TO SPEND, OR EXPEND, WASTE, DISSIPATE, SQUANDER.
SPEND and EXPEND are variationg from the Latin expendo; but spend im.
plies simply to turn to some purpose, or make use of; to expend carries with it likewise the idea of exhausting; and WASTE, moreover, comprehends the idea of oxhausting to no good purpose: we spend money when we purchase anything with it; we expend it when we lay it out in large guantities, so as essentially to diminish its quantity: individuals spend what they have; government expends vast sums in conductiog the affairs of a nation; all persons waste their preperty whe bave net sufficient discretion to use it well: we spend our time, or our lives, in any empleyment; we expend our strength and faculties upon some arduous undertaking; we waste our time and talents in triffes.

Then, having apent the last remains of light, They give their bodies due repose at night.

Dryden.
The King of England wasted the French king's country, and theraby caused him to expend such oums of money as exceeded the debt.

Haywazd.
What numbers, guiltless of their own disease, Are snatch'd by sudden death, or woate by slow degrees!

Jenina.
DISSIPATE, in Latin dissipatus, from $d i s s i p o$, that is $d i x$ and cipo, in Greek $\sigma \iota \phi \omega$, to scatter, signifies to scatter different ways, that is, to waste by throwing away in all directions: SQUANDER, which is a variation of wander, signifies to make to run wide apart. Both these terms, therefore, denote modes of wasting; but the former seems peculiarly applicable to that which is wasted in detail upou different objects, and by a distraction of the mind; the latter respects rather the act of wosting in the gross, in large quantities, by planless profusion: young men are apt to dissipate their property in pleasures; the open, generous, and thoughtless are apt to squander their property.
He pltied man, and much he pitied those
Whorn falsely smiling fate lias curs'd with means To dissipate their days in quest of jny.

Armstaono.
To how many temptations are all, but especially the young and gay, exposed, to aquander thelr whole time amidst the circles of levity.

Blaite.
SPIRITUOUS, SPIRITED, SPIRITUAL, GHOSTLY.
SPIRTTUOUS signifies having spirit as a physical property, after the msnner
of spirituous liquers: SPIRITED is ap. plicable to the animal spirits of either men or brutes; a person or a borse may be spirited.
The opirituous and benign matter most apk for generation.

Shith.
Drydeu's translation of Virgil is noble and spirtted.

JoHNzON.
What is SPIRITUAL is after the manner of a spirit, and what is GHOSTLY is like a ghost: although originally the same in meaning, the former being derived from the Latin spiritus, and the latter from the German geist, and both signifying what is not corporeal, yet they have acquired a difference of application. Spiritual objects are mostly distinguished from those of sense.
Virginity is better than the married life; not that it ia mure holy, but that it is a freedom from carcs, an opportunity to spend more time in apiritual employments.

JEEEMT TAYLOR.
Hence it is that the spiritual is opposed to the temporal.

She loves them as her spiritual children, and they reverence her as their spiritual mother, with an affection far above that of the fondest friend.

LAW.
Thon art reverend
Touching thy spiritual function, not thy life.
SHaKspeate.
Ghostly is more inmediately opposed to the carnal or the secular, and is a term, therefore, of mere solemn import.

The grace nf the Spirit is much more precions than worldly benefits, and our ghostly evils of greater importance than tbe harm which the body feeleth.

Hoosea.
To deny me the ghostly comfort of my chaplains seems a greater berbarity than is ever used by Cbristians.

Kino Chables.

## SPREAD, SCATTER, DISPERSE.

SPREAD ( $v$. To spread) applies equally to divisible or indivisible bodies; we spread our money on the table, or we may spread a cloth on the table: but SCATTER, like shatter, is a frequentative of shake ( $v$. To shake), and is applicable to divisible bodies only; we scatter corn on the ground. To spread may be an act of design or otherwise, but mostly the former; as when we spread books or papers before us: scatter is mostly an act without design; a child scatters the papers on the floor. When taken, however, as an act of design, it is done with-
out order ; but spread is an act done in order; thus hay is spread out to dry, but corn is scattered over the land.

All in a row Advancing broad, or wheeling ronnd the fleld, They spread their breathing harvest to the snn. Тномвол.
Each leader now his acatter'd force conjoins.
Pope.
Things may spread in one direction, or at least without separation; but they DISPERSE ( $v$. To dispel) in many directions, so as to destroy the continuity of bodies: a leaf spreads as it opens in all its parts, and a tree also spreads as its branches increase; but a multitude disperses, an army disperses. Between scatter and disperse there is no other difference than that one is immethodical and often involuntary, the other systematic and intenticnal: flowers are scattered along a path which accidentally fall from the hand; a mob is dispersed by an act of authority: sheep are scattered along the bills; religious tracts are dispersed among the poor: the disciples were scattered as sheep without a shepherd, after the delivery of our Saviour into the hands of the Jews; they dispersed themselves, after his ascension, over every part of the world.

The stately trees fast gpread their branches. Milion.
Shall funeral eloquence her colors spread, And scatter roses on the wealthy dead?

Young.
Straight to the tents the troops dispersing bend.

Pope.

## TO SPREAD, EXPAND, DIFFUSE.

SPREAD, in Saxon sprcdan, low German spredan, high German spreiten, is an intensive of breit, broad, signifying to stretch wide. EXPAND, in Latin expando, compounded of ex and pando, to open, and the Greek $\phi a i v \omega$, to show or make appear, signifies to open out wide. DIFFUSE, $v$. Diffuse.

To spread is the general, the other two are particular terms. To spread may be said of anything which occupies more space than it has done, whether by a direct separation of its parts, or by an accession to the substance; but to expand is to spread by means of extending or unfolding the parts: a mist spreads over
the earth; a flower expands its leaves. a tree spreads by the growth of its branches; the opening bud expands when it feels the genial warmth of the sun. Diffusion is that process of spreading which consists literally in pouring out in different ways.

See where the winding vale its lavish'd stores. Irriguous spreads.

Thom8on.
As from the face of heaven the shatter'd clouds Tumultuous rove, th' interminable sky Sublimer swells, and o'er the world expands A purer azure. Thomson.
His head above the floods he gently reared, And, as he rose, his golden horns appear'd; That on the forehead shone divinely bright, And o'er the banks diffused a yellow light.

Addison.
Spread and expand are used likewise in a morad application; diffuse is seldom used in any other application: spread is here, as before, equally indefinite as to the mode of the action; everything spreads, and it spreads in any way; but expansion is that gradual process by which an object opens or unfolds itself after the manner of a flower. Evils spread, and reports spread; the mind expands, and prospects expand; knowledge diffuses itself, or cheerfulness is diffused throughout a company.

About this time the heresy of Wickliffe, or
Lollardism, as it was called, began to spread.
Gan in society is like a flower
Glown in its native bud : 'tis then alone
His faculties expanded in full bloom,
Shine forth.
A chief renown'd in war,
Whose race ahall bear aloft the Latin name, And throngh the conquered world diffuse onr fame.

Dryden

## TO SPREAD, CIRCULATE, PROPAGATE, DISSEMINATE.

To SPREAD (v. To spread, expand) is said of any object material or spiritual; the rest are mostly employed in the moral application. To spread is to extend to an indefinite width; to CIRCULATE is to spread within a circle: thus news spreads through a country; but a story circulates in a village, or from house to house, or a report is circulated in a neighborhood.

Love would between the rich and needy stand, And spread heaven's bounty with an equal band.

Wather

## SPRING

Our God, when beaven and earth he did create, Form'd man, who should of both participate: If our lives' motions theirs must imitate, Our knowledge, like our blood, must ciroulate.

Denham.
Spread and circulate are the acts of persons or things; PROPAGATE and DISSEMINATE are the acts of persons only. The thing spreads and circulates, or it is spread and circulated by some onc; it is always propagated and disseminated by some one. Propagate, from the Latin propago, a breed, and disseminate, from aemen, a seed, are bere figuratively employed as modes of spreading, according to the natural operations of increasing the quantity of anything which is implied in the first two terms. What is propagated is supposed to generate new subjects: as when doctrines, either good or bad, are propagated amoug the people so as to make them converts: what is disseminated is supposed to be sown in different parts; thus principles are disseminated among youth.

He shall extend his propagated away
Beyond the aolar year, without the atarry way.
Dityden.
Nature aeema to have taken care to disaaminate her blesaings among the different regions of the world.

Addiaon.

## SPRING, FOUNTAIN, SOURCE.

SPRING denotes that which springs the word, therefore, carries us back to the point from which the water issues. FOUNTAIN, in Latin fons, from fundo, to pour out, signifies that from which anything is poured, and comprehends in it a collcetion or certain quantity of water, both natural and artificial: and SOURCE, in the Latin of the Middle Ages surgicia, is obviously from surgo, to rise, and carries us back to the place whence the water takes its rise. Springs are to be found by digging a sufficient depth in all parts of the earth: in mountainous countries, and also in the East, we read of fountains which form themcelves, and supply the surrounding parts with refreshing streams: the sources of rivers are mostly to be traced to some mountain.

It has so many springs breaking ont of the sldes of the hills, and such vast quantities of wood to make pipes, that it is no wonder they Lat so well stocked with fountains. ADviton.

Fast by a brook or fountain's marmuring stream. Beattie.
I forgot to mention that we passed the aources of the famons cold river Il Fiume Freddo: it rises at once out of the earth a large stream.

Brydone.
These terms are all used in a figurative sense: spring is taken for that which is always flowing; fountain for that which contains an abundant supply for a stream: and source for the channel ${ }^{-1}$ through which from the commencement any event comes to pass.

The heart of the citizen is a perennial apring of energy to the State. Burge.
Eternal King! the author of all belag,
Fountain of light, thyself invisible. Milton.
These are thy blessings, industry ! rough power I Yet the kind aource of every gentle art.

Thomson.
TO SPRING, START, STARTLE, BHRINK.
The idea of a sudden motion is ex. pressed by all these terms, but the cir. cumstances and mode differ in all; SPRING ( $v$. To spring) is indefinite in these respects, and is therefore the most general term. To spring and START, which is in all probability an intensitive of stir, may be either voluntary or involuntary movements, but the former is mostly voluntary, and the latter involuntary; a person springs out of bed, or one animal springs upon another; a person or animal starts from a certain point to begin running, or starts with fright from one side to the other. To STARTLE, which is a frequentative of start, is always an involuntary action; a horse starts by suddenly flying from the point on which he stands; but if he startles he seems to fly back on himself and stops his course; to spring and start, therefore, always carry a person farther from a given point; but startle and SHRINK, which is probably an intensitive of $\operatorname{sink}$, sigoifying to sink into itself, are movements withio one's self; startling is a sudden convulsion of the frame which makes a person to stand in hesitation whether to proceed or not; shrinking is a contraction of the frame within itself; any sudden and unexpected sound makes a person startle; the approach of any frightful object makes him shrink back; spring and start are mostly employed only in the proper sense of corporeal move-
ments: startle and shrink are employed in regard to the movements of the mind as well as the body.
Death wounds to cure; we fall, we rise, we reign, Spring from our fetters, and fasten in the skies.

Young.
A shape within the wat'ry fleam appear'd, Bending to look on me: I started back, It atarted back.

Milton.
'Tis listening fear and dumb amazement,
When to the startlsd eye the sudden glance Appears far sonth, eraptive thruugh the cloud.

Tномson.
There is a horror in the scene of a ravaged country which makes nature shrink back at the reflection.

Hearino.

## TO SPRINKLE, BEDEW.

To SPRINKLE is a frequentative of spring, and denotes either an act of nature or design: to BEDEW is to cover with dew, which is an operation of nature. By sprinkling, a liquid falls in sensible drops upon the earth; by bedewing, it covers by imperceptible drops: rain besprinkles the earth; dew bedews it.

The prince with living water sprinklsd o'er His llmbs and body.

Dayden.
The silver streams, which from this spring increase,
Bedew all Christian hearts with drops of peace.
BEAURONT.
So likewise, figuratively, things are sprinkled with flour; the cheeks are bedewed with tears.

Wings he wore
Of meny a colored plume, sprinkled with gold. Milton.
And all the while selt tears bsdewed the hearers' cheeks. Spenger.

## TO SPROUT, BUD.

SPROUT, in Saxon sprytan, low German sprouyten, is doubtless connected with the German spritzen, to spurt, spreitan, to spread, and the like. To BUD is to put forth buds; the noun bud is a variation from button, which it resembles in form. To sprout is to come forth from the stem; to bud, to put forth in buds.
The sprouting leaves that saw you here, And call'd their fellows to the sight. Cowley.
Noble objects are to the mind what sunbeams are to a bud or flower; they open or unfold, as It were, the leaves of it, put it upon exerting and spreading every way, and call forth all those powers that lie hid and locked up in it.

Atterbury.

## SPURIOUS, SUPPOSITITIOUS, COUNTERFEIT.

SPURFOUS, in Latin spurius, or Greek $\sigma \pi 0 v \rho a \delta \eta \nu$, that is, one conceived by a woman, because the ancients called the female spurium; hence, one who is of uncertain origin on the father's side is termed spurious. SUPPOSITITIOUS, from suppose, signifies to be supposed or conjectured, in distinction from being positively known. COUNTERFETT, $v$. To imitate.

All these terms are modes of the false; the former two indrectly, the latter directly: whatever is uncertain tha ${ }^{\dagger}$ might be certain, and whatever is conjectural that might be conclusive, are by implication false; that which is made in imitation of another thing, so as to pass for it as the true one, is positively false. Hence, the distinction between these terms, and the ground of their applications. An iliegitimate offspring is said to be spatrions in the literal sense of the word, the father in this oase being always uncertain ; and any offepring whioh is termed spurious falls necessarily under the imputatlon of not being the offspring of the persod whose name they bear. In the same manner an edition of a work is termed spurious whioh comes out under a false name, or a name different from that in the title-page: supposititious expresses more or less of falsehood, according to the nature of the thing. A supposittious parent implies little less than a directly false parent; but in speaking of the origin of any person in remote periods of antiquity, it may be merely supposititious or conjectural from the want of information. Counterfeit respects rather works of art which are exposed to imitation: coin is counterfeit which bears a false stamp, and every invention which comes out under the sanction of the inventor's name is likewise a counterfeit if not made by himself or by his consent.

Being to tuke leave of Englend, 1 thought it very handsome to take my leque also of you, and my dearly honored mother, Oxford ; otherwise both of you may have just grounds to cry me up: you for a forgetful friend, she for an ungrateful son, if not some spurious issue.

Howpid.
The fahulous tales of early British history, supposititious treaties and charters, ore the
proofs on which Edward founded his title to the spvereignty of Scutland.

Robebtion.
Words may be counterfeit, False coin'd, and current only from the tongue, Without the mind.

Southern.

## TO SPURT, SPOUT.

To SPURT and SPOUT are, like the German spritzen, variatlons of spreiten, to spread ( $v$. To spread), and springen, to spring ( $v$. To aviss); they both express the idea of sending forth liquid in small quantities from a cavity; the former, however, does not always Include the ldea of the eavity, but simply that of springing up; the latter is, however, confined to the circumstance of issuing forth from some place; dirt may be spurted in the face by means of kicking it up; or blood may be spurted out of a vein when it is opened, water ont of the mouth, and the like; but a liquid spouts out from a pipe. To spurt is a sudden action arising from a momentary impetus given to a liquid either intentionally or incidentally; the beer will spurt from a barrel when the vent-peg is removed: to spout is a continued action produced by a perpetual impetus which the liquid receives equally from design or accident; the water spouts out from a pipe which is denominated a spout, or it will spout out from any cavity in the earth, or in a reck which may resembile a spout; a person may likewlse spout water in a stream from hls mouth.
Far from the parent atream it boils again Fresh into day, and all the xlittering hilt Is bright with spouting rills.

Thonson.
If from the puncture of a lancet, the manner of the spurting out of the blood will show it.

Wiseman.
Hence the figurative application of these terms; any sudden conceit which compels a person to an eccentric action is a spurt, particularly if it springs from ill-humor or caprice; a female will sometimes take a spurt and treat her intimate friends very coldly, elther from a fancied offence or a fancied superiority ; to spout, on the other hand, is to send forth a stream of words in imitation of the stream of liquid, and is applied to those who affect to turn speakers, or who reclte in an affected manner.

His skill in coachmanship or driving chaise, In bilking tavern bills, and spouting plays.

## STAFF, BTAY, PROP, BUPPORT.

From STAFF in the literal sense (v Staff) comes staff in the figurative appli, cation: anything may be denomlnated a staff which holds up after the manner of a staff, particularly as it respects persons; bread is said to be the staff of llfe; one person may serve as a staff to another,

It would much please him, That of his fortunes you would make a staff To lean upon.

Sgatspeanr.
The staff serves in a state of motion ; the STAY and PROP are employed for objects in a state of rest: the stay makes a thing stay for the time being, it keeps it in its place; it is equally applied to persons and things: we may be a stay to a person who is falling by letfing his body rest against us; in the same manner buttresses against a wall, and shores against a building, serve the purpose of stays while they are repairing. For the same reason that part of a female's dress which serves as a stay to the body is denominated stays: the prop keeps a thing up for a pernanency; every pillar on which a building rests is a prop; whatever, therefore, requires to be raised from the ground and kept in that state may be set upon props. SUPPORT (v. To hold, keep) is a general term, and in its most general sense comprehends all the others as species: whatever supports, that is, bears the welght of an object, is a support, whether in a state of motion like a staff, or in a state of rest like a stay or prop.
Their trees serve as so many stays for their vines, which hang like garlands from tree to tree. Addison.
Whate'er thy many fingers can entwine,
Proves thy support, and all its strength is thine; Tho' nature gave not legs, it gave thee hands, By which thy prop, thy prouder cedar stands.

Denham.
Staff, stay, and prop are applied figuratively in the sense of a support, with a similar distinction between them.

Hope is a lover's staff; walk hence with that, And manage it against despairing thought. Shakapeare,
If hope precarions, and of things when gain'd Of little moment and as little atay, Can sweeten toils, and dangers inito joys, What then that hope which nothing can defeat : Yodno:

Support is applied in the proper sense to moral as well as sensible objects: bope is the support of the mind under the most trying circumstances; religion, as the foundation of all our hopes, is the best and surest support under affliction.

I could not but reffect upon the greatness of his grief for the loss of one who has ever been a support to him under all other afflictions.

Addison.

## STAFF, STICK, CRUTCH.

SI'AFF, in low German staff, etc., in Latin stipes, in Greek $\sigma \tau u \pi \eta$, comes from arupw, stipo, to fix. STICK signifies that which can be stuck in the ground. CRUTCH, as changed from cross, is a staff or stick which has a crossbar at the top.

The ruling idea in a staff is that of firmness and fixedness; it is employed for leaning upon: the ruling idea in the strck is that of sharpuess with which it can penetrate; it is used for walking and ordinary purposes: the ruling idea in the crutch is its form, which serves the specific purpose of support in case of lameness; a staff can never be small, but a stick may be large; a crutch is in size more of a staff than a common stick.

[^120]Browne.

## TO STAGGER, REEL, TOTTER.

STAGGER is in all probability a frequentative from the German steigen, and the Greek $\sigma \tau 0<\chi \varepsilon \iota \nu$, to go, signifying to go backward and forward. To REEL signifies to go like a reel in a winding manncr. TOTTER is most probably connected with the German zittern, to tremble, because to totter is a tremulous action.

All these terms designate an involuntary and an unsteady motion; they vary hoth in the cause and the mode of the action; staggering and reeling are occasioned either by drunkenness or sickncss; tottering is purely the effect of weakness, particularly the wcakness of
old age: a drunken man always staggers as he walks; one who is giddy reels from one part to another: to stagger is a much less degree of unsteadiness than to reel; for he who staggers is only thrown a little out of the straight path, but be who reels altogether loses his equilibrium; reeling is commonly succeeded by falling. To stagger and reel are said as to the carriage of the whole body; but totter has particular reference to the limbs; the knees and the legs totter, and consequently the footsteps become tottering. In an extended application, the mountains may be said to stagger and to reel in an earthquake: the houses may totter from their very bases. In a figurative application, the faith or the resolution of a person staggers when its hold on the mind is shaken, and begins to give way; a nation or a government will totter when it is torn by intestine convulsions.
Nathless, it bore his foe not from his cell, But made him stagger as he were not well. Spenser.
The clouds, commir'd
With stars, swift gliding sweep along the sky : All nature reels.

THOMson.
Troy nods from high, and totters to her fall.
Dayden.

TO STAIN, SOIL, SULLY, TARNISH.
STAIN, v. Blemish. SOIL and SULLY, from the French souiller, signifying to smear with dirt. TARNISH, in French ternir, probably from the Latin tero, to bruise.

All these terms imply the act of diminishing the brightness of an object; but the term stain denotes something grosser than the other terms, and is applied to inferior objects: things which are not remarkable for purity or brightness may be stained, as hands when stained with blood, or a wall stained with chalk; nothing is sullied or tarnished but what has some intrinsic value; a fine picture or piece of writing may be easily soiled by a touch of the finger; the finest glass is the soonest tarnished: hence, in the moral application, a man's life may be stained by the commission of some gross immorality: his honor may be sullied, or his glory tarnished.
Thou, rather than thy justice should be stainsd, Didst stain the cross.

Young.

I cannot endura to be mistaken, or suffer my purer affections to be soiled with the odious attrlbutes of covetousness and ambitious falsehood.

Lord Wentworta.
Osthe would debase the dignity of virtue, Else I conld swaar by him, the power who clotbed The snn with light, and gave yon starry host Their chaste unoullied lustre.

Francis.
I sm not now what I once was; for, since I parted from thee, fate has tarnished my glories.

TBapp.
TO STAND, STOP, REST, STAGNATE.
To STAND, in German stehen, etc., Latin sto, Greek sorqut, to stand, Hebrew sut, to settle. STOP, in Saxon stoppan, etc., conveys the ideas of pressing, thickening, like the Latin stipa, and the Greek aret$\beta \varepsilon \iota$; whence it has been made in English to express immovability. REST, $v$. Ease. STAGNATE, in Latin stagnatus, participle of stagno, comes from stagnum, a pool, and that either from sto, to stand, because waters stand perpetually in a pool, or from the Greek $\sigma \pi \varepsilon \gamma \boldsymbol{\nu}_{\mathrm{g}}$, an enclosure, becanse a pool is an enclosure for waters.

The absence of motion is expressed by all these terms; stand is the most general of all the terms: to stand is simply not to move; to stop is to cease to move: we stand either for want of inclination or power to move; but we stop from a disinclination to go on: to rest is to stop from an express dislike to motion; we may stop for purposes of convenience, or because we have no farther to go, but we rest from fatigue.
The leaders having charge from you to stand, Will not go off until they hear you speak.

Shakspeare.
He seemad ss if he wished to atop, but was impelled forward by an invisible power.

Thither let us tand From off the tossing of thess fiery waves, Then rest, if any rest can harbor there.

Shaispeare.
To stagnate is only a species of standing as respects liquids; water may both stand and stagnate; but the former is a temporary, the latter a permanent stand: water stands in a puddle, but it stagnates in a pond or in any contined space.
Where Ufans-gides slong the lowly lands, Or the black water of Pomptina stands.

Dryden.
The water which now rises must all have stagnated.

WOODFARD,

All these terms admit of an extended application; business stands still, or there is a stand to business; a mercantile house stops, or stops payment ; an affair rests undecided, or rests in the hands of a person; trade stagnates.

Whither can wa run, Where make s stand f

Deymen.
I am afraid, should I put a stop now to thiy design, now that it is so near being completed, I shall find it difficult to resume it.

Melmota's Plint.
Who rests of immortality assur'd
Is safe, whstever ills are here endur'd. Jenyns.
The soul, deprived of those ventilations of pas. sions which arise from social intercourse, is reduced to s stste of stagnation.

Beatitie.

## STATE, REALM, COMMONWEALTH.

The STATE is that consolidated part of a nation in which lies its power and greatness. The RFALM, from royaume, a kingdom, is any state whose government is monarchical. The COMMONWEALTH is the grand body of a nation, consisting both of the government and people, which forms the commonweal, welfare, or wealth.

The ruling idea in the sense and application of the word state is that of government in its most abstract sense; affairs of State may either respect the internal regulations of a country, or they may respect the arrangements of different states with each other. Tbe term realm is employed for the nation at large, but confined to such nations as are monarchical and aristocratical; peers of the realm sit in the English Parliament by their own right. The term commonwealth refers rather to the aggregate body of men and their possessions, than to the government of a country: it is the business of the minister to consult the interests of the commonwealth.
No man that understands the State of Poland and the United Provinces will be able to range them under any particular names of govarnment that have been invented.

Temple.
Then Saturn came, who fled the power of Jove, Robb'd of his realms, and banished from alove.

Dryden.
Civil dissension is a viperous worm,
That gnaws the bowels of the commonwaalth.
Shakspeari.

## TO STICK, CLEAVE, ADHERT.

STICK is in Saxon stican, low German steken, Latin stigo, Greek $\sigma r \iota \gamma \omega$, to prick,

Hebrew stock, to press. CLEAVE, in Saxon cleofen, low German Kliven, Danisb klacev, is conneoted with our words glue and lime, in Latin gluten, Gricek co $\lambda \lambda a$, lime. ADHERE, v. To attach.

These terms all express the being joined to a body so as not to part from it without an effort. Stick, which is the general and familiar expression, denotes a junction more or less close: things may stick very slightly, so as to come off with the smallest touch, or things may be made to stick together so fast that they cannot be separated; wetted paper may stick for a time, and by means of glue may stick firmly.
The green caterpillar breedeth in the inward parts of roses not blown where the dew sticketh.

Bacon.
What sticks may stick in any manner, but what adheres, when said of natural bodies, adheres by the sticking on the outer surface: a foot sticks in the mud; wax adleres to the fingers. Adhesion, denoting a property of matter, is a scientific term.
Why, therefore, may not the minute parts of other bodies, if they be convenisntly slaped for adhesion, stick to one another, as well as to this spirit?

Boyle.
Cleave is seldomer used than either of the other terms, but always implies a close $a d h e s i o n$ produced by some particular cause.

See ! how the mould, as loath to leave So sweet a burded, still doth cleave. Waller.

Stick and adhere may also be applied figuratively, with the like distinction.

Adieu, then, 0 my soul's far better part ;
Thy image sticks 80 close
That the blood follows from my rending heart.
Dryden.
That there's a God from nature's voice, is clear ; And yet what errors to this trath adhere!

Jentis.
As the act of conscious agents, stick is, as before, the familiar expression, whether applied to material or spiritual objects; a person may stick with his body or his mind to anything: in hoth cases it is an act of determination or perseverance.
The boys were gandily dressed, and made a pretty appearancs. We were sarprised to see how well they stuck on (their horses).

Brydone.

A person cleaves or adheres to an object, in the former case out of feeling, in the latter case from principle: a drowning man will clcave to anything by which he can be saved; a conscientions man adheres to the trith.
Gold and his gains no mors employ his mind, But, driving o'er the hillows with the wind, Cleaves to one faithful plank, and leaves the resi behind.

Rowe.
He showed his flrm adherence to it (religion).
ADDIEON.
TO STIFLE, SUPPRESS, SMOTHER.
STIFLE is a frequentative of stuff, in Latin stipo, and Greek $\sigma \tau v \phi \omega$, to make tight or close. SUPPRESS, v. To repress, SMOTHER, as a frequentative of smlat or smoke, signifies to cover with smut or smoke.

Stifle and smother in their literal sense will be more properly considered under the article of Suffocate, ctc. (v. To suffocate); they are here taken in a moral application. The leadng idea in all these terms is that of keeping out of vlew : stifle is applicable to the feelings only; suppress to the feelings or to outward circumstances; smother to outward circumstances only ; we stifle resentment; we suppress anger: the former is an act of some continuance; the latter is the act of the moment: we stifle our resentment by abstaining to take any measures of retaliation; we suppress the rising emotion of anger, so as not to give it utterance or even the expression of a look. It requires time and powerful motives to stiffe, hut only a single effort to suppress ; nothing but a long course of vice can enable a man to stifle the admotitions and reproaches of conscience; a sense of prudence may sometimes lead a man to suppress the joy which an occurrence produces in his mind. In regard to outward circumstances, we say that a book is suppressed by the authority of government; that vice is suppressed by the exertions of those who have power : an affair is smothered so that it shall not become generally known, or the fire is smothered under the embers.

Art, brainless art 1 our farlous charioteer (For nature's voice unstifled would recall), Drivss headlong to the precipice of death.

Youna

They foresaw the violence with which this indignation would burst out after being so long suppressed.

Roaertson.
Great and generous principles not being kept up and cherished, but pmothered in sensual delights, God suffers them to sink into low and fnglorious satisfaction.

South.

## TO STIR, MOVE.

STIF is in German stören, old German stiren or steren, Latin turbo, Greek $\tau v \rho \beta \eta$ or $\theta o p v \beta \eta$, trouhle or tumult. MOVE, v. Motion.

Stir is bere a specific, move a generic term: we may move in any manner, but to stir is to move so as to disturb the reat and compogure either of the body or mind; the term stir is therefore mostly employed in casea where any motion, however amall, is a diaturbance: a soldier muat not stir from the poat which he has to defend ; atrocious criminals or pergons raving mad are bound hand and foot, that they may not stir.
At first the groves are scarcely seen to stir.
Thomson.
I've read that things inanimate have mov'd, And as with living souis have been inform'd, By magic numbers and persuasive sounds.

Conoheve.

## STOCK, STORE.

STOCK, from stick, stock, stow, and stuff, gignifies any quantity laid up. STORE, in Welsh stor, comes from the Hehrew satar, to hide.

The ideas of wealth and stahility being naturally allied, it is not surpriaing that stock, which expresses the latter idea, should also be put for the former, particularly as the abundance here referred to serves as a foundation, in the same manuer as stock in the literal sense does to a tree. Store likewise implies a quantity; but, agreeahle to the derivation of the word, it implies an accumulated quantity. Any quantity of materials which is in hand may serve as a stock for a given purpose; thus a few shillings with some persons may be their stock in trade : any quantity of materials brought together for a given purpose may serve as a store; thus the industrious ant collects a store of grain for the winter. The stock is that which must increase of itself; it is the source and foundation of industry: the store is that which we must add to occasionally; it is that from which we draw
in time of need. By a stock we gain rich ea; by a store we guard against want.

Prodigal men
Feel not their own stock wasting.
B. Joneon.

He left great ators of arms.
Clamendon.
The same distinction qubsista between these words in their moral application; he who wishea to apeak a foreign language muat have a stock of familiar worda; stores of learning are frequently lost to the world for want of means and opportunity to bring them forth to public view.
He had thereby an opportnnity to gain a new siock of reputation and honor. Clarendon.

Ii will not suffice to raily ali one's iittle utmost Into one's discourse, which can constitute a divine. Any man would then quickiy be drained; and his short stock: would serve but for one meeting in ordinary converse; therefore these must be store, plenty, and a treasure, lest he turn broker in divinity.

Soutr.
As verba, to stock and to store both signify to provide; but the former is a provision for the present use, and the latter for some future purpose: a tradesman stocks himself with such articlea as are most salable; a fortress or a ship is stored: a person stocks bimself with patience, or stores hia memory with knowledge.

Finding his country pretty weil atooked with inhabitants, he instituted a poll.

Pottre.
To atore the vessel let the care be mine. Pope,

## STORY, TALE.

The STORY ( $v$. Anecdote) is either an actual fact or something feigned; the TALE ( $v$. Fable) is alwaya feigned: stories are circulated respecting the accidenta and occurrences which happen to persons in the same place; talcs of diatress are told by many merely to excite compassion. When both are taken for that which is fictitious, the story is either an untruth, or falsifying of some fact, or it is altogether an invention; the tale is always an invention. As an untruth, the story ia commonly told by children ; and as a fiction, the story is commonly made for children: the tale is of deeper invention, formed by men of mature understanding, and adapted for persons of mature years.
Meantime the village rouses ap the fire, While well attested, and as weif believed, Heard snlemn, goes the goblin story round.

Thomson.

He makes that pow'r to trembling nations known, But rarely this, not for each vulgar end, As superstitious idle tales pretend. Jenyns.

## STRAIGHT, RIGHT, DIRECT.

STRAIGHT, from the Latin strietus, participle of stringo, to tighten or bind, signifies confined, that is, turning neither to the right nor left. Straight is applied, therefore, in its proper seuse, to corporcal objects; a path which is straight, is kept within a shorter space than if it were curved. RIGHT and DIRECT, from the Latin rectus, regulated or made as it ought, are said of that which is made by the force of the understanding, or by an actual effort, what one wishes it to be: hence, the mathematician speaks of a right line, as the line which lies most justly hetween two points, and has been made the basis of mathematical figures; and the moralist speaks of the right opinion, as that which bas beer formed by the best rule of the understanding; and, on the same ground, we speak of a direct answer, as that which has been framed so as to bring soonest and easiest to the point desired.
Truth is the shortest and nearest way to our end, carrying us thither in a straight line. Tillotson. Then from pole to pole He views in breadth, and, without longer panse, Down right into the world's first region throws His flight precipitant.

Militon.
There be that are in nature faithful and sincere, and plain and direct, not crafty and lnvolved.

Bacon.

## STRAIN, SPRAIN, STRESS, FORCE.

STRAIN and SPRAIN are without doubt variations of the same word, namely, the Latin stringo, to pull tight, or to stretch; they have now, however, a distinct application : to strain is to extend beyond its ordinary length by some extraordinary effort; to sprain is to strain so as to put out of its place, or extend to an injurious length : the ankle and the wrist are liable to be sprained by a contusion; the back and other parts of the body may be strained by over-exertion.

In all pain there is a deformity hy a solution of continuity, as in cutting, or by a tendency to solution, as in convulsions and strains. Grew. Should the big last extend tha shoe too wide, The sudden turn may stretch the swelling vein, Thy cracking joint unlinge or ankle sprain.

GAE.

Strain and STRESS are kindred termg as being both variations of stretch and stringo; hut they differ now very considerably in their application: figuratively we speak of straining a nerve, or straining a point, to express making great exertions, even beyond our ordinary powers; and morally we speak of laying a stress upon any particular measure or mode of action, signifying to give a thing importance: the strain (v. Stress) may be put for the course of sentiment which we express, and the manner of expressing it; the atress (v. Stress) may be put for the efforts of the voice in uttering a word or syllable: a writer may proceed in a strain of panegyric or invective; a speaker or a reader lays a stress on certain words by way of distinguishing them from others. To stratn is properly a species of FORCING; we may force in a variety of ways, that is, by the exercise of force upon different bodies, and in different directions; put to strain is to exercise force by stretching or prolonging bodies; thus to strain a cord is to pull it to its full extent; but we may speak of forcing any hard substance in, or forcing it out, or forcing it through, or forcing it from a hody: a door or a lock may be forced by violently breaking them; but a door or a lock may be strained by putting the binges or the spring out of their place. So, likewise, a person may be said to force himself to speak, when by a violent exertion he gives utterance to his words; but he strains his throat or his voice when he exercises the force on the throat or lungs so as to extend them. Force and stress, as nouns, are in like manner comparable when they are applied to the mode of utterance; we must use a certain force in the pronunciation of every word; this, therefore, is indefinite and gencral; but the stress is that particular and strong degree of force which is exerted in the pronunciation of certain words.

There was then (before the fall) no poring, no struggling with memory, no straining far invention.

SodTa.
Was ever any one observed to come out of a tavern fit for his study, or indeed for anything requiring stress f

South.
Oppose not rage, whlle rage is in its force.
SHAKHPEAEE

## strait, narrow.

STRAIT, in Latin strictus, participle of stringo, to bind close, signifies bound tight, that is, brought into a small compass: NARROW, which is a variation of near, expresses a mode of nearness or closences. Strait is a particular term; narrow is general: straitness is an artificial mode of narrowness; a coat is strait which is made to compress a body within a small compass: narrow is either the artificial or the natural property of a body; as a narrow ribbon, or a narrow leaf. That which is strait is so by the means of other bodies, as a piece of water confined close on each side by land is called a strait: whatever is bounded by sides that are near each other is narrow; thus a piece of land whose prolonged sides are at a small distance from each other is narrow.

They are afraid to meet her if they have missed the church, hut then they are more afraid to see her, if they are laced as strait as they can possilily be.

Law.

## No narrow frith

He had to pass.
Milton.
The same distinction applies to these terms in their moral or extended use.
A faithless heart, how dosplcably small, Too strait aught great or generous to reeeive!

Youna.
Men shonld accustom themselves by the light of particulars to enlarge their minds to the amplitude of the world, and not reduce the world to the narrowness of their minds.

Bacon.

## STRANGER, FOREIGNER, ALIEN.

STRANGER, in Freoch étranger, LatIn extraneus or extra, in Greek $\varepsilon \xi$, signifies out of, that is, out of another country : FOREIGNER, from foris, ubroad, and ALIEN, from alienus, another's, bave obviously the same original meaning: they have, however, deviated in their acceptations.

Stranger is a general term, and applies to one not known, or not an inhabitant, whether of tbe same or avother country; foreigner is applied only to strangers of another country; and alien to one who Las no political or natural tie. Ulysses, after his raturn from the Trojan war, was a stranger in his own house; the French are foreigners in England, and the English in France; neither can an-
joy, as aliens, the same privileges in a foreign country as they do in their own: the laws of hospitality require us to treat strangers with more ceremony than wa do members of the same family, or very intimate friends: the lower orders of the English are apt to treat foreigners with an undeserved contempt; every alien is obliged, in time of war, to have a license for residing in England.

In primitive times the Athenians excluded all atrangers, that is, all that were not members of their commonwealth.

Potter.
I am a most poor woman, and a foreigner; Not boru in your dominioos. Shakgpeaze. Like you, an alien in a land unknown, I learn to pity woes so like my own. Dhyden.

Stranger is sometimes taken for one not acquainted with an object, or not experienced in its effects : foreigner is used only in the proper sense; but the epithet foreign sometimes signifies not belonging to an object: alien is applied in its natural sense to that which is uncon. nected by any tie.
I was no stranger to the original; I had also studied Virgil's design, and his disposition of it.

Pope.
All the distinctions of this little life
Are quite eutaneous, quite foreion to the man.
Young.
To the foster-parent give the care
Of thy superfluons brood; she'll cherish kind The alien offspring.

Somenvilee.

## STREAM, CURRENT, TIDE.

A rldid body in a progressive motion is the object described in common by these terms: STREAM is the most general, the other two are but modes of the stream: stream, in Saxon stream, in German strom, is an onomatopœia which de scribes the prolongation of any body in a narrow line along the surface; a CURRENT, from curro, to run, is a stream running in a particular direction; and a TIDE, from tide, in German zeit, time, is a periodical stream or current. All rivers are streams, which are more or less gentle according to the nature of the ground through which they pass; the force of the current is very much increased by the confinement of any water between rocks, or by means of artificial impediments: the tide is high or low, strong or weak, at different hours of the day; when the tide is high, the current is atrongest.

Benesth the hedge or near tha stream A worm is known to stray, That tbrows by night a lucid beam Which disappears by day.

Cowpen.
His body is said to have been found some time afterward near Tanrominium (about thirty miles distant), it having been observed that what is swallowed up by Charybdis is carried south by the current, and thrown out apon that coast.

Baypone.
When in her gulfs the rushing sea subsides,
She drains tha ocean with her refluent tides.
Pope.
From knowing the proper application of these terms, their figurative and mor. al application become obvious: a stream of air or a stream of light is a prolonged moving body of air or light; so a stream of charity, bounty, and the like, is that which flows in a stream: a curvent of air is a particulur stream of eir passing through or between other bodies, as the current of air in a house; so the current of men's minds or opinions, that is, the running in a particular line: the tide beiog a temporary stream; fashion, or the ruling propensity of the day, may be der nominated a tude: it is sometimes vain to attempt to stem the tide of folly, it is therefore wiser to get out of its reach.
When now the rapld stream of aloquence Bears all bafors it, passion, raason, banse, Can its dread thunder or its 1Ightning's forca Darive thair assance from a mortal sourca? Jentins.
With socret courss, which no loud storms annoy, Glidas the smooth ourrent of domestic joy.

Goldsmith.
There is a tide in the affairs of man, Which taken at the flood leads on to fortung.

Shakspeare.

## TO STRENGTHEN, FORTIFY, INVIGORATE.

STRENGTHEN, from strength, and FORTIFY, from fortis and facio, signify to make strong: INVIGORATE signifies to put in vigor (v, Energy).
Whatever adds to the strength, be it in ever so small a degree, strengthens; exercise strengthens either body or mind: whatever gives strength for a particular emergence fortifies; religion fortifies the mind against adversity: whatever adds to the strength, so as to give a positive degree of strength, invigorates; morning exercise in fine weather invigorates.

There is a certain bias toward knowledge in evary mind, which may be strengthened and improved.

Budgell.

This relation will not be wholly without tha use, if those who languish under any part of its sufferings shall be enabled to fortify their patience by reflecting tbat they feel only those afflictions from which the abilities of Sav ige could not exempt him.

Joanson.
For mnch the pack
(Rons'd from their dark alcovgs) delight to etretch
And bask in his invigorating ray. Somervilue.
STRENUOUS, BOLD.
STRENU0US, in Latin strenuus, from the Greek $\sigma \tau \rho \eta \nu \eta s$, undaunted, untamed, that is, $\sigma \tau \rho \eta \nu i a \omega$, to be without all rein or control, expresses much more than BOLD (v. Bold); boldness is a prominent idea, but it is only one idea which enters into the signification of strenuousuess; this combines likewise fearlessness, ac. tivity, and ardor. An advocate in a cause may be strenoous, or merely bold; in the former case he omits nothing that can be either said or done in favor of the cause, he ls always on the alert, he heeds no difficulties or danger; but in the latter case he only displays hls spinit in the undisguised declaration of his sen. tlments. Sirenuous supporters of any opinion are always strongly convinced of the truth of that which they support, and warmly impressed with a sense of its im. portance; but the bold supporter of an opinion may be lmpelled rather with the desire of showing his boldness than maintaining his point.
While tha good waathar continuad, I strollad about the country, and made many atrenuous attempts to run away from this odious giddiness. Beattie.
Fortune befriends the $b$ old.
Dayden.
STRESS, STRAIN, EMPHASIS, ACCENT.
STRESS ( $v$. Strain) and STRAIN (v. Strain) are general hoth in sease and application; the former still more than the latter: EMPHASIS, from the Greek фaı $\nu \omega$, to appear, signifying making to appear, and ACCENT, in Latin accentus, from cano, to siog, signifying to suit the tune or tone of the voice, are modes of the stress. Stress is applicable to all bodies, the powers of which may be tried by exertion; as the stress upon a rope, upon a shaft of a carriage, a wheel or spring in a machine: the strain is an excessive stress, by which a thing is thrown out of its course; there may be a strain in most
cases where there ls a stress: but stress and strain are to be compared with emphasis and accent, particularly in the exortion of the voice, in which case the stress is a strong and special exertion of the voice on one word, or one part of a word, so as to distinguish it from another; but the strain is the undue exertion of the voice beyond its usual pitch, in the utterance of one or more words: we lay a stress for the conveniance of others; but when we strain the voice it is as much to the annoyance of others as it is hurtful to ourselves. The stress may consist ia an elevation of voice, or a prolonged utterance; the emphasis is that species of stress which is employed to distinguish one word or syllable from another : the stress may be accidental; but the emphasis is an intentional stress: ig. norant people and children are often led to lay the stress on little and unimportant words in a sentence; speakers sometimes find it convenient to mark particular words, to which they attach a value, by the emphasis with which they utter them. The stress may be casual or regular, on words or syllables; the accent is that kind of regulated stress which is laid on one syllable to distinguish it from another: there are many words in our own language, suoh as subject, object, present, and the like, where, to distinguish the verb from the noun, the accent falls on the last syllable for the former, and on the first syllable for the latter.

Those English ayllables which I call long oncs receive a peculiar stress of voice from thalr acute or circumtlox accent, as in quíckly, dêwry.

Fostar.
Singing differs from vocifaration in this, that it conslsts in a certain harmony; nor is lt performed with so mach straining of the voice.

JAMES.
Emphasis not so much regards the time as a certain grandeur whereby some letter, syllable, word, or sentence is rendered more remarkable than the rest by a more vigorons pronanciation sad a long stay opon it.

Holder.
The correctnass and harmeny of English versa depends antiraly upon its being composed of a certain number of syllables, and its having the accente of those syllables properly placed.

Tyawditr.
In reference to the use of words, these terms may admit of a further distinction; for we may lay a stress or emphasis on a particular point of our reasoning, in the
first case, by enlarging upon it longer than on other points; or, in the second case, by the use of stronger expressions or epithets. The strain or accent may be employed to designate the tone or manner in which we express ourselves, that is, the spirit of our discourse : in familiar language, we talk of a person's proceeding in a strain of panegyric, or of censure; but, in peetry, persons are said to pour forth their complaints in tender accents.

After such a migbty stress, so irrationally laid upen two sllght, empty words (" self-coasciousness" and "mntual consciousness"), have tbey made anything but the anthor himself (Sherlock on the Trinity) better understood? South
The Idle, who are neither wise for this world nor the next, are emphatically called by Docter Tillotson "fools at large."

Spectator.
An assured hope of future glory raises hilm to a pursuit of a more than ordinary strain of duty and perfection.

South
Fcr thee my tuneful accents will I raise.
Datien, STRICT, SEVERE,
STRICT, from strictus, bound or confined, characterizes the thing which binds or keeps in control: SEVERE (v. Austere) characterizes in the proper sense the disposition of the person to inflict pain, and in an extended application the thing which inflicts pain. The term strict is, therefore, taken always in the good sense; severe is good or bad, according to circumstances : he who has authority over others must be strict in enforcing obedience, in keeping good order, and a proper attention to their duties; but it is possible to be very severe in punishing those who are under us, and yet very lax in all matters that our duty demands of us.
If a strict hand be kept over children, they will at that age be tractable.

Loces.
Lycurgus then, who bow'd beneath the force Of strictest discipline, severely wise,
All human passions.
Thomson.
Strict may with propricty be applied to one's self as well as others : severe is applled to one's self, only to denote selfmortification.
He was so strict in the observation of his word and promise as a commander, that he was not to be persuaded to stay in the West when be found it was not in his power to perform his agreement.

Clabendon.
Those inflomities and that license which he bad formerly indulged to himself, he put off with ssesrity.

Clerendon.

## STRIFE, CONTENTION.

STRIFE aod CONTENTION, though derived from the verbs strive and contend ( $v$. To strive), have this further distinction, that they are both taken in the bad sense for acts of anger or passion; in this case strife is mostly used for verbal strife, where each party strives against the other by the use of contumelious or provoking expressions ; contention is used for an angry striving with others, either in respect to matters of opinion or matters of claim, in which each party seeks to get the better of the other. Strife is the result of a quarrelsome humor; contention, of a restless, selfish, and greedy humor: strife is most commonly to be found in private life; contention but too frequently mingles itself in all the affairs of men.

A solid and substantial greatness of soul looks down with a generous neglect on the cengures and applauses of the multitude, and places a man beyond the little noise and strife of tongnes.

Aoulson.

## Contention bold with iron lungs,

And slander with her hundred tongues. Moore.

## sTRIVI, CONTEND, VIE.

STRIVE, in Saxon strafan, Dutch streven, like the Latin strapo, to bustle, comes in all probability from the Hebrew rob, to contend, to prosecute a claim, properly signifying to use an effort. CONTEND, $v$, To contend. VIE may either be changed from view, signifying to look at with the desire to excel, or from the Saxon wigan, to contend with.

To strive is the act of individuals without regard to others; as when a person strives to get a living, or to improve himself; to contend and vie both denote the act of an individual in reference to others; as to contend in a lawsuit, to vie in dress. To strive may sometimes be applied where there is more than one party, as to strive for the mastery; but ia this case the efforts of the individual are more distinctly considered than when we opeak of contending for a prize; for this reason these words may be applied in precisely the same connection, but still with this distinction.

[^121]Mad as the winds
When for the empire of the msia they striva.
Dennia
Striving consists always of some active effort, as when persons strive at the oar ; contending may proceed verbally, as when men contend for their opinions; and vy. ing may be indicated by any expression of the wish to put one's self in a state of competition with another; as persons vi with each other in the grandeur of their houses or equipages.

[^122]Contend may be used in a moral application, as to contend with difficulties. and vie may be used figuratively, as one flower may be said to vie with another in the beauty of its colors.

One of the most alarming evils with which he liad to contend was intestine disaffection.

Bissex.
Shall a form
Of elemental dross, of mould'ring clay, Vio with these charms imperial? Mason,

STRONG, ROBUST, STURDY.
STRONG is in all probability a variation of strict, which is in German streng, because strength is altogether derived from the close contexture of bodies. ROBUST, in Latin robustus, from robur, signifies literally having the strength of oak. STURDY, like the word stout, steady (v. Firm), comes in all probability from stehen, to stand, signifying capable of standing.

Strong is here the generic term; the others are specific, or specify strength under different circumstances; robust is a positive and higb degree of strength arising from a peculiar bodily makc. a man may be strong from the strength of his constitution, from the power which is inherent in his frame; but a robust man has strength both from the size and texture of his body, he has a bone and nerve which is endowed with great power. A little man may be strong, although not robust; a tall, stont man, in full health, may be termed robust. A man may be strong in one part of his body and not in another; he may be stronger at one time, from particular circumstances, than he il at another: but a robust man is strong

In his whole body; and, as he is robust by nature, he will cease to be so only from disease.
If thou hast atrongth, 'twas Heaven that atrongth bestow'd.

Pope.
The huntsman, ever gay, robust, and bold, Defles the noxions vapor.

Somenville.
Sturdiness lies both in the make of the body and the temper of the mind: a sturdy man is capable of making resistance, and ready to make it; he must be naturally strong, and not of slender make, but he need not be robust: a sturdy peasant presents us with a man who, both by nature and habit, is formed for withstanding the inroads of an enemy.
This must be done, and I would fain see Mortal so sturdy as to gainsay

Hudiaras.
Things as well as persons may be said to be strong, as opposed to the weak; as a strong rope, a strong staff : robust and sturdy are only said of persons, or things personal ; as a robust make, a robust habit; a sturdy air, a sturdy stroke.
Full on the ankle fell the ponderous stone,
Burst the atrong nerves and crush'd the solid bone.

Pope.
Beef may confer robustness on my son's limbs, but will debilitate his mind. Agsethnor.
Beneath their sturdy stroked the billows roar.
Diyden.

## sTUPID, DULL.

STUPID, in Latin stupidus, from stupeo, to be amazed or bewildered, expresses an amazement which is equivalent to a deprivation of understanding : DULL is connected with the German toll and Swedish stollig, mad, and the Latin stultues, simple or foolish, and denotes a simple deficiency. Stupidity in its proper sense is natural to a man, although a particular circumstance may have a similar effect upon the understanding; he who is questioned in the presence of others may appear very stupid in that which is otherwise very familiar to him. Dull. is an incidental quality, arising principally from the state of the animal spirits: a writer may sometimes be dull who is otherwise vivacious and pointed; a person may be dull in a large circle, while he is very lively in private intercourse.

1 etupid butt is only fit for the conversation of ordinary pcople.

Addibon.

It is the great advantage of a tradling nation that there are very fow in it so dutl and heavy who may not be placed in stations of life which may give them an opportunity of making their fortunes.

Addison.

## SUAVITY, URBANITY.

SUAVITY is literally sweetness; and URBANITY the refinement of the city, in distinction from the country: inasmuch, therefore, as a polite education tends to soften the mind and the manners, it produces suavity; but suavity may sometimes arise from natural temper, and exist, therefore, without urbanity; although there cannot be urbanity without suavity. By the suavily of our manners we gain the love of those around us; by the urbanity of our manners we render ourselves agreeable companions: hence also arises another distinction, that the term suavity may be applied to other things, as the voice, or the style; but $u r$ banity to manners only.
The survity of Menander's style might be more to Plntarch's taste than the irregular sublimity of Aristophanes. Cumbemland.
The virtue called urbanity by the moralists, or a courtly behavior, consists in a desire to please the company.

Pops

## SUBJECT, LIABLE, EXPOSED, OBNOXious.

SUBJECT, in Latin subjectus, part1ciple of subjicio, to cast under, signifies thrown underneath. LIABLE, compounded of lie and able, significs ready to lie near or lie under. EXPOSED, in Latin expositus, participle of expono, compounded of ex and pono, signifies set out, set within the view or reach. OBNOXIOUS, in Latin obnoxius, compounded of $o b$ and noxium, mischief, signifies in the way of mischief.

All these terms are applied to those circumstances in human life by which we are affected independently of our own choice. Direct necessity is included in the term subject; whatever we are obliged to suffer, that we are subject to; we may apply remedies to remove the evil, but often in vain: liable convegs more the idea of casualties; we may suffer that which we are liable to, but we may also escape the evil if we are careful: exposed convers the idea of a passive state, into which we may be brought either through our own means or through the instrumed.
tality of others; we are exposed to that whieh we are not in a condition to keep off from ourselves; it is frequently not in our power to guard against the evil : obnoxious signifies properly exposed to the mischief of anything; as obnoxious to the multitude, that is, exposed to their resentment: a person may avoid bringing bimself into this state, but he cannot avoid the consequences which will ensue from being thus involved. We are subject to disease, or subject to death; this is the irrevocable law of our nature: tender people are liable to catch cold; all persons are liable to make mistakes: a person is exposed to insults who provokes the anger of a low-bred man: a minister sometimes renders himself obnoxious to the people.

> When we see oor enemies and friends gliding sway before ua, Iet us not forget that we are all subject to the general law of mortality.

Johnson.
The sinner is not only liceble to that disappointment of suecess which so often frastrates all the designs of men, but lietble to a disappointment still more eruel, of being successful and miserable at once.

Blair.
On the bare earth expos'd he lies,
With not a friend to close his eyes.
Dryden.
On the death of Lord Coventry, his loss was more visible and manifest in his successor, a man extramely andooious to the people on the subject of ship-money.

Clarendon.
Subject, liable, and exposed may be applied to things as well as persons, with a similar distinction: things are subject by nature, as subject to decay; liable by accident, as liable to be broken; exposed by situation, or for want of protection, as exposed to the cutting winds. Obnoxious is said only of persons, or that which is personal.
The devout man aspires after some priaciples of more perfect felicity, which shall not he subject to change or decay. Blaln.
The having two eyes might thus be said to be ather an inconvenience than a benefit; since sne eye would answer the purpose of sight as fell as two, and be less liable to illnsion. But $t$ ia otherwise.

Goldamitr.
The Spaniard's design by this allegory was to thow the many assaults to which the life of man is expposed.

Addison.
And much he blames the seftness of his mind, Obnoxious to the charms of womankind.

Dryden.
To suoject and expose, as verbs, are taken in the same sense: a person sub.
jects himself to impertinent freedoms by descending to indecent familiarities with his inferiors; he exposes himself to the derision of his equals by an affectation of superiority.

These feudal services being almost entirely arbitrary, subjected the tenants to many vexations.

ADAM Smite.
The ancient Grecians seemed to have treated the bodies of their dead enerniea in a very indecent manner, eaposing them to scorn and ignon miny.

Potter

## SUBJKCT, SUBORDINATE, INFERIOR, SUBSERVIENT.

SUBJECT, v. Subject. SUBORDi NATE, compounded of sub and order, signifies to be in an order that is under others. INFERIOR, in Latin inferior, comparative of inferus, low, which prohably comes from infero, to cast into, because inferiors are cast into places that are low. SUBSERVIENT, componnded of sub and servio, signifies serving under something else.

These terms may either express the relation of persons to persons or things, or of things to things. Subject in the first case respects the exercise of power; subordinate is said of the station and office; inferior, either of a man's outward circumstances, or of his merits and qualifications; subservient, of one's relative services to another, but always in a bad sense. Aceording to the law of nature, a child shonld be subject to his parents : according to the law of God and man, he mnst be subject to his prince: the good order of society cannot be rightly maintained unless there be some to act in a subordinate capacity: men of inferior talent have a part to act which, in the aggregate, is of no less importance than that which is sustained by men of the highest endowments: men of no priuciple or character will be most subservient to the base purposes of those who pay them best. It is the part of the princer to protect the subject, and of the subject to love and honor the prince: it is the part of the exalced to treat the subordinate with indulgence, and of the latter to show respect to those under whom they are placed: it is the part of the superior to instruct, assist, and encourage the inferior; it is the part of the latter to be willing to learn, ready to obey, and
prompt to exeoute. It is not necessary for any one to act the degrading part of being subservient to another.
Contemplate the world as subject to the DIvine dominion.

Blait.
Whether dark presages of the night procecd from any latent power of the sonl during her abstraction, or from any operation of subordinate spirits, has been a matter of dispute. Addison.

A great person gets more by obliging his inferior than disdaining him.

Suoth.
Wicked spirits may by their cunning carry farther on a sceming confederacy or subserviency to the designs of a good angel. Dryden.

In the second instance subject has the same sense as in the preceding article (v. Aubject), when taken in the relation of things to things; subordinate designates the degree of relative importance between things: inferior designates evory circumstance which can rendar thinga comparatively higher or lower; subserviont deaignates the relative utility of thinga under certain circumstances, but not al. waya in the bad sense. All things in this world are subject to change: mattors of subordinate consideration ought to be en. tirely set out of the quention when any grand object is to be obtained! things of inferior value must neoessarily sell for an inferior prioe: there is nothing no insignitieant but it may he made subservient to some purpose.

## Those copntries where there are volcanoes are most subject to earthquakes. GoLdsmitr, <br> The idea of pain in its highest degree is much stronger than the highest degree of pleasure, and preserves the same superiority through all the subordinate gredationg. <br> Buake.

I can myself remember the time when in respect of misic our reigning taste was in many degrees inferior to the French. Shaftesbery.

Though a writer may be wrong himselp, he may chance to make his errors subservient to the cause of truth.

Burys.

## TO SUBJEOT, SUBJUGATE, SUBDUE.

SUBJECT signifies to make subject. SUBJUGATE, from jugum, a yoke, sigoifies to bring under the yoke. SUBDUE, v. To conquer.

Subject is bere the generlc, the two others specific terms: we may subject either individuals or nations; but we sub. jugate only nations. We subject ourselves to reproof, to Inconvenience, or to the influence of our passions; one nation mubjugates another: subjugate and subdue
are beth employed with regard to nation: that are compelled to submit to the conqueror: butsubjugate expresses even more than subdue, for it implies to bring into a state of permanent submission; whereaa to suddue may be only a nominal and temporary subjection: Cæsar subjugated the Gauls, for he made them subjeets to the Roman empire; but Alexander sub. dued the Indian nations, whe revolted after his doparture.
Where there is no awe, there will be no oubjection.

South.
O fav'rite virgin, that hast werm'd the breast
Whose sov'reign dictates subjugate the east.
Thy son (nor is th' appointed season far)
In Italy shall wage successful war,
Till, affer every foe subdu' $d$, the snn
Thrice through the signs hls ennulal race shall run.

Daydre.

## TO SUBSIDE, ABATE, INTERMIT.

SUBSIDE, from the Lath $8 u b$ and sedeo, slgnifies to settle to the battom. ABATE, v. Abate. INTERMIT, from the Latln inter and mitto, sigalfies to leave a space or interval between.

A settlement after agitation is the peoullar meaning of subside. That whiloh has been put inta commation aubsides: heavy partioles subside in a fluid that is at rest, and tumulte are said to subside: a diminutlon of strength characterizes the meaning of abate; that which has been high in action may abate; the rain abates after it has been heavy; and a man's anger abates; alternate aotion and rest is implied in the word intermit; whatever is in action may somatimes cease from action; labor without intermission is out of the power of man.
It was not long before thla joy subsided. in the remembrance of that dignity from which I had fallen.

HawEegworta.
But first to Heav'n thy due devotions pay,
And annual gifts on Ceres' altar lay,
When winter's rage abates.
Dayden.
Whether the time of intermission be spent in company or in zolitude, the understanding la aba stracted from the object of inquiry. Jomssom,

## sUBSTANTIAL, SOLID.

SUBSTANTIAL signifies having a substance: SOLID, from solum, the ground, signifies having a firm foundation. The substantial is opposed to that which is thin and has no ponsistemey; the sulul in
opposed to the liquld, or that which is of loose consistency. All objects which admit of being handled are in their nature substantial; those which are of so bard a texture as to require to be cut are solid. Substantial food is that which has a conaistency in itself, and is capable of giving fulness to the empty stomach : solid food is meat in distinction from drink: so substantial beings are such as consist of flesh and blood, and may be touched, in distinction from those which are airy or spiritual ; the earth is solid which is so bardened as not to yield to pressure.

Melancholy spectrea visit the ruins of monasteries, and frequent the solitary dwellings of the dead. They pass and repass in unsubstantial inages along the forsaken galleries. Hanver.
A bank was thrown about its rising ground, and, being thus defended from the incursions of the sca, it became firm and solid. Goldsmith.

So in the moral application, the substantial is opposed to that which exists in the mind only, and which is frequently fictitious; as a substantial benefit, as distinguished from that which gratifies the mind: the solid is that which rests on reason, and has the properties of durability and reality, as a solid reputation.

Trusting in its own native and substantial worth, Scorns all meretricions ornaments. Maton.
As the swoln columns of ascending smoke,
So solid swells thy grandeur, pigmy man.
Yonno.
SUCCESSION, SERIES, ORDER.
SJCCESSION, signifying the act or state of succeeding ( $v$. To follow), is a matter of necessity or casualty: things succeed each other, or they are taken in succession either arbitrarily or by design: the SERIES ( $v$. Series) is a connected succession; the ORDER ( $v$. To place), the ordered or arranged succession. We observe the succession of events as a matter of curiosity; we trace the series of events as a matter of intelligence; we follow the order which the historian has pursued as a matter of judgment: the succession may be slow or quick; the series nay be long or short; the order may be correct or incorrect. The present age bas afforded a quick succession of events, and presented us with a series of atrocious attempts to disturb the peace of society under the name of liberty. The historian of these times needs only pursue the
order which the events themselves point out.
We can conceive of time only by the succession of ideas one to another. HAwEEsworti.
A number of distinct fables may contain all the topics of moral inatruction ; yet each muat be remembered by a distinct effort of the mind, and will not recur in a series becanse they have no connection with each other. HawEESTORTH.
In all verse, however familiar and easy, the words are necessarily thrown ont of the order in whicb tbey are commonly used.

Haweesworth.

## SUCCESSIVE, ALTERNATE.

What is SUCCESSIVE follows directly; what is ALTERNATE follows indirectly. A minister preaches successively who preaches every Sunday uninterruptedly at the same hour; but he preaches alternately if he preaches on one Sunday in the morning, and the other Sunday in the afternoon at the same place. The successive may be accidental or intentional; the alternate is always intentional; it may rain for three successive days, or a fair may be held for three successive days: trees are placed sometimes in alternate order, when every other tree is of the same size and kind.

Like leaves on trees, the race of men is found,
Now green in youth, now withering on the groand;
Another race the following spring supplies,
They fall successive, and successive rise. Pope.
The way of ainging the psalms alternotely, was when the congregation, dividing themselves ioto two parts, repeated the psalms by courses, verse for verse.

Bingham.

## TO SUFFOCATE, STIFLE, SMOTHER, CHOKE.

SUFFOCATE, in Latin suffocatus, participle of suffoco, compounded of sub and faux, signifies to constrain or tighten the throat. STIFLE is a frequentative of stuff, that is, to stuff excessively. SMOTHER is a frequentative of smoke. CHOKE is probably a variation of cheek, in Saxon ceac, becanse strangulation is effected by a compression of the throat under the cheek-bone.

These terms express the act of stopping the breath, but under various circumstances and by various means; suffocation is produced by every kind of means, external or internal, and is therefore the most general of these terms; stifing proceeds by internal means, that
fs, by the admiasion of foreign bodies into the passages which lead to the respiratory organs: we may be suffocated by exeluding the air externally, as by gagging, eonfining elosely, or pressing violently: we may be suffoeated or stifled by means of vapors, close air, or smoke. To smother is to suffocate by the exclusion of air externally, as by means of any substance with whieh one is covered or surrounded; as smoke, dust, and the like: to choke is a mode of stifting by means of large bodies, as by a pieee of food lodging in the throat.

A suffocating wind the pilgrim smites With instant death.

Tномаом.
Had the wind driven in our faces we had been in no small danger of stiffing by aulphnr.

Berkeley.
Many of them have crammed great quantities of scandal down hia throat, others have choked him with lewdness and ribaldry.

Soote.
The helpless traveller with wild surprise Sees the dry desert all arouod him rise, Aad, smothered in the dusty whirlwind, dies. AdDison.
To choke, in an extended and figurative sense, is to interrupt the aetion of any body hy the interveation of any foreign substanee, as a garden is choked with weeds; to stifle is altogether to put a stop or ead to a thing by keeping it down; as to stifle resentment, sighs, ete. : to smother is to choke or prevent free aetion by covering or surrounding, as good resolutions are smothered by unruly desires or appetites.

Avarice, like some choking weed, teaches the finger to gripe and the hand to oppress.

Harvey.
When my heart was ready with a sigh to cleave, I have, with mighty anguish of my sonl, Just at the birth stified this still-born sigh.

Shakspeare.
The love of Jealons men breaks ont furionsly (when the object of their loves is taken from them), and throws off all mixtnres of suspicion which choksd and smothered it before.

Addiaon.

## gUPERFICIAL, SHALLOW, FLIMSY.

The SUPERFICIAL is that whieh lies only at the surface; it is therefore by implication the same as the SHALLOW, whieh has nothing underneath: shallow being a variation of hollow or empty. Hence a person may be called either superficial or shallowe to indieate that he
has not a profundity of knowiedge; bnt otherwise, superficiality is applied to the exereise of the thinking faeulty, and shallowness to its extent. Men of free sentiments are superficial thinkers, althengh they may not have understandings more shallow than others. Superficial and shal low are applieable to things as well as persons: FLIMSY is applieable to things only. Flimsy most probably eomes from flame, that is, flamy, showy, easily seen through. In the proper sense we may speak of giving a superficial covering of paint or color to a body; of a river or pieee of water being shallow; of cotton or elath being flimsy.

It cannot have any extenslve, or, if I may ao call it, a superficial spread, for theo the coontry wonld be quickly undermined. Goldamitr.
The water in those places is found to grow more shallow. Goldsmith.
Those fimsy webs that break as soon as wrought,

Cowper.
In the improper sense, a survey or a glanee may be superficial whieh does not extend beyond the superficies of things; a conversation or a discourse may be shallow whieh does not contain a body of sentiment; and a work or performanee may be flimsy whieh has nothing solid in it to engage the attention.

By much labor we acquire a superfeicial acquaintance with a few sensible objects. Blair
I know thee to thy bottom; from within
Thy ahallow centre to the utmost skin.
Dhyoen.
Prond of a vast extent of flimay lines. Pope.

## SURFACE, SUPERFICIES.

SURFACE, eompounded of sur, for super, and face, is a variation of the Latin term SUPERFICIES; and yet they have aequired this distinetion, that the former is the vulgar, and the latter the scientifie term; of course the former has a more indefinite and general applieation than the latter. A surface is either even or uneven, smooth or rough; but the mathematician always eonceives of a plane superficies on which he founds his operar tions.
Nor to the surface of enlivened earth, Graceful with hills and dales and leafy woods, Her liberal tresses, is thy force conflimed.

Thomson,
There is nelther a straigbt line nor an exact superficies in all nature.

Goldsinta

Shrface, In its moral application, is extended to whatever presents itself first to the mind of the observer.
Errors like straws npon the surfoes flow, He who wonld search for pearls must dive below. Deyden.
Superficies may be applied in its proper and definite sense to other objects than those which relate to science.

Those who have undertaken the task of reconciling mankind to their present state frequently remind as that we view only the superficies of Iffe.

Johnson.

## TO SURROUND, ENCOMPASS, ENVIRON, encircle.

SURROUND, in old French surronder, signifies, by means of the intensive syllablo sur; over, to go all round. ENCOMPASS, compounded of en or in and compass, signifies to bring within a certain compass formed by a circle; so likewise ENVIRON, from the Latin gyrus, and the Greek rupos, a circle, and also ENCIRCLE, signify to bring within a circle.

Surround is the most literal and general of all these terms, which signify to enclose any object either directly or indirectly. We may surround an object by standing at certain distances all round it; in this manner a person may be surrounded by other persons, and a house surrounded with trees, or an object may be surrounded by enclosing it in every direction, and at every point; in this manner a garden is surrounded by a wall. To encompass is to surround in the latter sense, and applies to objects of a great or indefinite extent: the earth is encompassed by the air, which we term the atmosphere; towns are encompassed by walls. To surround is to go round an object of any form, whether square or circular, long or short; but to environ and to encircle carry with them the idea of forming a circle round an object; thus a town or a valley may be environed by hills, a basin of water may be encircled by trees, or the head may be encircled by a wreath of flowers.

But not to me returns Day, or the sweat approach of ev'n or morn, Bnt cloud instead, and ever-during dark Surrounde me.

Milton.
Where Orpheas on lids lyre laments his love,
With beasts enoompass'd, and a dancing grove.

Of fighting elements, on all sidas round Environ'd.

Miluto
As in the hollow breast of Apennine, Beneath the shelter of encircling hills, A myrtle rises, far from human eye, So flonrish'd, blooming, and unseen by all, Tha sweet Lavinia. Thomsor.

In an extended or moral sense we are said to be surrounded by objects which are in great numbers and in different directions about us: thus a person living in a particular spot where he has many friends may say he is surrounded by his friends, or environed by objects in such manner that he cannot escape from them; so likewise a particular person may say that he is surrounded by dangers and difficulties: but, in speaking of man in a general sense, we should rather say he is encompassed by dangers, which expresses in a much stronger manner our peculiarly exposed condition.
Behold surrounding kings their pow'r combine, And one capitulate, and one resign. Jonssox. Ah! what is life? With ills encompass' $d$ ronnd, Amidst our hope fate strikes the sudden wound.

Gar.
TO SUSTAIN, SUPPORT, MAINTAIN.
SUSTAIN, compounded of sis or sub and teneo, to hold, signifies to hold or keep up. SUPPORT, v. To countenance. MAINTAIN, v. To assert.

The idea of keeping up or preventing from falling is common to these terms, which vary either in the moode or object of the action. To sustain and support are frequently passive, maintain is al. ways active. To sustain and support both imply the bearing or receiving the weight of any object, the former in reference to any great weight, the latter to any weight however small.
With labor spent, no longer can he wield The heavy falchion, or sustain the shield, O'erwhelm'd with darts. DRyDEn, Stooping to support each flower of tender stalk. Milion.
Sustain and support may also imply an active exercise of power or means which bring them still nearer to main. tain; in this case sustain is an act of ths bighest power, support of any ordinary power.
The Lord of all, himself through all diffus'd, Sustains, and is the life of all that lives.

Cowpra

He was a great lover of his country, and of his religion and justice, which he believed would only support it.

Claaendon.
So in bearing up against any opposing force; but support is here an act for the benefit of others; maintain is an act for one's own benefit: as to sustain a shock; to support one another in battle; to maintain one's sclf in a contest.

Their whole body amounted to but one thouuand men, and these were to anstain the shock of an enemy nearly ten times their number.

Goldamits.
Mntnal interest induced them (the burghers) to support the king, and the king to support them against the lords.

Adam Smith.
As compass'd with a wood of spears around, The lordly lion still maintaini his ground, So Turnus fares.

DAYDEN.
Existence is said to be sustained under circumstances of weakness or pressure ; it is supported by natural mears, as the milk of the mother supports the babe; or indirectly by what supplies the means, as to support one's family by labor: what is maintained is upheld by pecuniary means, as to maintain a family, a fleet, etc.
The weakness of age and infancy was sustain. ed by his bounty.

Johneon.
Toward any who needed support or encouragement, though unknown, if fairly recommended, he was liberal.

Clarendon.
The fleet equipped at Athens was maintained after the manner prescribed by Themistocles till the time of Demosthenes.

Pottea.
In the moral application, what presses on the mind is sustained, or supported, with the like distinction: grievous losses or injuries are sustained; afflictions and disappointments supported.
Wrong he sustains with temper, looks on heav'n, Nor stnops to think his injurer his foe. Young.

When he beheld them melted into tears, he hlmself appeared quite unmoved, inwardly supported and comforted in that hour of agony.

Goldemith.
Things are supported and maintained voluntarily; the former in respect to what is foreign to us, as to support an assumed character, the latter in respect to what belongs to us, as to maintain one's own character.

Ireland was judged to be the proper theatre to support his assumed character. Goldsmita.
fod values no man more or less in placing him high and low, bnt every one us he maintaine his post.

Sauta.

## SYMMETRY, PROPORTION.

SYMMETRY, in Latin symmetria, Greek $\sigma \nu \mu \mu \varepsilon \tau \rho \iota a$, from $\sigma \nu \nu$ and $\mu \varepsilon \tau \rho \sigma \nu$, signifies a measure that accords. PRO. PORTION, in Latin proportio, compounded of pra and portio, signifies every portion or part according with the other, or with the whole.

The signification of these terms is ob. viously the same, namely, a due admeasurement of the parts to each other and to the wholc: but symmetry has now ac. quired but a partial application to the human body, or to things nicely fitting each other; and proportion is applied to everything which admits of dimensions, and an adaptation of the parts: hence we speak of symmetry of feature; but proportion of limbs, the proportion of the head to the body.

Sensual delights in enlarged minds give way to the sublimer pleasures of reason, which discover the causes and designs, the frame, connection, and symmetry of things.

Beakeley.
The inventors of stuffed hips had a better eye for due proportion than to add to a redundancy, because in some cases it was convenient to fill up a vacuum.

Cumazrland.
SYMPATHY, COMPASSION, COMMISERATION, CONDOLENCE.
SYMPATHY, from the Greek $\sigma v \mu$ or $\sigma v \nu$, with, and $\pi \alpha \theta$ os, feeling, has the literal meaning of fellow-feeling, that is, a kindred or like feeling, or feeling in com. pany with another. COMPASSION ( $v$. Pity) ; COMMISERA'TION, from the Latin com and miseria, misery; CONDOLENCE, from the Latio con and doleo, to grieve, signify a like suffering, or a suffering in company. Hence it is obvious that, according to the derivation of the words, the sympathy may either be said of pleasure or pain, the rest only of that which is painful. Sympathy preserves its original meaning in its application, for we laugh or cry by sympathy; this may, however, be only a merely physical operation.
You are not young, no more am 1; go to, then, there's sympathy: you are merry, so am I': ha i ha! then there's more sympathy. Seakspeare.

Compassion is altogether a moral feeling, which makes us enter into the distresses of others: we may, therefore, sympathize with others, without essential-
y serving them; but, if we feel compassion, we naturally turn our thoughts toward relieving them.

Their countrymen were particularly attentive to their story, and sympathized with these heroes in all their adventures.

Addison.
'Mongst these whom honest lives can recommend, Our justice more compassion should extend.

Denham.
Sympathy, indeed, may sometimes be taken for a secret alliance or kindred feeling between two objects.
Or sympathy, or some connatural force, Powerful at greatest distance to unite With secret amity, things of like kind By secretest conveyance.

Milton.
Tbat mind and body eften sympathize Is plain: such is this union nature ties. Jenins.

Compassion is awakened by any sort of suffering, but particularly those which are attributable to our misfortunes; commiseration is awakened by sufferings arising from our faults; condolence is awakened by the troubles of life, to which all are equally liable. Poverty and want excite our compassion; we endeavor to relieve them: a poor eriminal suffering the penalty of the law excites our commiseration; we endeavor, if possible, to mitigate his punishment: the loss which a friend sustains produces condolence; we take the best means of testifying it to him.

I am very sorry that her Majesty did net see this assembly of ebjects, so proper to excite that charity and compasion which she bears to every one who stallds in need of it. Andison.

> Her lowly plight

Immevable, till peace, obtained from fault
Acknowledg'd and deplored, in Adam wrought Commiseration. Micton.
Rather than all must suffer, some mnst die, Yet nature must condole their misery.

Denham.
Compassion is the sentiment of ono mortal toward another; commiseration is represented as the feeling which our wretchedness excites in tbe Supreme $\mathrm{Be}_{-}$ ing. Compassion may be awakened in persons of any condition; commiseration is awakened toward those who are in an abject state of misery; condolence supposes an entire equality, and is often produced by some common calamity.

[^123]ADDISON.

Then must we those who groan beneath ths weight Of age, disease, or want, commiserate !

Deneam.
Why should I think that all tbat devont innltitude which so lately cricd Hosanna in the streets, did not also bear their part in those pnblic condolings (in the crucifixion of our Saviour)?

Hall.

## SYSTEM, METHOD.

SYSTEM, in Latin systema, Greek $\sigma v \sigma$ $\tau \eta \mu a$, from $\sigma v \sigma \tau \eta \mu \nu$, or $\sigma v \nu$ and $\tau \sigma \tau \eta \mu$, to stand together, signifies that which is put together so as to form a whole. METHOD, in Latin methodus, from the Greek $\mu \varepsilon \tau a$ and odog, a way by which anything is effected.

System expresses more than method, which is but a part of system: system is an arrangement of many single or indi vidual objects according to some given rule, so as to make them coalesce; meth. od is the manner of this arrangement, or the principle upon which this arrangement takes place. The term system, however, applies to a complexity of objects; but arrangement, and consequently meth. od, may be applied to everything that is to be put into execution. All sciences must he reduced to system; and without system there is no science: all business requires method; and without method little can be done to any good purpose.

If a better syatem's thine, Impart it frankly, or make use of mine.

Financis.
The great defect of the Seasons is the want of method, hut for this I know not that there was any remedy.

Johnsen.

## T.

## TO TAKE, RECEIVE, ACCEPT.

TAKE, from the Latin tactum, participle of tango, is as much as to get into one's possession by touching or laying hands on it. RECEIVE, in French recevoir, Latin recipio, from re and capio, significs to take back; and ACCEPT, from $a c$ or $a d$ and capio, signifies to take for a special purpose.

To take is the general term, receive and aceept are modes of taking. To take is an unqualificd action; we take whatever comes in the way; we receive only that
which is offered or sent: we take a book from a table; we receive a parcel which has been sent; we take either with or without consent; we receive with the consent, or according to the wishes, of another: a robber takes money from a traveller; a person receives a letter from a friend.

Each takes his seat, and each recetves his share.
Pope.
To receive is frequently a passive act; whatever is offered or done to another is received; but to accept is an act of choice: many things, thercfore, may be received which cannot be accepted; as a person receives a blow or an insult: so in an engagement one may be said to receive the enemy, who is ready to receive his attack; on the other hand, we accept apologies.
Till, aeiz'd with ahame, they wheel about and face, Receive their foes, and raise a threat'ning cry; The Tuscans take their turn to fear and fly.

Dryden.
She accepted my apology, and we are again reconciled.

Bbydone.
Some things are both received and accepted, but with the same distinction. What is given as a present may be both received and accepted, but the inferior receives and the superior accepts. What is received comes to a person either by indirect means, or, if by direct means, it comes as a matter of right ; but what is accepted is a matter of favor either on the part of the giver or receiver. Rent in law may be both reccived and accepted; it is received when it is due from the tenant, but it is accepted if it he received from a tenant after he has broken his contract with his landlord. A challenge may be received contrary to the wishes of the receiver, hut it rests with himself whether he will accept it or not.
Unransom'd here receive the apotless fair, $\Delta$ ccept the hecatomb the Greeks prepare. Pope.

Animals and things, as well as persons, may take; things may receive; but persons only accept. An animal may take what is offered to it; things take whatever attaches to them, but they receive that which by an express effort is given to them. The chameleon is said to take its hue from the surrounding objects; marble receives its polish from the hands of the workman.

The sapless wood, divested of the bark, Growa fungous, and takes fire at every spark.

Cowpra
The soft settee, one elbow at each end, And in the midst an elbow it received, United, yet divided.

Cowper
TALKATIVE, LOQUACIOUS, GARKU-
LOUS.
TALKATIVE implies ready or prone to talk (v. To speak). LOQUACIOUS, from loquor, to speak or talk, has the same original meaning. GARRULOUS, in Latin garrulus, from garrio, to blab, signifies prone to tell or make known.

These reproachful epithets differ prin. cipally in the degree. To talk is allowa. ble, and consequently it is not altogether so unbecoming to be occasionally talkative; but loquacity, which implies an immoderate propensity to talk, is always bad, whether springing from affectation or an idle temper : and garrulity, which arises from the excessive desire of communicating, is a failing that is pardonable only in the aged, who have generally much to tell.

Every absurdity has a champion to defend it : for error is always talkatide. GoLDamite.
Thersites only elamor'd in the throog,
Loquacious, lond, and tnrbulent of tongue.
Pope.
Pleas'd with that social aweet garrulity,
The poor disbanded vet'ran's sole delight.
Somerville.

## TASTE, FLAVOR, RELISH, sAVOR.

TASTE comes from the Teutonic tasten, to touch lightly, and signifies either the organ which is easily affected, or the act of discriminating by a light touch of the organ, or the quality of the object which affects the organ; in this latter sense it is closely allied to the other terms. FLAVOR most probably comes from the Latin flo, to brcathe, signifying the rarefied essence of bodies which affect the organ of taste. RELISH is derived by Minshew from relécher, to lick again, signifying that which pleases the palate so as to tempt to a renewal of the act of tasting. SAVOR, in Latin sapor and sapio, to smell, taste, or be sensible, most probably comes from the Hebrew sapah, the mouth or palate, which is the organ of taste.

Taste is the most gencral and indefinite of all these; it is applicable to every object that can be applied to the or-
gan of taste, and to every degree and manner in which the organ can be affected: some things are tasteleas, other things have a strong taste, and others a mixed taste. The flavor is the predominating taste, and consequently is applied to such objects as may have a different kind or degree of taste; an apple may not only have the general taste of apple, but also a flavor peculiar to itself; the flavor is commonly said of that which is good; as a fine flavor, a delicious favor; but it may designate that which is not always agreeable; as the flavor of fish, which is unpleasant in things that do not admit of such a taste. The relish is also a particular taste; but it is tbat which is artificial, in distinction from the flavor, which may be the natural property. We find the flavor such as it is; we give the rel ish such as it should be, or we wish it to be: milk and butter receive a flavor from the nature of the food with which the cow is supplied: sauces are used in order to give a relish to the food that is dressed with them.

What order so contriv'd as not to mix Tastes not well joir'd?

Milton.
Every person remembers how great a pleasure he fonnd in sweets while a chlld; but his taste growing more obtusc with age, he is obliged to use artificial means to excite it. It is then he is found to call in relishes of salts and aromatics.

Goldsmite.
The Philippic islands give a flavor to our European bowls. AdDison.
Savor is a term in less frequent use than the others, but, agreeable to the Latin derivation, it is employed to designate that which smells as well as tastes, a sweetsmelling savor; so likewise, in the moral application, a man's actions or expressions may be said to savor of vanity.

## The pleasant sanory smell <br> So quicken'd appetite, that I metbought

 Conld not but taste.Milton.
Taste and relish may be, moreover, compared as the act or power of tasting or telishing: we taste whatever affeets our taste; but we relish that only which pleases our taste: we taste fruits in order to determine whether they are good or bed; we relish fruits as a dessert, or at certain seasons of the day.
When the tongue and the thing to be tasted ars extremely dry, no taste ensnes. Goldsmith.

Were men born with those advantages which they possess by industry, they would probably enjoy them with a blunter relish. GoLDsmith.

So in the extended or moral application, they are distinguished in the same manner.

Ten thonsand thousand precious gifts
My daily thanks employ;
Nor is the least a cheerful heart,
That tastes those gifts with joy. Addison.
1 love the people,
But do not like to stage me to their eyes, Though it do well, 1 do not relish weil Their loud applause.

Shargpeare.

## TABTE, GENIUS.

TASTE, in all probability from the Latin tactum and tango, to touch, seems to designate the capacity to derive pleasure from an object: GENIUS designates the power we have for aecomplishing any object. He who derives particular pleasure from musie may be said to have a taste for music; he who makes very great proficiency in the theory and practice of music may be said to have a genius for it. It is obvious, therefore, that we may have a taste without having genius; but it wonld not be possible to have genius for a thing without having a taste for it: for nothing can so effectually give a taste for any accomplishment as the capacity to learn it, and the suseeptibility of all its beauties, which circumstances are inseparable from genius.

The cause of a wrong taste is a defect of judgment.

BUHKE.
Taste consists in the power of judging, genius in the power of executing.

Blait.

## TAX, DUTY, CUSTOM, TOLL, IMPOST, TRIBUTE, CONTRIBUTION.

The idea of something given by the people to the government is expressed by all these terms. TAX, in French taxe, Latin taxo, from the Greek ravo $\omega$, ra $\xi \omega$, to dispose or put in order, signifies what is disposed in order for each to pay. CUSTOM signifies that which is given under certain circumstances, according to custom. DUTY signifies that which is given as a due or debt. TOLL, in Saxon toll, ete., Latin telonium, Greek teגos, a custom, signifies a particular kind of custom or due.

Tax is the most general of these terms.
and applies to or implies whatever is paid by the people to the government, according to a certain estimate: the customs are a species of tax which are less specifie than other taxes, being regulated by custom rather than any definite law; the customs apply particularly to what was customarily given by merchants for the goods which they inported from abroad : the duty is a species of tax more positive and binding than the custom, being a specific estimate of what is due upon goods, according to their value; bence it is not only applied to goods that are imported, but also to many other articles inland: toll is that species of tax which serves for the repair of roads and havens, or the liberty to buy or sell at fairs or othor places.
The ramiesion of a debt, the taling off a duty, the giving up a tax, the manding a port, or the making a highway, were not looked upon as improper enbjects for a coln.
Strabo telle yon that Britain bore heavy taxes,
enpecielly the oustome on tha tmportation of the
Gallle trade.
Aaguthnot.
The same Prusias joined with the Rhodians
againet the Byzantines, end stopped them from
lerying the toil on thatr trade to the Euxine.

Anautenot.
The preceding terms refer to that which is levied by authority on the people; but they do not directly sxpress the idea of levying or paying: IMPOST, on the contrary, signifies literally that which Is imposed; and TRIBUTE that which is paid or yielded; the former, therefore, exclude that ldea of coercion which is included in the latter. The tax is levied by the consent of many; the impost is imposed by the will of one; and the tribute is paid at the demand of one or a few: the tax serves for the support of the nation; the impost and the tributo serve to enrich a government. Conquerors lay heavy imposts upon the conquered countries; distant provinces pay - tribute to the princes to whom they owe allegiance. CONTRIBUTION signifies the tribute of many in unison, or for the aame end; in this general sense it includes all the other terms; for taxes and imposts are alike paid by many for the same purpose; but, as the predominant idea in contribution is that of common consent, it supposes a degree of freedom is the agent which is incompatible with
the exercise of authority expressed by the other terms: hence the term is with more propriety applied to those cases in which meu voluutarily unite in giving toward any particular object; as charitable contributions, or comiributions in support of a war; but it may be taken in the general sense of a forced paymeut, as in speaking of military contribution.

Taxes and imposts upon merchants seldom do ally good to the king's revenue, for that that he wins in the lundred he loseth in the shire.

## Bacon.

The Athenians having barbarously murdered Androgens, the son of Minos, wera obliged hy his father to eend a novennial or saptenulal, or, as others write an annual, tribute of seven young mer.

Poties.
The Roman offcers sometimes took the liberty of raising contrilutions of their own accord.

Potter.
These words, tax, tribute, and contribu. tion, have an extended application to othor objects besides those which are pecu. niary: tax, in the sense of what is laid on without the consent of the person on whom it is imposed; tribute, that which is given to another as his due; and contribution, that which is given hy one in common with others for some common object.
And leyoing thus, and with an sasy eway,
A taw of proft from hite very play. Cowpar.
I pay thile tribute withont reluctance to the memory of that nohle, reverend, learned, and axcellent person.

Bname.
The Englieh people are eatisfled that the consolations of religion are as necessary as its instructions. They, too, are among the unbappy. They feel personal pain and domestic sorrow. In these they have no privilege, but are subject to pay their full contingent to the contribution levied on mortality.

Briza.

## TAX, RATE, ASSESSMENT.

TAX, agreeably to the above explanation ( $v$. Tax), and RATE, from the Latin ratus and reor, to think or estimate, both derive their principal meaning from the valuation or proportion according to which any sum is demanded from the people; but the tax is imposed directly by the government for public purposes, as the land-tax, and the window-tax; and the rate is imposed indirectly for the local purposes of each parish, as the churchrates, and the poor-rates. The tax or raie is a general rule or ratio, by which a certain sum is raised upon a given qum-

## TEMPLE

ber of persons; the ASSESSMENT is the application of that rule to the individual.

> They (the French noblesge) paid also a landtax called the twentieth penny. They paid the church and parish rate, And took, but read not, the receipt. As to the reimbursement, and the other great objects of public credit, no doubt hut that a very moderate and proportionate assessment on the citizens would have provided for all. Buree.

## TO TEASE, VEX, TAUNT, TANTALIZE, TORMENT.

TEASE is most probably a frequentative of tear. VEX, v. To displease. TAUNT is probably contracted from tantalize. TANTALIZE, v. To aggravate. TORMENT, from the Latin tormentum and torqueo, to twist, signifies to give pain by twisting or griping.

The idea of acting upon others so as to produce a painful sentirnent is common to all these terms; they differ in the mode of the action, and in the degree of the effect. To tease is applied to that which is most trifling; torment to that which is most serious. We are teased by a fly that buzzes in our ears; we are vexed by the carelessness and stupidity of our servants; we are taunted by the sarcasms of others; we are tantalized by the fair prospects which only present themselves to disappear again; we are tormented by the importunities of troublesome beggars. It is the repetition of unpleasant trifues which teases; it is the crossness and perversity of persons and things which vex; it is the contemptuous and provoking behavior which taunts; it is the disappointment of awakened expectations which tantalizes; it is the repetition of grevious troubles which torments. We may be teased and tormented by that which produces bodily or mental pain; we are vexed, taunted, and tantaliwed only in the mind. Irritable and nervous people are most easily teased; captious and fretful people are most easily vexed or taunted; sanguine and eager people are most easily tantalized: in all these cases the imagination or the bodily state of the individual serves to increase the pain: but persons are tormented by such things as inflict positive pain.

[^124]To hear you prate would ves a saint. Gay, Sharp was his voice, which, in the shrillest tone, Thus with injurious tuunts attacks the throne. Pope.
When the maid (in Sparta) was once sped, she was not suffered to tantalize the male part of the commonwealth.

Addison.
Truth exerting itself in the searching precepts of self-denial and mortification is tormenting to vicious minds.

Socte.

## TEGUMENT, COVERING.

TEGUMENT, in Latin tegumentum, from tego, to cover, is properly but an other word to express the sense of COV. ERING, yet it is now employed in cases where the term covering is inadmissible. Covering signifies mostly that which is artificial ; but tegument is employed for that which is natural: clothing is the couering for the body; the skin of vegetable substances, as seeds, is called the tegument. The covering is said of that which covers the outer surface: the tegument is said of that which covers the inner surface; the pods of some seeds are lined with a soft tegument.
In the nutmeg another tegument is the mace between the green pericarpimen and the hard shell.

Ray.
It is by being naked that he (man) knows the value of covering.

Goldgmith.

## TEMPERAMENT, TEMPERATURE.

TEMPERAMENT and TEMPERATURE are both used to express that state which arises from the tempering of opposite or varying qualities; the temperament is said of animal bodies, and the temperature of the atmosphere. Men of a sanguine temperament ought to be cautious in their diet; all bodies are strongly affected by the temperature of the air.

Withont a proper temperament for the particular art which he studies, his utmost pains will be to no purpose.

Budgell.
Oh happy England, where there is such a rare tomporature of heat and cold!

Howell.

## TEMPLE, CHURCH.

These words designate an edifice destincd for the exercise of religion, but with collateral ideas, which sufficiently distinguish them from each other. The templum of the Latins signified originally au open, elevated spot, marked out by
the augurs with their lituus, or sacred wand, whence they could best survey the heaveas on all sides: the idea, therefore, of spacious, open, and elevated, enters into the meaning of this word, in the same manner as it does into that of the Hebrew word hichel, derived from hechel, which in the Arabic signifies great and lofty. The Greck vaìs, from vaiw, to inhabit, signifies a dwelling-place, and, by distinction, the dwelling-place of the Almighty; in which sense the Hebrew word is also taken to denote the bigh and holy place where Jehovah peculiarly dwelleth, otherwise called the holy heavens, Jehovah's dwelling or restiog-place; whence St. Paul calls our bodies the temples of God when the Spirit of God dwelleth in us. The Roman poets used the word templum in a similar sense.

Coeli tonitraltia templa.
Lucret.
Qui templa cceli summa sonitu coacretit.
tehent.
Contremuit templum magnum Jovis altitonantis. Ennics.
The word TEMPLE, therefore, strictly signifies a spacious open place set apart for the peculiar presence and worship of the Divine Being: it is applied with particular propriety to the sacred edifices of the Jews, but may be applied to any sacred place without distinction of religion.
Here we have no temple but the wood, no assembly but horn beasts.

SHAKBPEARE.
CHURCH, in Saxon circe, German, etc., kirche, Greek кvpıaкòs, from кúplos, a lord, signifies literally what belonged to a lord, and by Christians was applied to that which belonged to our Lord and Saviour; as the Lord's Supper, the Lord'sday; and, in a particular manner, as the Lord's House; in which sense it has been retained to the present day. A church is therefore a building consecrated to the Lord, and from the earliest periods of building churches this was done by some solemn ordinance.
That churohes wcre consccrated unto none but the Lord only the very general name chiefly doth snfficiently point out: church doth signify no other than the Lord's Honse.

Hooxer.
The word church has by a figure of speech been applied to any building consecrated to the service of the true God.

Trath it is, the patriarchs for a great number of years had neither temple nor church to resort unto. The cause was, they were not stayed in any place, but were in a continual peregrination and wandering that they could not conveniently build aoy ohurch.

Beveridge.
Church, in the sense of a religious asscmbly, is altogether a different word. bearing no affinity to the word temple.

## 'TEMPORARY, TRANSIENT: TRANSITORY, FLEETLNG.

TEMPORARY, from tempus, time, characterizes that which is intended to last only for a time, in distinction from that which is permanent ; offices dcpending upon a state of war are temporary, in distinction from those which are connected with internal policy: TRAN. SIENT, that is, passing, or in the act of passing, characterizes what in its nature exists only for the moment: a glance is transient. TRANSITORY, that is, apt to pass away, characterizes everything in the world which is formed only to exist for a time, and then to pass away; thus our pleasures, and our pains, and our very being, are denominated transitory. FLE ETING, which is derived from the verb to $f y$ and flight, is but a strooger term to express the same idea as transitory.
By the force of superior principles the temporary prevalence of passions may be restrained. Jonsson.
Any sudden diversion of the spirits, or the justling in of a transient thought, is able to deface the little images of things (in the memory). Sodtr.
Man is a transitory being. Jornson.
Thus when my fieeting days at last, Unheeded, silently are past, Calmly I shall resign my breath, In life unknown, forgot in death.

Spectator.

## tenacious, pertinacious.

To be TENACIOUS is to hold a thing close, to let it go with reluctance: to be PERTINACIOUS is to hold it out in spite of what can be advanced against it, the prepositive syllable per having an intessive force. A man of a tenacious temper insists on trifles that are supposed to affect his importance; a pertinacious temper insists on everything which is apt to affect his opinions. Tenacity and pertinacity are both foibles, but the former is sometimes more excus.
able than the latter. We may be tenacious of that which is good, as when a man is tenacious of whatever may affect his honor; but we candot be pertinacious in anything but our opinions, and that too in cases when they are least defensible. It commonly happens that people are most tenacious of being thought to possess that in which they are most deficient, and most pertinacious in maintaining that which is most absurd. A liar is tenacious of his reputation for truth: sophists, freethinkers, and sceptics are the most pertinacious objectors to whatever is established.

So tenacious are we of the old ecclesiastical modes, that very little alteration has been made in them since the fonrteenth or fifteenth century; adhering to oar old settled maxim, never entirely , nor at once, to depart from antiquity.

BUREE.
The most pertinacious and vehement dem. onstrator may be wearied in time by continual negation.

Joanson.

## TENDENCY, DRIFT, SCOPE, AIM.

TENDENCY, from to tend, denotes the property of tending toward a certain point, which is the characteristic of all these words, but this is applied only to things; and DRIFT, from the verb to drive; SCOPE, from the Greek oкeтto$\mu a t$, to look; and AIM, from the verb to aim ( $v$. Aim), all characterize the thoughts of a person looking forward into futurity, and directing his actions to a certain polat. Hence we speak of the tendency of certain principles or practices as being pernicious; the drift of a person's discourse; the scope which he gives himself either in treating of a subject, or in laying down a plan; or a person's aim to excel, or aim to supplant another, and the like. The tendency of many writings in modern times has been to unhinge the minds of men: where a person wants the services of another, whom he dares not openly solicit, he will discover his wishes by the drift of his discourse: a man of a comprehensive mind will allow himself full scope in digesting his plans for every alteration which circumstances may require when they come to be developed: our desires will naturally give a cast to all our aims; and, so long as they are but innocent, they are necessary to give a proper stimulus to exertion.

It is no wonder if a great deal of knowleder, which is not capable of making a man wise, nas a nataral tandency to make him vain and arrogant.

AdDison.
This said, the whole audlence soon found oat his $d r i f t$,
The convention was summoned in favor of Swist. SWIFT.
Merit in every rank has the freest scope (in England).

BLALE,
Each nobler aim, repress'd by long control,
Now sinks at last, or feebly :nans the soul.
Gowpencitil.

## TENET, POSGTION.

The TENET is the opinion whlch we hold in our minds; the POSITION is that which we lay down for others. Our tenets may be hurtful, onr positions false. He who gives up his tenets readily evinces an unstable mind; he who argues on a false position shows more tenacity and subtlety than good-sense. The tenets of the different denominations of Christians are scarcely to be known or distinguishcd; they often rest upon such trivial points: the positions which an anthor lays down must be very definite and clear when be wishes to build upon them any theory or system.

The occasion of Luther's being first disgusted with the tenets of the Romish Church is known to every ooe the least conversant with hiatory.

Robertson.
To the position of Tully, that if rirtne could be seen she must he loved, may be added, that if truth conld be heard, she must be obeyed.

Joanson.
TERM, LIMIT, BOUNDARY.
TERM, in Latin terminus, from the Greek $\tau \varepsilon \rho \mu a$, an end, is the point that ends, and that to which we direct our steps: LIMIT, from the Latin limes, a landmark, is the line which marks: BOUNDARY, from to bound, is the obstacle which interrupts our progress, and prevents us from passing.

We are either carried toward or away from the term; we either keep within limits, or we overstep them; we contract or extend a boundary. The term and the limit belong to the thing; hy them it is ended: the boundary is that which is made or conceived by the person bounding. The term is the point that terminates; the limit is either a line or point which marks where to stop; the boun. dary is a line which includes a space, and points out the extent beyond which one

## THEREFORE

may not pass. The Straits of Gibraltar was the term of Hercules's voyages: it was said, with more eloquence than truth, that the limits of the Rotuan empire were those of the world: the sea, the Alps, and the Pyrenees are the natural boundaries of France.
Then heay'd the goddess in her mighty hand A atone, the limit of the neighboring land.

Dryden.
Bnt atill his native country lies
Beyond the bound'ries of the skies. Corton.
So likewise in application to moral objects. We mostly reach the term of our prosperity when we attempt to pass the limits which Providence has assigned to human efforts: human ambition often finds a boundary set to its gratification by circumstances which were the most unlooked for, and apparently the least adapted to bring about such important results. We see the term of our evils only in the term of our life: our desires have no limits; their gratification only gerves to extend our prospects indefinitely: those only are happy whose fortune is the boundary of their desires.
No term of time this union shall divide.

## Datden.

Corruption is a reciprocal to generation; and they two are as natnre'a two terms or boundaries, and the guides to life and death. Bacon.
Providence has fixed the limits of human enjoyment hy immovable boundaries. Joanson.

## TERRITORY, DOMINION.

Born these terms respect a portion of country under a particular government; but the word TERRITORY brings to our minds the land which is included; DOMINION conveys to our minds the power which is exercised: the territory speaks of that which is in its nature bounded; dominion may be said of that which is bouodless. A petty prince has his territory; the monarch of a great empire has dominions. It is the object of every ruler to guard his territory against the irruptions of an enemy; anbitious monarchs are always aiming to extend their dominions.

The conquered servitory was divided among the Spaniah invaders, according to rulea which cuatom had introduced.

ROREATHON. And, while the heroic Pyrrhus shines in arms, Our wide dominions shall the world o'errum.

## THANKFULNESE, GRATITUDE.

THANKFULNESS, or a fulness of thanks, is the outward expression of a grateful feeling. GRATITUDE, from the Latin gratitudo, is the feeling itself. Our thankfulness is measured by the number of our words; our gratitude is measured by the nature of our actions. A person appears very thankful at the time who af. terward proves very ungratefil. Thankfulness is the beginning of gratitude: gratitude is the completion of thankfulness.

He scarcely would give me thanks for what I had done, for fear that thankfulness might havs an introduction of reward.

SIDNET.
Shall the commonnesa and continnance of these exceeding favors abate and eneryate onr gratitude, which in ali reason shonld mainly in. crease and confirm it?

Barrow.
THEORY, SPECULATION.
THEORY, from the Greek Teao $^{2} a t$, to behold, and SPECULATION, from the Latin specto, to behold, are both employed to express what is seen with the mind's eye. Theory is the fruit of reflection, it serves the purposes of science; practice will be incomplete when the theory is false; speculation beloogs more to the imagination; it has therefore less to do with realities: it is that which is rarely to be reduced to practice, and can therefore seldomer be brought to the test of experience.
True ptety without cessation tost By theories, the practice past is iost. Uennam. You were the prime object of my apeculation.

## Howell.

Hence it arises that theory is contrasted sometimes with the practice, to desig. nate its insufficiency to vender a man complete; and speculation is put for that which is fanciful and unreal: a general who is so only io theary will acquit him. self miserably in the field; a religionist who is so only in speculation will make a wretched Christian.
True Christianity depends on fact;
Religion is not theory, hut act.

## Haste.

It is amosing enough to truce the progress of a philosophical fancy let loose in airy apeoula. tion. GoLDamite.

## THEREFORE, CONSEQUENTLY, ACCORDINGLY.

THEREFORE, that is, for this reason, marks a deduction; CONSEQUENTLY.
that is, in consequence, marks a conse quence; ACCORDINGLY, that is, according to some thing, implies an agreement or adaptation. Therefore is employed particularly in abstract reasoning; conse quently is employed either in reasoning or in the narrative style; accordingly is nsed principally in the narrative style. Young persons are perpetually liable to fall into error through inexperience; they ought therefore the more willingly to submit themselves to the guidance of those who can direct them: the world is now reduced to a state of little better than moral anarchy; consequently nothing but religion and good government can bring the people back to the use of their sober senses: every preparation was made, and every precaution was taken; accordingly at the fixed hour they proceeded to the place of destination.
If you cut off the top branches of a tree, it will not thergfore cease to grow. Hiwges.
Reputation is power; consequantly to despise is to weaken.

South.
The pathetic, as Longinus observes, may animare the sublime: hut is not cssential to it. Accordiagly, as he further remarks, we very ofren find that those who excel most in stirring up ibe passions very often want the talent of writing in the aublime manner.

Admison.

## thick, Dense.

Berween THICK and DENSE there is Ittle other difference, than that the latter is employed to express that species of thickness which is philosophically consid. ared as the property of the atmosphere in a certain cordition: hence we speak of thick in regard to hard or soft bodies, us a thick board or thick cotton; solid or liquid, as a thick cheese or thick milk: out the term dense mostly in regard to the air in its various forms, as a dense air, 4 dense vapor, a dense cloud, and figuratively a dense population.
He from thick fllms shall purge the visual ray, And on the sightless eyeballs pour the day.

Pope,
I have dlscovered, by a long aeries of observations, that invention and elocution suffer great mpediments from dense and impure vapors.

Jounson,
THIN, SLENDER, SLIGHT, SLIM.
THIN, in Saxon thinne, German dünn, Latin tener, from tendo, in Grcek reıv $\omega$, to extend or draw out, and the Hebrew lahen, to grind or reduee to powder.

SLENDER, SLIGHT, and SLIM are all variations from the German schlonk, which are connected with the words slime and sling, as also with the German schlingen, to wind or wreathe, and schlange, a serpent, designating the property of length and smallness, which is adapted for bending or twisting. Thin is the generic term, the rest are specific: thin may be said of that which is small and short, as well as small and long; slender is always said of that which is small and long at the same time: a board is thin which wants solidity or substance: a poplar is slender, because its tallness is disproportioned to its magnitude or the dimensions of its circumference. Thinness is sometiraes a natural property; slight and slim are applied to that which is artificial: the leaves of trees are of a thin texture; a board may be made slight bv continually planing; a paper box is very stim. Thinness is a good property sometimes; thin paper is frequently preferred to that which is thick: slightness and slimness, which is a greater dcgree of slightness, are always defects; that which is made slight is unfit to bear the stress that will be put upon it; that which is slim is altogether unfit for the purpose proposed: a carriage that is made slight is quickly broken, and always out of repair; paper is altogether too slim to serve the purpose of wood.
Remembrance and reflection, how allied 1
What thin partitions sense from thought divide 1
Pope.
The Ionic order doth represent a feminine kind of slendernesa.

Wotton.
There is but a very alight depth, in comparison of the distance to the centre. Goldsmitr.
1 was jogged on the elbow by a alim young girl of seventeen.

Admigon.
Thinness is a natural property of many bodies, whether solid or fluid ; slender and slight have a moral and figurative application.
I have found dulnesa to quicken into sentiment in a thin ether. Jounaon.
Very sleuller differences will aometimes part those whom beneficence has united. Jonngon.
Friendship is often destroyed by a thousand secret and slight competitions. Johnson.

## TO THINK, REFLECT, PONDER, MUSE.

THINK, in Saxon thincan, German denken, etc., oomes from the Hehrew

## THINK

dan, to direct, rule, or judge. REFLEOT, in Latin reflecto, signifies literally to bend back, that is, to bend the mind back on itself. PONDER, from pondus, a weight, signifies to weigh. MUSE, from musa, a song, signifies to dwell upon with the imagination.

To think is a general and indefinite term; to reflect is a particular mode of thinking; to ponder and muse are different modes of reflecting, the former on grave matters, the latter on matters that interest either the affections or the imagination: we think whenever we receive or recall an idea to the mind; but we reflect only by recalling, not one only, but many ideas: we think if we only suffer the ideas to revolve in succession in the mind; but in reflecting we compare, combine, and judge of those ideas which thus pass in the mind: we think, therefore, of things past, as they are pleasurable or otherwise; we reflect upon them as they are applicable to our present condition : we may think on things past, present, or to come; we reflect, ponder, and muse mostly on that which is past or present. The man thinks on the days of his childhood, and wishes them back; the child thinks on the time when he shall be a man, and is impatient until it is come: the man reflects on his past follies, and tries to profit by experience; lie ponder:s on any serious concern that affects his destiny, and muses on the happy events of his childhood.

No man was ever weary of thinking, much less of thinking that he had done well or virtuously.

South.
Let men but reflect upon thetr own obscrvation, and consider impartially with themselves how few in the world they have known made better by age.

South.
Stood on the brink of hell, and look'd awhile
Pouliring his voyage.
Milton.
I was sitting on a sofa one evening, after I had been caressed by amurath, and my imagination kindled as I mused.

Haweesworth.

## TO THINK, SUPPOSE, IMAGINE, BELIEVE, DEEM.

To THINK is here, as in the preceding article, the generic term. It expresses, in common with the other terms, the act of having a particular idea in the mind; but it is indefinite as to the mode and the object of the action. To think
may be the act of the nnderstanding, of merely of the imagination: to SUPPOSE and IMAGINE are rather the acts of the imagination than of the understanding. To think, that is, to have any tbought or opinion upon a subject, requires refection; it is the work of time: to suppose and imagine may be the acts of the moment. We think a thing right or wrong; we suppose it to be true or false; we $i m$ agine it to be real or unreal. To think is employed promiscuously in regard to all objects, whether actually existing or not, or, if existing, are above our comprehension: to suppose applies to those which are uncertain or precarious; im. agine, to those which are unreal. Think and imagine are said of that which affects the senses immcdiately; suppose is only said of that which occupies the mind. We think that we hear a noise as soon as the sound catches onr attention; in certain states of the body or mind we imagine we hear noises which were ncver made: we think that a person will come to-day, because be has informed us that he intends to do so; we suppose that he will come to-day, at a certain hour, because he came at the same bour yesterday.
If to conceive how anything can be From shape extracted, and locality, Is hard: what think you of the Deity? Jenyns.

It is absurd to suppose that while the relations, in which we stand to our fellow-creatures, naturally call forth certain sentiments and affections, there should be none to correspond to tha first and greatest of all beings.

How ridiculous must it be to imagine that the clergy of England favor popery, when they cannot be clergymen without renouncing it.

Beveridae.
In regard to moral points, in which case the word DEEM may be compared with the otbers, to think is a conclusion drawn from certain premises. I think that a man has acted wrong: to suppase is to take up an idea arbitrarily or at pleasure; we argue upon a supposed case, merely for the sake of argument: to imagine is to take up an idea by accident, or without any connection with the truth or reality; we inagine that a person is offended with us, without being able to assign a single reason for the idea; im. aginary evils are even more numerous than those which are real: to deam is to
form a conclusion; things are deemed hurtful or otherwise in consequence of observation.

We sometimes think we could a speech produce Much to the purpose, if our tongues were loose.

Cowpen.
It moves me more, perhaps, than folly ought, When some green heads, as void of wit as thought, Suppose themselves moaopolists of sense.

Cowpea.
An empty house is by the players deemed tbe nost dreadful sign of popular disapprobation.

Hawkeswonth.
To think and believe are both opposite to knowing or perceiving; but think is a more partial action than believe: wo think as the thing strikes us at the time; we believe from a settled deduction: hence it expresses much less to say that I think a person speaks the truth, than that I $b e-$ lieve that be speaks the truth. I think from what I can recollect that such and such were the words, is a vague mode of speech, not admissible in a court of law as positive evidence: the natural question which follows upon this is, do you firmly believe it? to which whoever can answer in the affirmative, with the appcarance of sincerity, must be admitted as a testimony. Hence it arises that the word can only be employed in matters shat require but little thought in order to come to a conclusion; and believe is applicable to things that must be admitted only on substantial evidence. We are at liberty to say that I think, or I believe that the account is made out right; but, we must say, that I believe, not think, that the Bible is the word of God.

They think that they (the objectors) do not believe it (the Gospel) who do not take care that it should be preached to the poor.

Buthe.
For they can conquer who believe they can.
Dayden.

## THOUGFTFUL, CONSIDERATE, DELIBERATE.

THODGHTFUL, or full of thinking (v. To think, reflect); CONSIDERATE, or ready to consider (v. To consider, reflect); and DELIBERATE, ready to deliberate (v. To consult), rise upon each other in their signification: he who is thoughtful does not forget bis duty; he who is considerate pauses, and considers properly what is his duty; he who deliberates, considers deliberately. It is a recommen.
dation to a subordinate person to be thoughtful in doing what is wished of him: it is the recommendation of a confidential person to be considerate, as he has often to judge according to his own discretion; it is the recommeadation of a person who is acting for himself in critical matters to be deliberate. There is this further distinction in the word deliberate, that it may be used in the bad sense to mark a settled intention to do evil : young people may sometimes plead in extenuation of their guilt that their misdeeds do not arise from deliberate malice.
Men's minds are in general inclined to levity, much more than to thoughtfut melaacholy.

## blatr.

Some things will aot bear much zeal; and the more earnest we are ahout them, the less we recommend ourselves to the approhatio of sober and considerate men.

THLotson.
There is a vast difference between sins of infirmity and those of presumption, as vast as between inadvertency and deliberation. Sovth.

## THREAT. MENACE.

THREAT is of Saxon origin; MEN. ACE is of Latin extraction. They do not differ in siguification; but, as is frequently the case, the Saxon is the familiar term, and the Latin word is employed only in the higher style. We may be threatened with either small or great evils; but we are menaced only with great evils. One individual threatens to strike another: a general menaces the enemy with an attack. We are threatened by things as well as persons: we are menaued by persons only (or things personified): a person is threatened with a look: he is menaced with a prosecution by his adversary.

By turns put on the suppliant and the lord; Threaten'd this moment, and the next implor'd, Prion.
Of the sharp axe
Regardless, that o'er his devoted head
Hangs menacing.
Somerviris.

## TIME, SEASON.

TIME is here the generic term; it is taken either for the whole or the part: SEASON is any given portion of time. We speak of time when the simple idea of time ouly is to be expressed; as the time of the day, or the time of the year; the season is spoken in reference to some
circumstances; the year is divided into four parts, called the seasons, according to the nature of the weather: hence it is that in general that time is called the season which is suitable for any particular purpose; youth is the season for improvement. It is a matter of necessity to choose the time; it is an affair of wisdom to choose the season.

You will often want religion in times of most dauger.

Cnatham.
Piso's behavior toward us in this season of affliction has endeared him to tis.

Medioth's Letters of Cicero.

## TIME, PERIOD, AGK, DATE, ERA, EPOCHA.

TIME (v. Time) ls, as before, taken either for time in general, or time in particular; all the other terms are taken for particular portions of time. In the sense of a particular portion of time, the word time is applied generally and Indefinitely.

> There is a time when we should not only number our days, but our hours.
> Youno,

Time included within any given points is termed a PERTOD, from the Greek $\pi \varepsilon \rho t o \delta o s$, signifyitig a course, round, or any revolution; thus, the period of day, or of night, is the space of time comprehended between the rising and setting, or setting and rising of the sun; the period of a year comprehends the space which, according to astronomers, the earth requires for its annual revolution. So, in an extended and moral application, we have stated periods in our life for particular things: during the period of infancy a child is in a state of total dependence on its parents; a period of apprenticeship has been appointed for youth to learn different trades.

Some experiment would be made how by art to make plants more listing than their ordinary period, as to make a staik of wheat last a whole year.

The period is sometimes taken not only for the space of time included between two points of time, but sometimes for the terminating point; in this sense, to put a period to a thing is to terminate its existence, to destroy it.
But the last period, and the fatal hour, Of Troy is come.

DENHAM.

The AGE is the period comprehended within the life of one man, or of numbers living at the same time, and consequently refers to what is done by men living within that period: hence we speak of the different ages that have existed since the commencement of the world, and characterize this or that age by the particular degrees of vice or virtue, genius, and the like, for which it is distinguished.

The story of Haman only shows us what human nature has too generally appeared to be in every $a g \theta$.

Blaiz.
The date is properly the point of time which is marked on a writing, either to show the time when it was written, as the date of a letter, or to show when any contract is to be performed, or thing done, as the date of a bill of exchange. As the date in the first case shows when anything bas been done, the word date may be applied generally to the time of any past cvent, as a thing of late date, or early date; so of a thing out of date, which is so long gone by as that the date of it is not known.

This mountain was formed by the first eruption that destroyed the country of Mel Passi, and is of a very old date.

Beypone.
As the date in the second case shows how long it will be before a thing is to be done, as a bill of short date shows that it has but a short time to run, so the term date may be applied to the duration of any event.

Plartations have one advantage in them which is not to be found in most other works, as they give a pleusure of a more lasting date.

Adeison.
ERA, in Latin ara, probably from ces, brass, signifying coin with which one computes; and EPOCHA, from the Greek $\varepsilon \pi \sigma \chi \eta$, from $\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon \chi \omega$, to stop, signifying a resting place; both refer to points of time that are in some manner marked or distinguished; but the former is more commonly employed in the literal sense for points of computation in chronology, as the Christian era; the latter is indefinitely employed for any period distinguished by remarkable events: the captivity of the Jews is an epocha in the history of that nation. The terms may also be figuratively employed in the latter sense, as an eventful era.

## TRADE

That porlod of the Athenian history which is included witbin the era of Pisistratus, and the death of Menander the comic poet, may justly be atyled tbe literary coge of Greece. Combridana.

The institution of this library (by Pisistratus) corms a sigual epocha in the annals of literature. Cumberland.

## TIMELY, SEASONABLE.

TaE same distinction exists between the epithets TIMELY and SEASONA. BLE as between time and season in the preeeding article. The former signifies within the time, that is, before the time is past; the latter according to the season, or what the season requires. A timely notice prevents that wich would otherwise happen; a seasonable hiat seldom fails of its effect beeause it is seasonable. We must not expeet to bave a timely notice of death, but must be prepared for it at any time; an admonition to one who is on a sick-bed is very seasonable, when given by a minister or a friend. The opposites of these terms are untimely or ill-timed and unseasonable: untimely is directly opposed to time$l y$, signifying before the time appointed; as an untimely death; but ill-timed is indirectly opposed, signifying in tbe wrong time; as an ill-timed remark.

It lmports all men, especially bad men, to think on the judgment, that by a timely repentance they may prevent the woful effects of it.

Soutr.
What yoo call a bold, is not only the kindest, but the most seasonable proposal you could have made.

Locke.

## TIME-SERVING, TEMPORIZING.

TIME-SERVING and TEMPORIZING are both applied to the conduct of one who adapts bimself servilely to the time and season; but a time-server is rather active, and a temporizer passive. A timeserver avows those opinions which will serve his purpose: the temporizer forbears to avow those which are likely for the time being to hurt him. The former acts from a desire of gain, the latter from a fear of loss. Time-servers are of all parties, as they come in the way: tem. porizers are of no party, as occasion requires. Sycophant courtiers must always be time-servers: ministers of state are frequently temporizers.
Ward had complied during the late times, and held in by taking the covenant: so lie was hated by the high men as a time-server: BunNer.

Fecble and temporiaing measures will alwayd be the result, when men assemble to deliberata in a situation where they ought to act.

Rober. ${ }^{60 \mathrm{~K}}$

## TORMENT, TORTURE.

TORMENT ( $\%$. To tease) and TORT. URE both come from torqueo, to twist, and express the agony which arises from a violent twisting or griping of any part; but the latter, which is more immediately derived from the verb, expresses much greater violence and consequent pair than the former. Torture is an excess of torment. We may be tormented by a variety of indirect means; but we are mostly said to bs tortured by the direct means of the rack, or similar instrument. Torment may be permanent: torture is only for a time, or on certain occasions. It is related in history that a person was once tormented to death, by a violent and incessant beating of drums in his prison: the Indians practice every speeies of torture upon their prisoners; whence the application of these terms to moral objects. A guilty conscience may torment a man all his life: the horrors of an awakened conscience are a tortare to one who is on bis death-bed.

Yet in his empire o'er thy abject breast, His flames and torments only are express'd. Prior
To a wild sonnet or a wanton air, Offence and torture to a sober ear.

Paior.

## TRADE, COMMERCE, TRAFFIC, DEALING.

TRADE, In Italian tratto, Latin tracto, to treat, signifies the transaction of business. COMMERCE, v. Intercourse. TRAFFIC, in French traffique, Italian traffico, compounded of tra or trans and facio, signifies to make to pass over from hand to hand. DEALING, from the verb to deal, in German theilen, to divide, signifies to get together in parts according to a certain ratio, or at a given price.

The leading idea in trade is that of ear. rying on business for purposes of gain; the rest are but modes of trade; commerce is a mode of trade by exchange: traffec is a sort of personal trade, a send. ing from hand to hand; dealing is a bargaining or cakeulating kind of trade. Trade is either on a large or small scale, commere is always on a large scale. Wu
may trade retail or wholesale; we always carry on commerce by wholesale: trade is either within or without the country; commerce is always between different countries: there may be a trade between two towns; but there is a commerce between England and America, between France and Germany: hence it arises that the general term trade is of inferior lmport when compared with commerce. The commerce of a country, in the abstract and general sense, conveys more to our mind, and is a more noble expression, than the trade of the country, as the merchant ranks bigher than the tradesman, and a commercial house than a trading concern. Trade may be altogether domestic, and between neighbors; the traffic is that which goes backward and forward between any two or more points: in this manner there may be a great traffic between two towns or cities, as between London and the capitals of the different counties. I'rade may consist simply in buying and selling according to a stated valuation; dealings are carried on in matters that admit of a variation: hence we speak of dealers in wool, in corn, seeds, and the like, who buy up portions of these goods, more or less, according to the state of the market.
The statesman, lawyer, mercliant, man of trade, Pants for the refuge of some rural shade.

Cowper.
Iostructed ships shall sail to quick commerce, By which remotest regions are allied,
Whlch makes one city of the universe,
Where some may gain, and all may be supplied.
Deyden.
Bot ah! what wish can prosper, or what prayer For merchants rich in cargoes of despair, Who drive a loathsome traffle, gange and span, And buy tha bones and muscles of the man?

Cowper.
The doctor must needs die rich, he had great dealings in his way.

Swift.
Trade, however, in its most extended sense, comprehends all the rest.

Traile, withont enlarging the British territoties, has given us a kiod of additional empire.

Acolson.
These terms admit of the same distinction when applied to moral objects.
Doing good,
Disinterested good, is not our trade. Cowper.
Natore abhors
Ind drives thee out from the society
and commerce of mankind for breach of faith.
So orferin.

How hast thon dar'd to think so vilely of me, That I would condescend to thy mean arts, And traffle with thee for a prince's ruin? Rowe

What these are I
Whose owo hard dealings teach them to suspect The thoughts of others.

Shayspraze
TO TRANSFIGURE, TRANSFORM, METAMORPHOSE.
TRANSFIGURE is to make to pas! over into another figure; TRANSFORM and METAMORPHOSE is to put into another form: the former being said only of spiritual beings, and particularly in reference to our Saviour; the other two terms being applied to that which has a corporeal form.

Transformation is commonly applied to that which changes its outward form; in this manner a harlequin transforms bimself into all kinds of shapes and likenesses. Metamorphosis is applied to ths form internal as well as external, that is, to the whole nature; in this manner Ovid describes, among others, the metamorphoses of Narcissus into a flower, and Daphne into a laurel: with the same idea we may speak of a rustic being metamorphosed, by the force of art, into a fine gentleman.

We have of this gentleman a plece of the transflguration, which I think is held a work second to none in the world.

Steele,
A lady's shift may be metamorphosed into bil-lets-donx, and come into her possession a second time.

Addison.
Can a good intention, or rather a very wicked one so miscalled, transform perjury and hypoc. risy into merit and perfection?

Soute.

## TREACHEROUS, TRAITOROUS, TREASONABLE.

These epithets are all applied to ons who betrays his trust; but TREACHER. OUS ( $v$. Faithless) respects a man's pri. vate relations; TRAITOROUS, bis public relation to his prince and his country: he is a treacherous friend, and a traitorous subject. We may be treacherous to our enemies as well as our friends, for nothing can lessen the obligation to be faithful in keeping a promise; we nay be traitorous to our country by abstain. ing to lend that aid which is in our power. Traitorous and TREASONABLE ar3 both applicable to subjects: but the former is extended to all public acts; the latter orly to those whicb affect the
preme power: a soldier is traitorous who goes over to the side of the enemy against his country; a man is guilty of treasonable practices who meditates the life of the king, or aims at subverting his government: a man may be a traitor under all forms of government: but he oan be guilty of treason only in a monarchical 3tate.
This very eharge of folly ahould make men santious how they listen to the treacherous proposals which come from their owa bosom.

South.
All the evils of war must namoddably be endured, as the necessary mesns to glve success to the traitoroua designs of the rebel.

Soute.
Herod trumped up a sham piot against Hyrcanus, as if ha held correspondence with Malchus, King of Arabia, for accomplishing tracaonabie designs agalnat him.

Paideatex.

## to theasuri, hoard.

The idea of laying up carefully is common to these verbs; but to TREASURE is to lay up for the sake of preserving; to HOARD, to lay up for the sale of accumulating; we treasure up the gifts of a friend; the miser hoards up his monef: we attanh a real value to that which we treasure; a fictitious value to that which ig hoarded. To treasure is used either in the proper or improper sense; to hoard only in the proper sense; we treasure a book on which we set particular value, or we treasure the words or actions of another in our recollection; the miser hoards in his coffers whatever he can scrape together.
Fancy can eombine the Ideas which memory
Hawkesworth.
Hoarda ev'n beyond the miser'a wish sbonnd.
Goldsmith.

## TREATMENT, USAGE.

TREATMENT implies the act of treating, and USAGE that of using: treatment may be partial or temporary; hut usage is properly employed for that which is permanent or oontinued: a passer-by may neet with ill-treatment ; but ohildren and domestics are liable to meet with ill-usage. All persons may meet with treatment from others with whom they casually come in conneotion; but usage is applied more properly to those who are more or less in the power of others: shildren may receive good of ill usage
from sose who have the charge of them servants from their masters, or wives from their husbands.
By promises of more indnlgent treatment, if they wonld unite with hlm (Cortes) agsinst their oppressors, he prevailed on the people to supply the Spanish camp with provisions. Robertson.
If we look farther into the world, we ahall find this uaags (of our Saviour from his own) not sc very atrange; for kindred is not friendship.

South

## TREMBLING, TREMOR, TREPIDATION.

All these terms are derived from the very same source (v. Agitation), and desig. nate a general state of agitation: TREMBLING is not only the most familiar but also the most indefinite term of the three; TREPIDATION and TREMOR are species of trembling. Trembling expresses any degree of involuntary shaking of the frame, from the affection either of the body or the mind; cold, nervous affections, fear, and the like, are the ordinary causes of trembling: tremor is a slight degree of trembling, which arises mostly from a mental affection; when the spir. its ara agitated, the mind is thrown Into a tremor by any trifing incideat: trepidation is more violent than either of the two, and springs from the defectlve state of the mind; it shows itself in the action, or the different movements of the body, rather than in the body; those who bave not the requisite oomposure of mind to command themselves on all occasions are apt to do what is required of them with trepidation.
And with unmanly tremblinga shook the car.
Pope
The ferocious insolence of Cromwell, the rug. ged brutality of Harrison, and the general trepidation of fear and wickedness (in the rebel parliament), would make a pletire of anexampled variety.

Johnson.
Langhter is a vent of any sudden joy thst atrikes npon the mind, which being too volatile and stroag, breaks ont in this tramor of the voice.

Steele.
Trembling and tremulous are applied as epithets, either to persons or things; a trembling voice evinces trepidation of mind, a tremulous voice evinces a tremor of mind: notes in music are sometimes trembling; the motion of the leaves of trees is tremulous.
And rend the trembling, uaresiating prey. Yops

4s thus th' efrulgence tremulous I drank, With cherish'd gaze.

Thomson.

## trifling, trivial, petty, frivoLOUS, FU'C1LG.

TRIFLING, TRIVIAL, both come from trivium, a common place of resort where three roads meet, and signify common. PETTY, in French petit, little, in Latin putus, a boy or minion, is probably con. nected with the Hebrew pethi, foolish. FRIVOLOUS, in Latin frivolus, comes in all probability from frio, to crumble into dust, signifying reduced to nothing. FU. TILE, in Latin futilis, from futio, to pour out, signifies cast away as worthless.

All these epithets characterize an object as of little or no value: trifing and trivial differ only in degree; the latter denoting a still lower degree of value than the former. What is trifing or trivial is that which does not require any consideration, and may be ca3ily passed over as forgotten: trifling objections can never weigh against solid reason; trivial remarks only expose the shallowness of the remarker: what is petty is beneath our consideration, it ought to be disregarded and held chcap; it would be a petty consideration for a minister of state to look to the small savings of a private family: what is frivolous and futile is disgraceful for any one to consider; the former in relation to all the objects of our pursuit or attachment, the latter only in regard to matters of reasoning; dress is a frivolous occupation when it forms the chief business of a rational being; the objections of freethinkers against revealed religion are as futile as they are mischievous.

We exceed the ancients in doggerel humor, burlesque, and all the trivial arts of ridicule. Adpison.
There is scarcely any man without some favorite trifie which he values above greater at tainments : some desire of petty praise which he cannot patiently suffer to be frustrated.

Jorinson.
It is an endless and frivolous pursnit to act by any other rule than the care of satisfying our own minds.

Steele.
Oat of a multiplicity of criticisms by various bands, many are sure to be futile. Cowper.

## TROOP, COMPANY.

In a military sense, a TROOP is among the borse what a COMPANY is among
the foot ; but this is only a partial accep tation of the terms. Troop, in French troupe, Spanish tropa, Latin turba, sig. nifies an indiscriminate multitude; company ( $v$. To accompany) is any number joined together, and bearing each othet company: hence we speak of a troop of hunters, a company of players; a troop of horsemen, a company of travellers.
Still may the dog the wandering troops constrair Of alry ghosts, and vex the guilly train.

Drydex,
Go, carry Sir John Falstaff to the Fleet ;
Take all his company along with him.
Sharspeare.
TO TROUBLE, DISTURB, MOLEST.
Whateyer uneasiness or painful sen. timent is produced in the mind by outward circumstances is effected either by TROUBLE (v. Affiction), by DISTURBANCE ( $v$. Commotion), or by MOLESTA. TION ( $v$. To inconvenience). Trouble is the most gencral in its application; we may be troublod by the want of a thing, or troubled by that which is unsuitable. we are disturbed and molested only by that which actively troublcs. Pecuniary wants are the greatest troubles in life, the perverseness of servants, the indisposition or ill behavior of children, are domestic troubles: but the noise of children is a disturbance, and the prospect of want disturbs the mind. Trouble may be permanent; disturbance and molestation are temporary, and hoth refer to the peace whieh is destroyed; a disturbance ruffles or throws out of a tranquil state; a molextation burdens or bears hard either on the body or the mind: noise is always a disturbance to one who wishes to think or to remain in quiet; talking, or any noise, is a molestation to one who is in an irritable frame of body or mind.
Ulysses was exceedingly troubled at the slght of his mother (in the Elysian fields). Anntson. No buzzing sonads disturb their golden sleep. Diydex All use those arms which nature has bestow'd, Produce their tender progeny, and feed With care parental, whilst that care they need. In these $\operatorname{lov} v^{\circ} \mathrm{d}$ offices completely blest, No hopes beyond them, nor vain fears molest.

JENYKg
TROUBLESOME, IRKSOME, VEXATIOUS
These epithets are applied to the ob jects which create trouble or vexation

IRKSOME is compounded of irk and some, from the German ärger, vexation, which probably comes from the same root as the Greek apyos. TROUBLESOME ( $v$. To affict) is here, as before, the generic term; irksome and VEXA. TIOUS are species of the troublesome: what is troublesome creates either bodily or mental pain; what is irksome creates a mixture of bodily and mental pain; and what is vexatious creates purely men. tal pain. What requires great exertion, or a too long continued exertion or exertioos, coupled with difficulties, is troublenome: in this sense the laying in stores for the winter is a troublesome work for the ants, and compiling a dictionary is a troublesome labor to the compiler: what requires any exertion which we are unwilling to make, or interrupts the peace which we particularly long for, is irksome; in this sense giving and receiving of visits is irksome to some persons; travelling is irksome to others: what comes across our particular wishes, or disappoints us in a particular manner, is vexatious; in this sense the loss of a prize which we had hoped to gain may be vexatious.

The incursions of troublesome thoughts are often violent and importunate.

Johnson.
For not to irksome toil, but to delight he made us.
milton.
The pensive godidess has already taught
How vain is hope, and how vexatious thought.
Prior.
TRUTH, VERACITY.
TRUTH belongs to the thing; VERACITY to the person: the truth of the story is admitted upon the veracity of the narrator.
I shall think myself obliged for the future to upeak always in truth and sincerity of heart.

Addison.
Many relations of travellers have been slighted as fabulous, till more frequent voyages have confirmed their veracity.

Jonnson.

## TRY, TEMPT.

To TRY ( $v$. To attempt) is to call forth onc's ordinary powers; to TEMPT ( $v$. To attempt) is a particular species of trial: we try either ourselves or others; we tempt others: we try a person only in the path of his duty; but we may templ him to depart from his duty: it is necessary
to try the fidelity of a servant before you place confidence in him; it is wicked to tempt any one to do that which we should think wrong to do ourselves; our strength is tricd by frequent experiments; we are tempted, by the weakness of our princi plos, to give way to the violence of our passions.

League all your forces then, ye pow'ra above, Join all, and try the omnipotence of Jove. Popt Still the old sting remain'd, and men began To tempt the serpent, as he tempted man. Denhay.

## TUMULTUOUS, TUMULTUARY.

TUMULTUOUS signifies having tu. mult; TUMULTUARY, disposed for tumult: the former is applied to objects in general; the latter to persons only: in tumultuous meetings the voice of reason is the last thing that is heard; it is the natural tendency of large and promiscuous assemblies to become tumultuary.
But oh, beyond description happiest he
Who ne'er must roll on life's tumultuous sea.
Prior.
With tumultuary but irreaistible violence, the Scotch insurgents fell upon the churchea in that city (Perth).

Robertson
TUMULTUOUS, TURBULENT, SEDITIOUS, MUTINOUS.
TUMULTUOUS (v. Bustle) describes the disposition to make a noise; those who attend the play-houses, particularly the lower orders, are frequently tumultuous: TURBULENT marks a hostile spirit of resistance to autbority ; when prisoners are dissatisfied they are frequently turbulent: SEDITIOUS marks a spirit of resistance to government ; in republics the people are often disposed to be seditious: MUTINOUS marks a spirit of resistance against officers either in the army or davy; a general will not fail to quell the first risings of a mutinous spirit. Electioneering mobs are always tumultuous; the young and the ignorant are so averse to control that they are easily led by the example of an individual to bs turbulent; among the Romans the people were in the habit of holding seditious meetings, and sometimes the soldiery would be mutinous.

Many civil broils and tumultuous rehellions they overcame, by. reason of the continual pres-
ance of their king, whose only presence oftentimes constraius thic unculy people from a thousand evil occasions.

Spenser.
Men of ambitious and turbulent spirits, that were dissatisfled with privacy, were allewed to engage in matters of state.

Bentley.
Very many of the nobility in Edinhurgh at that tlme did not appear yet in this seditious hehav* lor.

Clasendon.
Lend me your guards, that, if persuasion fail, Force may against the neutinous prevail.

Walleb.

## TURGID, TUMID, BOMBASTIC.

TURGID and TUMID both signify swollen, but they differ in their application : turgid is most commonly applied to what swells by a physical process, as a turgid vessel; tromid, from the Greek qupog, the mind, is said of that which seems to swell like the mind inflated with pride, as the tumid waves, denoting an unnatural or unusual swelling.

A bladder moderately filled with air and strongly tied, held near the fire, grew turgid and hard.

Botle.
So high as heav'd the tumid hills, so lew Down sunk a boliow bottom, broad and deep.

Milon.
They are both applied to words. BOMBASTIO, from bombast, a kind of cotton, signifying puffed up like cotton, is figuratively applicable to words only; but the bombastic includes the sentiments expressed ; turgidity is confined mostly to the mode of expression. A writer is turgid, who expresses a simple thought in lofty language: a person is bombastic who deals in large words and introduces high sentiments in common discourse.

The turgidnest of a young scribbler might please his magnificent spirit, always upon stilts.

Warauhten.
By hls endeavoring too much to set out his hare collections in an affected and bombastic style, they are much neglected.
A. Wood.

Tumid is rather applied to single words than to the style.

Although such expressions may seem tumid and aspiring, yet cannet I scruple to use seeming hyperboles in mentioning felicities, which make the highest hyperbeles but seeming ones.

Beile.
TO TURN, BEND, TWIST, DISTORT, WRING, WREST, WRENCH.
TURN is in French tourner, Greek roorew, to turn, and ropvos, a turner's wheel.

BEND, v. Bend. TWIST is in Saxon ga twistan, and German zweyen, to douhle, from zwey, two. DISTORT, in Latin dis. tortus, participle of distorqueo, compound. ed of dis and torqueo, signifies to turn vio lently aside.

To turn signifies in general to put a thing out of its place in an uneven line; to bend, and the rest, are species of turning: we turn a thing by moving it from one point to another; thus we turn the earth over: to bend is simply to change its direction; thus a stick is bent, or a body may bend its direction to a certain point: to twist is to bend many times, to make many turns: to distort is to turn or bend out of the right course; thus the face is distortcd in convulsions. To WRING is to twist with violence; thus linen which has been wetted is wrung: to WREST or WRENCH is to separate from a body by means of twisting; thus a stick may be wrested out of the hand, or a hinge wrenched off the door.
Yet still they find a future task remain, To turn the soil, and break the clods again.

Some to the honse,
The fold, and dairy, hungry bend their fight.
тиомяем.
But let net on thy heek the tertur'd worm, Convulsive, twist in agonizing folds.

Thesison.
We saw their stern, dietorted looks from far.
Dayden.
Our bodies are unhappily made the weapons of $\sin$; therefore we must, by an austere course of duty, first woring these weapons eut of its hands.

South.
She urenalh'd the jav'lin witb her dying hands.
DRyden.
The same distinction holds good in the figurative or moral application: we turn a person from his design; we bend the will of a person; we twist the meaning of words to suit our purposes; we distort them so as to give them an entirely false meaning; we wring a confession from one; or wrest the meaning of a person's words.
Strong passion dwells on that object which has seized and taken possession of the soul; it is too much occupied and filled by it to turn its vicw aside.

Brain
Men will not bend their wits to examint whether things where with they bave been accustomed be good or evil.

Ноопеа
Something must be aistorted beside the intenl of the sovereign inditer.

Peacham

To wring this sentence, to wrest therehy out of men's hands the knowledge of God's doctrines, is without all reason.
Wresting the text to the old giant's sense, That Heav'n once more must suffer violence.

Denham.

## TURN, BENT.

These words are only compared here in the figurative application, as respects the state of a person's inclination: the TURN is, therefore, as hefore, indefinite as to the degree; it is the first rising inclination: BENT is a positively strong turn, a confirmed inclination; a child may early discover a turn for music or drawing; but the real bent of his genius is not known until he has made a proficiency in his education, and has had an opportunity of trying different things: it may be very well to indulge the turn of mind; it is of great importance to follow the bent of the mind as far as respects arts and sciences.
I need not tell you how a man of Mr. Rowe's turn entertained me.

Pope.
I know the bens of your present attention is directed toward the eloquence of the bar.

Melmoth's Letters of Pliny.

## TO TURN, WIND, WHIRL, TWIRL, WRITHE.

To TURN (v. To turn) is, as before, the generic terin ; the rest are but modes of turning; WIND is to turn a thing round in a regular manner'; WHIRL, to turn it round in a violent manner; TWIRL, to turn it round in any irregular and unmeaning way; WRITHE, to turn round in convolntion within itself. A worm seldom moves in a straight line; it is, therefore, always turning: sometimes it lies, and sometimes it writhes in agony: a wheel is whirled round by the force of gunpowder: a top is twirled by a child in play.

How has this poison lost its wonted ways?
It should have burned its passage, not have linger'd
In the blind labyrinths and crooked tumings Of human composition.

Deypen,
The tracks of Providence like rivers wind, Here run before ns , there retreat behind.

Higeins.
Fe was no civil ruffian; none of those
Who lie with twisted locks, betray with shrugs.
Thomson.
Man is bot man, inconstant atill, and varioue;
There's no to-morrow in him like to-day i

Perhaps the atoms, whirling in his brain, Make him think bonestly this present hour: The next, a swarm of hase, nugrateful thoughts May mount alott.

DIYREN.
I had used my eye to such a quick auccessioy of objects, that, in the most precipitate twirl. 1 could catch a sentence out of each autbor.

Steele
Dying, he bellow'd out bis dread remorse,
And writh'd with seeming anguish of the soul.
Shlrtey

## U.

## UNBELIEF, INFIDELITY, INCREDULITY.

UNBELIEF ( $v$. Belief) respects matters in general; INFIDELITY ( $v$. Faithful) is unbelief as respects Divine revelation; INCREDULITY is unbelief in ordinary matters. Unbelief is taken in an indefinite and negative sense; it is the want of belief in any particnlar thing that may or may not be believed. The term unbelief does not of itself convey any re. proachful meaning; it signifies properly a general disposition not to believe.

Were its revelations important, I should be less incliaed to unbelief.

Beatite.
We may be unbelievers $\ln$ indifferens as well as the most important matters, bnt the term unbeliener taken ahsolutely means one who disbelieves sacred truths.

One gets by heart a catalogue uf title-pages and editions; and immediately, to become conspicuoua, declares that he ls an unbeliever.

Addibon.
Infidelity is a more active state of mind; it supposes a violent and total rejection of that which ought to be be, lieved: incredulity is also an active stato of mind, in which we refuse belief in matters that may or may not be rejected. The Jews are unbelievers in the mission of our Saviour; the Turks are infidels, inasmuch as they do not believe in the Bible: Deists and Atheists are likewise infidels, inasmuch as they set themselves up against Divine revelation; well-is formed people are always incredulous of stories respecting ghosts and apparitions.

[^125]
## TO UNCOVER, DISCOVER, DISCLOSR.

To UNCOVER, like DISCOVER, implies to take off the covering; but the former refers mostly to an artiticial, material, and occasional covering; the latter to a natural, moral, and habitual covering: plants are uncovered, that they may receive the benefit of the air: they are discovered to gratify the researches of the butanist.

We should uncovar our nakedness by throwligg of that Christian religion which has hitherto been our boast and comfort.

Bunfe. Since, you know, you cannot sce yourgelf So well as by reflection, 1 , your glasa, Will modestly discozer to yourself That of yourself which you know not of.

Seakspeare.
To discover and DISCLOSE (v. To publishh) hoth signify to lay open, but they differ in the object and manner of the action: to discover is to remove the covering which hides a thing from view, whether it be there by accident or design; to disclose is to open that which has been closed: as many things may be covered which are not closed, such things may, by drawing aside the covering, be discovered: a country is properly discovered, or a plant growing in snme heretofore nnknown place may be discovered; whatever is dieclosed must have been previously closed or enclosed in some other body; as to disclose the treasures which lie huried ln the earth.

Go, draw aside the curtains, and discover The several caskets to this noble prince.

Shatspeare.
The shells being broken, struek off, and gone, the stone incloded in them is thereby disolosed and set at liberty.

Woodward.
So in the figurative or moral application, a plot may be discovered, but a secret which lies deep in the bosom may be disclosed.

He ahall never, by any alteration in me, dis. cover my knowledge of his mistake. Pope.

If I disclore my passion,
Qur friendship's at an end : if I conceal it,
The world will call me false.
Anvison.

## UNDER, BICLOW, BENEATI.

UNDER, like hind in behind, and the German unter, hinter, etc., are all connected with the preposition in. implying the relation of enclosure BELOW de-
notes the state of being low; and BE NEATH, from the German nieder, and the Greek $\nu \varepsilon \rho \theta \varepsilon$ or $\varepsilon \nu \varepsilon \rho \theta \varepsilon$, downward, has the same original siguification. It is ev. ident, therefore, from the above, that the preposition under denotes any situation of retirement or concealment; below, any situation of inferiority or lowness; and beneath, the same, only in a still greater degree. We are covered or sheltered by that which we stand under; we excel or rise above that which is below us; we look down upon that which is beneath us: we live under the protection of government; the sum disappears when it is below the horizon; we are apt to tread upon that which is altogether beneath us.

All sublunary comforts imitate the changeableness, as well as feel the influence, of the planet they are under.

South.
Our minds are here and there, below, above; Nothing that's mortal can so quickly move.

Denham.
How can anything better be expected than rust and canker, when men will rather dig their treasure from beneath than fetch it from above?

South,
UNDERSTANDING, INTELLECT, INtelligence.
UNDERSTANDING ( $v$. To conceive), being the Saxon word, is employed to deseribe a familiar and easy power or operation of the mind in forming distinct ideas of things. INTELLECT ( $v$. Intel. lect) is employed to mark the same oper. ation in regard to higher and more abstruse objects. The understanding ap. plies to the first exercise of the rational powers: it is therefore aptly said of children and savages that they employ their understandings on the simple nb. jects of perception; a child uses his understanding to distinguish the dimensions of objects, or to apply the rigbt names to the thinge that come before his notice.

By understanding, 1 moar that faculty whereby we are enabled to appreizas the objects of knowledge, generals as well as inticnlars, absent things as well as present, and is judge of their truth or falsehood, good or evii.

Wickina
Intellert, being a matured state of the understanding, is most properly applied to the efforts of those who have their powers in full vigor: we speak of under. standing as the characteristic distinction between man and brute; but human be
ings are distinguished from each other by the measure of their intellact. We may expect the youngest children to employ an understanding according to the opportunities which they bave of using their senses; we are gratified when we see great intedeet in the youth whom we are instructing.

The light within us is (since the full) become darkness; and the understanding, that should be eyes to the blind faculty of the will, is blind itself.

Sonth.
All those arts and inventions which vulgar minds gaze at, the ingenious pursue, and all admire, are but the relics of an inteltect defaced with $\sin$ and time.

South.
Intellect and INTELLIGENCE are derived from the same word; but intellect is applied merely to human power, and intelligence to the spiritual power of higher beings; as the intelligence of angels: so, when applied to human beings, it is taken in the most abstract sense for the intellectual power: hence we speak of intelligence as displayed in the countenancc of a child whose looks evince that he has exerted bis intellect, and thereby proved that it exists.

> Silent as the ecstatic bliss
> Of somls, that by intelligence converse. OTw y .

## UNDETERMINED, UNSETTLED, UN-

GTEADY, WAVERING.
UNDETERMINED (v. To determine) is a temporary state of the mind; UNSETTLED is commonly more lasting: we are undetermined in the ordinary concerns of life; we are unsettled in matters of opinion: we may be undetermined whether we shall go or stay; we are unsettled in our faith or religious profession.

Undetermined and unsettled are applied to particular objects; UNSTEADY and WAVERING are habits of the mind: to be unsteady is, in fact, to be habitually unsettled in regard to all objects. An unsettled character is one that has no settled principles: an unsteady character has an unfitncss in himself to settle. Undetermined describes one uniform state of mind, namely, the want of determination: wavering describes a changeable state, namely, the state of determining variously at different times. Undetermined is always taken in an indifferent, wavering mostly in a bad, sense: we may
frequently be undetermined from the nat ure of the case, which does not present motives for determining; but a person is mostly wavering, from a defect in his character, in cases where he migbt determinc. A parent may with reason be undetermined as to the line of life which be shall choose for his son: men of soft and timid cbaracters are always wavering in the most trivial, as well as the most important, concerns of life.

We suffer the last part of life to steal from us in weak hopes of some fortnitous occarrence or drowsy equilibrations of undetermined connsel. Johnson.
Uncertain and unsettled as Cicero was, he seems fired with the contemplation of immortality.

Pearce.
Yon will find soberness and truth in the proper teachers of religion, and much unateadiness and vanity in others.

Earl Wentworth.
Yet such, we find, they are as can control
The servile actions of our wav'ring soul.
Prior.

## TO UNFOLD, UNRAVEL, DEVELOP.

To UNFOLD is to open that which bas been folded; to UNRAVEL is to open that which has been ravelled or tangled; to DEVELOP is to open that which has been wrapped in an envelope. The application of these terms therefore to moral objects is obvious: what has been folded and kept secret is unfolded; in this manner a hidden transaction is $u n$. folded, by being related circumstantially: what has been entangled in any mystery or confusion is unravelled: in this manner a mysterious transaction is unravelled, if any circumstance is fully accounted for: what has been wrapped up so as to be entirely shat out from view is developed; in this manner the plot of a play or novel, or the talent of a person, is devel. oped.
And to the sage-instructing eye unfold
The various twine of light.
'Тиомsоп.
You mnst be sure to unravel all your designd to a jealous man.

Admigon.
The character of Tiverius is extremely difficult to devalop.

Cumberlana.

## UNHAPPY, MISERABLE, WRETCHED.

UNHAPPY is literally not to be hap py; this is the negative condition of many who might be happy if they pleased. MISERABLE, from misereor, to pity, is to deserve pity; that is, to k
positively and extremely unhappy: this la the lot only of a comparatively few: WRETCHED, from our word wreck, the Saxon wrecca, an exile, and the like, signifies cast away or abandoned; that is, particularly miserable, which is the lot of still fewer. As happiness lies properly in the mind, unhappy is taken in the proper sense, with regard to the state of the feelings; but is figuratively extended to the outward circumstances which occasion the painful feelings; we lead an unhappy life, or are in an unhappy condition: as that which excites the compassion of others must be external, and the state of abandonment must of itself be an outward state, miserable and wretch. ed are properly applied to the outward circumstances which cause the pain, and improperly to the pain which is occasioned. We cun measure the force of these words, that is to say, the degree of unhappiness which they express, only by the circumstance which causes the unhappiness. An unhappy man is indefinite; aa we may be unhappy from slight circumstances, or from those which are important; a child may be said to be unhappy at the loss of a plaything; a man is unhappy who leads a vicions life: miserable and wretched are more limited in their application; a child cannot be either miserable or wretched and he who is so has some serious cause, either in bis own mind or in his circumstances, to make him so: a man is miserable who is tormented by his conscience; a mother will be wretched who sees ber child violently torn from her.

> Such is the fate unhappy women find, And suck the curse entail'd upon our kind.

Rowe.
God, according to his unlversal way of working. gracionsly turns these follies (from the passions) so far to the advantage of his miserable creatures, as to be the present solace and support of their distresses.

Warburton.
Tis murmur, discontent, distrust, That makes you vorotched.

Gay.

## UNLMPORTANT, INSIGNIFICANT, IMMA-

 TERIAL, INCONSIDERABLE.The want of importance, of consideration, of signification, and of matter or substance, is expressed by these terms. They differ, therefore, principally according to the meaning of the primitives; but
they are so closely allied that they may be employed sometimes indifferently. UNIMPORTANT regards the conse quences of our actions: it is unimpor. tant whether we use this or that word in certain cases: INCONSIDERABLE and INSIGNIFICANT respects those things which may attract notice: the former is more adapted to the grave style, to designate the comparative low value of things; the latter is a familiar term which seema to convey a contemptuous meaning: in a description, we may say that the number, the size, the quantity, etc., is inconsiderable; in speaking of persons, we may say they are insignifi. cant in stature, look, talent, station, and the like; or, speaking of things, an insignificant production, or an insignificant word: IMMATERLAL is a species of the unimportant, which is applied only to familiar subjects; it is immaterial whether we go to-day or to-morrow; it is immaterial whether we have a few or many.
Nigno and Guerra made no discoveries of any importance.

Robertson.
That the sonl cannot be proved mortal by any principle of natural reason is 1 think no inconsiderable point gained.

South.
As I am insignificant to the company in public places, I gratify the vanity of all who pretend to make an appearance. ADDISON.
If, in the judgment of impartial persons, the arguments be strong enough to convince an unbiassed mind, it is not material whether every wrangling atheist will sit down contented with tbem.

Stllinafleer.

## UNLESS, EXCEPT.

UNLESS, which is equivalent to if less, if not, or if one fail, is employed only for the particular case; but EXCEPT has always a reference to some general rule, of which an exception is bereby signified: I shall not do it unless he ask me; no one can enter eacept those who are provided with tickets.
Unless money can be borrowed, trade cannot be carried on. Blacestone

If a wife contlnues in the use of her jewels till her hushand's death, she shall afterward retain them against his executors and administrators, and all other persons except creditors.

Blackstone.
UNOFFENDING, INOFFENSIVE, HARMLESS.
UNOFFENDING denotes the act of not offending: INOFFENSIVE, the prop
erty of not being disposed or apt to of fend: HARMLESS, the property of being void of harm. Unoffending expresses, therefore, only a partial state; inoffensive and harmless mark the disposition and character. A child is unoffending as long as he does nothing to offend others; but he may be offensive if he discover an unamiable temper, or has unpleasant man. ners: a creature is inaffensive that has nothing in itself that can offend; but that is harmless which has neither the will nor the power to harm. Domestic animals are frequently very inoffensive; it is a great recommendation of a quack medicine to say that it is harmless.
The unoffending royal little ones were not only condemned to languish in solitude and darkness, but their bodies left to perish with disease,

SEWARD.
For drinks, the grape She erushes, inoffensive must. Muron.
When the disciple is questioned about the studles of his master, he makes report of some minute and frivalous researches which are intraduced only for the purpose of raising a harmiess langh.

Cumberaland.

## UNRULY, UNGOVERNABLE, REFRACTORY.

UNRDLY marks the want of dispositlon to be ruled; IINGOVERNABLE, an absolute incapaclty to be geverned; the former is a temporary or partial error, the latter is an habitual defect in the temper: a volatile child will be occasionally unruly; any child of strong passlons will become ungovernable by excessive indulgence: we say that our wills are un. ruly and our tempers are ungovernable. REFRACTORY, from the Latin refringo, to break open, marks the disposition to break everything down hefore it: it is the excese of the unruly with regard to children; the unruly is, however, negathee; but the refractory is positive: an unruly child objects to be ruled; a refractory cbild sets up a positive resistance to all rule; an unruly child may be altagether silent and passive; a refrac. tory child always commite himelf by some act of lntemperance in word or deed: he is unruly, if in any degree he gives trouble in the ruling; he is refractory, if he refuses altogether to be ruled.

[^126]I conceive (replied Nicholss) I stand bere be fore you, my most equitable judges, for no wors a crime then cudgelling my refractory mule.

Cumbertand
Heav'ns, how unlike their Belgic sires of old l Rough, poor, content, ungovernably bold.

GOLDSMITH.

## UNSEARCHABLE, INSCRUTABLE.

These terms are both applied to thinge. set above the understanding of man, but not altogether indifferently; for that which is UNSEARCHABLE is not set at so great a distance from us as that which is INSCRUTABLE: for that which is searched is in common concerns easier to be found than that which requires a scrutiny. The ways of God are all to us finite creatures more or less unsearchable; but the mysterious plans of Providence, as frequently evinced in the affairs of men, are altogether inscrutable.

## Thinge else by me unsaarohablo, now heard

 With wonder.Mrlios
To expect that the intricacies of science will be pierced by a careless glance, is to expect e partic. ular privilege; hut to suppose thet the maze is insorutable to diligence, is to onchain the mind in voluntary shackles,

JOHABON.
UNSPEAKABLE, INETFABLE, UNUTTERABIE, INEXPRESSIBLE.
UNSPEAKABLE and INEFFABLE, from the Latin for, to speak, have precisely the sams meaning; but the un. speakable ls said of objects In general, partioularly of that which is above human conception, and surpasses the power of language to describe; as the unspeakable goodness of God: INEFFABLE is said of such objects as cannot be painted in words with adequate force; as the inef, fable sweetness of a person's look: UN. UTTERABLE and INEXPRESSIBLE are extended in their signification to that which is incommunicable by signs from one being to another; thus grief is un. utterable which it is not in the power of the sufferer by any sounds to bring home to the feeling of another; grief is inexpressible which is not to be expressed by looks, or words, or any signs. Unuttera. $b l e$ is therefore applied only to the individual who wishes to give utterance; in. expressible may be said of that which is to be expressed concerning others: ous own pains are $v n u t t e r a b l e$; the sweetpess of a person's countenance is imexpressihfs

The vast difference of God's nature from onrs makes the difference between them so uuspeakably greut.

SOUTH.
The influences of the Divine nature enliven the mind with ineffuble joys.

Sottre.
Nature breeds,
Ferverse, all monstrous, all prodigious things, Abominable, unutterable. Milton.
The evil which ties lurking under a temptation is intolerable and ineapressibls.

Sovth.

## UNTRUTH, FALSEHOOD, FALSITY, LIE.

UNTRUTH is an untrue saying; FALSEHOOD and LIE are false sayings: untruth of itself reflects no disgrace on the agent; it may be unintentional or not: a falsehood and a lie are intentional false sayings, differing only in degree as to the guilt of the offender: a falsehood 's not always spoken for the express intention of deceiving, but a lie is uttered only for the worst of purposes. Some petsons have a habit of telling false hoods from the mere love of talking: those who are guilty of bad actions endeavor to conceal them by lies. Children are apt to speak untruths for want of understanding the value of words: travellers, from a love of exaggeration, are apt to introduce falsehoods into their narrations: it is the nature of a lie to increase itself to a tenfold degree; one lie must be backed by many more.

Falsehood is also used in the abstract sense for what is false. FALSIT'Y is nerer used but in the abstract sense, for the property of the false. The former is general, the latter particular, in the application: the truth or falsehood of an assertion is not always to be distinctly proved; the falsity of any particular person's assertion may be proved by the evidence of others.

Ahove all things tell no untruth, no, not even in trifles.

Sib Henky Sydney.
Many temptations to falsehood will occur in the disguise of passions too specious to fear much resistance.

Jornson.
Probabillty does not make any alteration either in tbe troth or falsity of things. Sourr.

The nature of a lis consists in this, that it is a falss signiflcation knowingly and volontarily used.

South.
UNWORTHY, WORTHLFSS.
UNWORTHY is a term of less reproach than WORTHLESS; for the former signifies not to be worthy of praise or hon.
or: the latter signifies to be without all worth, and consequently in the fullest sense bad. It may be a mark of modesty or humility to say that I am an unworthy partaker of your kindness; but it would be folly and extravagance to say that I am a worthless partaker of yonr kindness. Thereare many unworthy members in every religious community; but every society that is conducted upon propd er principles will take care to exclude worthless members. In regard to one another, we are often unvorthy of the distinctions or privileges we enjoy; in regard to our Maker, we are all unworthy of bis goodness, for we are all worthless in his eyes.
Since in dark sorrow I my days did spend, Till now disdaining his unworthy end. DENBAM.

The school of Socrutes was at one time deserted by everybody except Eschines, the parasite of the tyrant Dionysius, and the most worthless man living.

Cumberland.

## USAGE, CUSTOM, PRESCRIPTION.

The USAGE is what one has been long used to do; CUSTOM (v. Custom) is what one generally does; PRESCRIPTION is what is prescribed by usage to be done. The usage acquires force and sanction by dint of time; the custom acquires sanction by the frequency of its being done or the numbers doing it; the prescription acquires force by the authority which prescribes. Hence it arises that eustoms valy in evory age, but that usage and pre. seription supply the place of written law.

[^127]Bunke.
For, since the time of Saturn's holy reign,
His lospitable customs we retain. Darden.
If in any case the shackles of prescription could be wholly shaken off, on what occasion should it be expected but in the selection of law* ful pleasure?

Johnson

## UTILITY, USE, SERVICE, AVAIL.

UTILITY and USE both come from utor. SERVICE, from the Latin servio, to employ or make use of. AVAIL, from $a$ or $a d$ and vail, in French valoir, and Latin valeo, signifies strength for a given purpose or to a given end.

All these terms imply fitness to be employed to advantage ( $v$. Advantage, Benefit). Utility is applied in a general
sense to what may be usefully employed : use to that which is actually so employed; things are said to be of general utility, or a thing is said to be of a particular use.
Those things which have leng gone together are confederate, whereas new things piece not so well; but, though they help by their utility, yet they trouble by their inconformity. BAcon.
The Greeks in the heroic age seem to have beea uoacquainted with the use of iren.

Robertson.
The word use refers us to the employment of things generally, and the advantage derived from such use; service, the particular state or capacity of a thing to be usefully employed. It is most proper, therefore, to say that prayers and entreaties are of use; but in speaking of tools, weapons, and the like, to say they are of service. Prudence forbids us to destroy anything that may be of use; economy enjoins upon us not to throw aside anything as long as it is fit for service.
A man with great talents but void of discretion $s$ like Polyphemus in the fable, strong and blind, ondued with an irresistible force, which for want of sight is of no use to him.

Addison.
Perhaps it might be of servics to these people Thypochondriaes) to wear some electric substance next their skin, to defend the nerves and flbres rom the damp of non-electric air. Bridone.

All the preceding terms are taken absolutely: AVAIL is a term of relative import; it respects the circumstances ander which a thing may be fit or otherwise to be employed with efficacy. When entreaties are found to be of no avail, females sometimes try the force of tears.
What does it avail, though Seneca had tanght is goud morality as Christ himself from the nount?

Cumberland.

## TO UTTER, SPEAK, ARTICULATE, PRONOUNCE.

UTTER, from out, signifies to put out; that is, to send forth a sound: this, thereFore, is a more general term than SPEAK, which is to utter an intelligible sound. We may utter a groan; we speale words only, or that which is intended to serve is words. To speak, therefore, is only a species of utterance; a dumb man has xeterance, but not speech. ARTICULATE and PRONOUNCE are modes of speaking; to articulate, from articulum, a joint,
is to pronounce distinctly the letters of syllables of words; which is the first effort of a child beginning to speak. It is of great importance to make a child articulate every letter when he first begins to speak or read. To promounce from the Latin pronuncio, to speak out loud, is a formal mode of speaking. A child must first articulate the letters and the syllables, then he pronounces or sets forth the whole word; this is necessary before he can speal to be understood.
At each word that my destruction $u t t e r ' d$
My heart recoiled.
Otwat.
What you keep by you, you may change and mend,
But words oace spoke can never be recall'd.
Waller.
The torments of disease can sometimes only be signified by groans or sobs, or inarticulata ejacalations.

JOHNSON.
Speak the speech, I pray yon, as I pronounced it to you.

Shakspeanf

## V.

## VACANCY, VACUITY, INANITY.

VACANCY and VACUITY both de. note the space unoccupied, or the abstract quality of being unoecupied. INANITY, from the Latin inanis, denotes the abstract quality of emptiness, or of not containing anything: hence the former terms vacancy and vacuity are used in an indifferent sense; inanity always in a bad sense: there may be a vacancy in the mind, or a vacancy in life, which we may or may not fill up as we please: but inanity of character denotes the want of the essentials that constitute a character.
There are vaouities in the happiest life, which it is not in the power of the world to fill.

Blatr.
When I look up and behold the heavens, it makes me scorn the world and the pleasares thereef, considering the vanity of these and the inanity of the other.

Howell.

## VAIN, INEFFECTUAL, FRUITLESS.

These epithets are all applied to our endeavors; but the term VAIN (v.Idle) is the most general and indefinito; the other terms are particular and definite. What we aim at, as well as what we

## VALUE

strive for, may be vain; but INEFFECTUAL, that is, not effectual ( $v$. Effective), and FRUITLESS, that is, without fruit, signifying not producing the desired fruit of one's labor, refer only to the termination or value of our labors. When the object aimed at is general in its import, it is common to term the endeavor vain when it cannot attain this object: it is yain to attempt to reform a person's character until he is convinced that he stands in need of reformation; when the means employed are inadequate for the attainment of the particular end, it is usual to call the endeavor ineffectual; cool argoments will be incffectual in convincing any one inflamed with a particular passion: when labor is specifically employed for the attainment of a partic ular object, it is usual to term it fruitless if it fail: peace-makers will often find themselves in this condition, that their labors will be rendered fruitless by the violent passions of angry opponents.

Nature alond calls out for balmy rest, But all in vain.

Gentleman.
After many fruitless overtures, the Inca, despairing of any cordial union with a Spaniard, attacked him by surprise with a nunerous body.

Robertson.
Thou thyself with scorn And anger wouldst resent the offer'd wrong, Though ineffectual found.

Milton.

## valuable, precious, costly.

VALUABLE signifies fit to be valued; PRECIOUS, having a high price ; COSTLY, costing much money. Valuable expresses directly the idea of value; precious and costly express the same idea indirectly: on the other hand, that which is valuable is only said to be fit or deserving of value; but precious and costly denote that which is highly valuable, accordiog to the ordinary measure of valuing objects, that is, by the price they bear; hence, the latter two express the idea much more strongly than the former.

[^128]They are similarly distinguished in their moral application: a book is valu. able according to its contents, or according to the estimate which men sct upon it, either individually or collectively. The Bible is the only precious book in the world that has intrinsic value, that is, set above all price. There are many costly things, which are only valuable to the individuals who are disposed to expend money upon them.

What an absurd thing it is to pass over all the valuable parts of a man, and fix our attention on his intirmities!

Addison.
Two other precious drops that ready stood Each in their crystal sluice, he, ere they fell, Kiss'd as the gracious signs of sweet remorse. Milton.
Christ is sometimes pleased to make the pro. fession of himself costly.

SOUTH.

## Value, worth, rate, price.

VALUE, from the Latin valeo, to be strong, respects those essential qualities which constitute its strength. WORTH, in German werth, from währen, to perceive, signifies that good which is experienced or felt to exist in a thing. RATE, v. Proportion. PRICE, in Latin pretium, from the Greck $\pi \rho a \sigma \sigma \omega$, to sell, signifies what a thing is sold for.

Value is a general and indefinite term, applied to whatever is conceived to be good in a thing: the worth is that good only which is conceived or known as such. The value, therefore, of a thing is as variable as the humors and circumstances of men; it may be nothing or something very great in the same object at the same time in the eyes of different men. The worth is, however, that value which is acknowledged; it is therefore something more fixed and permanent: we speak of the value of external objects which are determined by taste; but the worth of things as determined by rule. The value of a book that is out of print is fluctuating and uncertain; but its real worth may not be more than what it would fetch for waste paper. The rate and price are the measures of that value or worth; the former in a general, the latter in a particular application to mercantile transactions. Whatever we give in exchange for another thing, whether according to a definite or an indefinite estimation, that is said to be done at $\theta$
tertain rate; thus we purcháse pleasure at a dear rate, when it is at the expense of our health: price is the rate of exchange estimated by coin or any other frediuni: herice price is a fixed rate, and may be figuratively applied in that sense to moral objects; as, when health is expressly sacrificed to pleasure, it may be termed the price of pleasure.
Life hias no vaiue as an end, but means.
An end deplorable! A means divine. Young. Pay
No moment, but in purchase of its worth; And what it's worth ask deatb-beds. Young.
If you will take my humor as it ruris, you shall have hearty thanks into the bargain for taking it off at such a rate.

Earl of Shaftesbuny.
The soiil's ligh price
fs writ in all the conduct of the skies. Young.

## to value, prize, esteem.

To Value is in the literal serise to fix a value on a thing. PRIZE, signifying to fix a price, and ESTEEM (v. Esteem), are both modes of valuing.

To value is to set any value, real or supposititious, relative or absolute, on a thing: in this sense meh value gold above silver, or an appraiser values goods. To value may either be applied to material or spiritual subjects, to corporeal or mental actons: prize and esteen are taken only as mental actions; the former in reference to sensible or moral objects, the latter only to moral objects: we may value books according to their market price, or we may value them according to thelr contents; we prize hooks only for their contents, in which sense prize is a much stronger term than value; we also prize men for their usefulness to society; we esteem their moral characters.

The prize, the beanteous prize, I will resign, So dearly valu'd, and so justly mine. Pope.

Nothing makes women esteomed by the oppoWite sex more than chastity; whether it be that we always prize those most who are hardest to come at, or that nothing besides chastity, with Its collateral attendants, fidelity and constancy, gives a man a property in the person he loves.

Ábdisdn.

## Variation, Variety.

VARIATION denotes the act of varying (v. To change); VARIETY denotes the quality of varying, or the thing varied. The astronomer observes the va:
riations in the heavens; the philosopher observes the variations in the climate from year to year. Varicty is pleasing to all persons, but to none so much as the young and the fickle: there is an infinite variety in ev́èry speeies of objects, animate or inanlmate.

The idea of variation (as a constituent in beauty), without attending so accurately to the manier of variation, his led Mr. Hogarth to consider angular figures as beautiful. Burke.
As to the celors usually found in beautiful bodjes, it may be difflcult to ascertain them, becanse in the several parts of nature there is an infinite variety.

Burke.

## VENAL, MERCENARY.

VENAL, from the Latin veralis, signifies salable or ready to be sold, which, applied as it commonly is to persons, is a much stronger term than MERCENARY (v. Hercenary). A venal man gives up all principlc for interest; a mercenary man seeks his interest without regard to principle: venal writers are such as write in favor of the cause that can promote them to riches or honors; a servant is commonly a mercenary, who gives his services actording as he is paid: those whd are joudest in their professions of political purity are the best subjects for a minister to make venal; a mercenary spirit is engendered in the minds of those who devote themselves exclusively to trade.

The minister, well pleas'd at small expense, To silence so much rude impertirience, With squeeze and whisper yields to his demands, And on the venal list enroll'd he stands.

JENYNS:
For their assistance they repair to the Northern steel; and bring in an unnatural; mercenary crew:

Sodeth.

## VENIAL, PARDONABLE.

VENIAL, from the Latin venia, pardon or indulgence, is applied to what may be tolerated without express disparagement to the individual, or direct censure; but the PARDONABLiE is that which may only escape severe censure, but cannot be allowed: garrulity is a venial offence in old age; levity in youth is pardonable in single instances.
While the clergy are employed in extirpating mortal sins, I should be glad to rally the world out of indecehcies and venial transgressiont.

Cuicherlanth

The weaknsssed of Elizabeth were not conined to that period of life when they are more pardonable.

Robebtson.

## VERBAL, VOCAL, ORAL.

VERBAL, from verbum, a word, signiLes after the manner of a spoken word; ORAL, from 08, a mouth, signifies by word of mouth; and VOCAL, from vox, the voice, siguifies by the voice: the forner two of these words are used to distinguish the speaking from writing; the latter to distinguish the sounds of the poice from any other sounds, particularly in singing: a verbal messag? is distinguished from one written on a paper, or in a note; oral tradition is distinguished from that which is handed down to posterity by means of books; vocal music Is distinguished from instrumentai; vocal sounds are more harmonious than those which proceed from any other bodies.
Among all the Northern nations, ohaking of hande was hald necessary to bind the bargain, a custom whioh wa etill retain in meny verbal oontracte.

Blackstone.

## Forth came the human pair,

And join'd their vooal worshly to the chotr
Of craatures wanting voice.
Miluton.
In the first agas of the world instruction was commonly oral.

Johnaon.

## YEXATION, MORTIFICATION, CHAGRIN.

VEXATION ( $v$. To displease) springe from a variety of causes, acting unpleasantly on the inclinations or passions of men; MORTIFICATION (v. To humble) is a strong degree of vexation, which arises from particular circumstances acting on particular passions: the loss of a day's pleasure is a vexation to one who is eager for pleasure; the loss of a prize, or the circumstance of coming into disgrace where we expected honor, is a morlification to an ambitious person. Vexation arises principally from our wishes and views being crossed; mortification, from our pride and self-importance being hurt; CHAGRIN, in French chagrin, from aigrir, and the Latim acer, sharp, signifying a sharp point, arises from a mixture of the two; disappointments are alwaye attended with more or less of vexation, according to the circumstances which give pain and trouble; an exposure of our poverty may be more or less of a mortification, according to the value
which we set on wealth and grandear ; a refusal of a request will produce more or less of ohagrin, as it is accompanied with circumstances more or less mortifying to our pride.
Poverty is an evil complicated with so many circumatances of uneasiness and vexation, that every man is atudions to avoid it. Jounson.
I arn mortified by those compliments whick were designed to encourage me. Pops,

It was your purpose to balance my chagrin a. the inconsiderable effect of that essay, by repre senting that it obtained some notice.

His.

## VIEW, SURVEY, PROSPECT.

VIEW ( $v, T 0$ look), and SURVEY, compounded of vey or view and sur, over, mark the act of the person, namely, the looking over a thling with more or less attention: PROSPECT, from the Latin prospectus and prospicio, to see before, designates the thing seen. We take a view or survey; the prospect presents itself : the view is of an indefinite extent; the survey is always oomprehensive in its nature. Ignorant people take but narrow views of things; men take more or less enlarged viewa, according to their oultivation: the oapacious mind of a genius takes a survey of all nature. The view depends altogether on the train of a person's thoughts ; the prospect ie set before him, it depende upon the nature of the thing: our views of advancement are sometimes very fallaclous; our prospects are very delusive; both occasion disappointment: the former is the keener, as we have to charge the miscalculation upon ourselves. Sometimes our prospects depend upon our views, at least in matters of religion; he who forms erroneous views of a future state has but a wretched prospect beyond the grave.

## With inward viewo

Thence on the ideal kingdom ewift ahe tarns
Her eye.
Тчомяон.
Fools view but part, and not the whole survey, So crowd existence all into a day.

Jentma
No land so rude but looks beyond the tomb
For future prospects in a world to come.
Jentes.
VIEW, PROSPECT, LANDSCAPE.
VIEW and PROSPECT (v. View, prospect), though applied here to external objects of sense, bave a similar distinction as in the preceding article. The
vero is not only that which may be seen, but that which is actually seen; the prospect is that which may be seen; hence the term view is mostly coupled with the person viewing, although a prospect exists continually, whether seen or not: hence we speak of our vieno being intercepted, but not our prospect intercepted; a confined or bounded view, but a lively or dreary prospect, or the prospect clears up or extends.
Te noble few: who here unbending stand Beneath life's pressure, yet bear np awhile, And what yonr bounded viero, which only saw A little part, deemed evil, is no more. Тномяок.

The great eiernal scheme, Involving all, and in a perfect whale Uniting as the prospect wider spreads To reason's eye refin'd, clears up apace.

Thovaon.
View is an indefinite term; it may be said either of a number of objects or of a single object, of a wbole or of a part: prospect is said only of an aggregate number of objects: we may have a view of a town, of a number of scattered houses, of a single house, or of the spire of a steeple; but the prospect comprebends that which comes within the range of the eye. View may be said of that which is seen directly or indirectly; prospect only of that which directly presents itaelf to the eye: bence a drawing of an object may be termed a view, although not a prospect. View is confined to no particular objects; prospect mostly reepects rural objects ; and LANDSCAPE respects no others. Landscape, landskip, or landshape, denote any portion of country which is in a particular form: hence the landscupe is a species of prospect. A wrospect way be wide, and comprehend an assemblage of objects both of nature and art; but a landseape is narrow, and hes within the compass of the naked eye: hence it is also that landscape may be taken for the drawing of a landscape, and consequently for a species of view: the laking of views or landscapes is the last exercise of the learner in drawing.

Thus was this place
A happy sural seat of various views. Millon.
Now skies and seas their prospect only bound. Dryden.

[^129]
## VIOLENT, FURIOUS, BOISTEROUS, VE

 HEMENT, IMPETUOUS.VIOLENT gignifies having force $; \boldsymbol{v}$. Force). FURIOUS signifies having fury (v. Anger). BOISTEROUS in all probability comes from bestir, signifying ready to bestir or come into motion. VEHEMENT, in Latin vehemens, compounded of veho and mens, aignifiea carried away by the mind or the force of passion. IMPETUOUS signifies having an impetus.

Violent is here the most general term, including the idea of force or violence, which is common to them all; it is as general in its application as in its meaning. When violent and furious are applied to the same objects, the latter expresses a higher degree of the former: a furious whirlwind is violent beyond meas. ure. Violent and loisterous are likewise applied to the same objects; but the boisterous refers only to the violence of the motion or noise: hence we say that a wind is violent, inasmuch as it acts with great force upon all bodies; it is boisterous, inasmuch as it causes the great mo. tion of bodies: impetrous, like boisterous, is also applied to bodies moving with great violence.

Probably the breadth of it (the passage be tween Scylla and Charybdis) is greatly increased by the violent impetwosity of the current.

Brydone.
The furious pard,
Cow'd and subdu'd, flies from the face of man.

## Somerviles.

Ye too, ye winds! that now begin to blow
With boisterous sweep, I raise my voice to you.
Tномаол.
The central waters round impetuous rush'd.
Tномson.
These terms are all applied to persons, or what is personal, with a gimilar distinction: a man is violent in his opinions, violent in his measures, violent in his re sentments; he is furious in his anger, or has a furious temper; he is vehement in his affections or passions, vehement in love, vehement in zeal, vehement in pursuing an object, vehement in expression : violence transfers itself to some external object on which it acts with force; but vehemence respects that species of violence which is confined to the person himself: we may dread violence, because it ia al. ways liable to do mischief; we ought to
suppress our vehemence, because it is in;urious to ourselves: a violent partisan rendera himself obnoxious to others; a man who is vehement in any cause puts it out of hia own power to be of u8e. Impetwosity ia rather the extreme of violence or vehemence: an impetuous attack is an excessively violent attack; an impetwous character is an excesaively vehement charscter. Boisterous is said of the manner and the behavior rather than the mind.

This gentleman, among $x$ thonsand others, is a zreat instance of the fate of all who are carried away by party-spirit of any side ; I wish all violence may sncceed as ill.

Pope.
If there be any use of gesticulation, it must be applied to the ignorant and rude, who will be more affected by vehemence than delighted by propriety.

Johnson.
But there a power steps in and limits the arcogance of ragiog passions and furious elements. Burke.
Is there a passion whose impetuous force
Disturbs the human breast, and breaking forth With sad eruptions deals Jestruction round, But, by the magic strains of some soft air, is harmonized to peace?

Cowpen.
They in this examination, of which there is printed an account not unentertaining, behaved with the boisterousness of men elated with recent anthority.

Johnson.
VISION, APPARITION, PHANTOM, SPECTRE, GHOST.
VISION, from the Latin visus, seeing or aeen, aignifies either the act of seeing or thing seen: APPARITION, from appear, signifies the thing that appears. As the thing seen ia only the improper signification, the term vision is never employed but in regard to some agent: the vision depends upon the state of the viswal organ; the vision of a person whose aight is defective will frequently be fallacious; he will see some things double which are single, long which are short, and the like.
He clasps his leus, if haply they may see,
Close to the part where vision, ought to be,
Bot finds that, though his tubes ussist the sight, They cannot give it, or make darkness lighlt.

Cowper.
In like manner, if the sight be miraculously impressed, his vision will enable him to see that which is supernatural: hence it is that vision is either true or false, according to the circumstances of the individual ; and a vision, signifying a thing seen, is taken for a supernatural
exertion of the vision: apparition, on the contrary, refers us to the object aeen; this may be true or falae, according to the manner in which it preaents itself. Joseph was warned by a vision to fly into Egypt with his family; Mary Magdalene was informed of the reaurrection of our Saviour by an apparition: feverish people often think they see visions; timid and credulous people sometimes take trees and poats for apparitions.
Visions and inspirations some expect Their conrse here to direct.

Cowler.
Full fast he flies, and dares not look behind him, Till out of breath he overtakes his fellows, Who gather round and wonder at the tale of horrid apparition.

Blair.
PHANTOM, from the Greek $\phi a \omega \omega$, to appear, is used for a false apparition, or the appearance of a thing otherwise than what it ia; thus the ignis fatuew, vulgarly called Jack-o'-Lantern, is a phantom. SPECTRE, from specio, to behold, and GHOST, from geist, a spirit, are the apparitions of immaterial subatances. The spectre is taken for any apiritual being that appears; but ghost is taken only for the apirits of departed men who appear to their fellow-creaturea: a spectre ia sometimes made to appear on the stage; ghosts exiat mostly in the imagination of the young and the ignorant.
The phantoms which haunt a desert are want, and misery, and danger.

Johnson.
Rons'd from their slumbers,
In grim array the grisly spectres rise. Blais. The lonely tower
Is also shumn'd, whose mournful chambers hold, So night-struck fancy dreams, the yelling phost:

Thomson.

## VOTE, SUFFRAGE, VOICE.

VOTE, in Latin votum, from voveo, to vow, is very probably from vox, a voice, signifying the voice that is raised in supplication to heaven. SUFFRAGE, in Latin suffragium, is in all probability compounded of sub and frango, to break out or declare for a thing. VOICE is here figuratively taken for the voice that ia raised in favor of a thing.

The vote is the wish itself, whether expressed or not; a person has a vote, that is, the power of wishing; but the suffrage and the voice are the wish that is expressed; a person gives his suffrage or his voice. The vote is the settled and fired
wish, it is that by which social concerns in life are determined; the suffrage is a vote given only in particular cases; the voice is the declared opinion or wish, expressed either by individuals or the public at large. The vote and voice are given either for or against a person or thing; the suffrage is commonly given in favor of a person: in all public assemblies the majority of votes decide the question; members of Parliament are chosen by the suffrages of the people; in the execution of a will, every executor has a voice in all that is transacted.

The popular vote
Inclines here to continue.
Reputation pas des the euffrage of criticism, but by the fondness of friendship.

Johnson.
That something's ours when we from life depart, This all concelve, all feel It at the hcart ;
The wise of learn'd antlquity proclaim
This truth; the public voice declares the same.
Jenyeg.

## W.

TO WAIT, WAIT FOR, AWAIT, LOOK FOR, EXPECT.
WAIT, WAIT FOR, AWAIT, in German warten, which is an intensive of währen, to see or look, and EXPECT, from the Latin ex, out of, and specto, to behold, both signify originally the same thing as LOOK FOR, i.e., to look with concern for a thing.

All these terms express the action of the mind when directed to future matters of personal concern to the agent. Wait, wait for, and await, differ less in sense than in application, the former two being in famlliar use, and the latter only in the grave style: these words imply the looking simply toward an object in a state of suspense or still regard; as to wait until a person arrives, or wait for his arrival; and await the bour of one's death, that is, to keep the mind in readiness for it.
Wait till thy being slall be unfolded. Buain.
Not less resolv'd, Antenor's valiant heir Confronts Achilles, and awaite the war. Pope.

Wait and wait for refer to matters that are remote and obscure in the prospect, or uncertain in the event; await may be
applied to that which is considered to be near at hand and probable to happen, and in this sense it is clearly allied to look for and expect, the former of which expresses the acts of the eye as well as the mind, the latter, the act of the mind only, in contemplating an object as very probable or even certain. It is our duty patiently to await the severest trials when they threaten us. When children are too much indulged and caressed, they are apt to look for a repctition of caresses at inconvenient seasons; it is in vain to look for or expect happiness from the conjugal state, when it is not founded on a cordial and mutual regard.
This said, he sat, and expectation held
His looks snspense, anoriting who appeared To second, or oppose, or undertake
Tbe perilous attempt.
Milton.
If you look: for a friend in whose temper there is not to be found the least inequality, you look for a pleasing phantom.

Blatb.
We are not to expect from our interconrse with others, all that satisfaction we fondly wish.

Blalz.

## WAKEFUL, WATCHFUL, VIGILANT.

We may he WAKEFTLL without being WATCHFUL; but we cannot be watch ful without being wakeful. Wakefulness is an affair of the body, and depends upon the temperament ; watchfulness is an affair of the will, and depends upon the determination: some persons are more wakeful than they wish to be; few are as watchful as they ought to be. VIGILANCE, from the Latin vigil, and the Greek $a \gamma a \lambda \lambda \lambda_{0}, a \gamma a \lambda \lambda \iota a \omega$, to be on the alert, expresses a high degree of watchfudness: a sentinel is watchful who on ordinary occasions keeps good watch: but it is necessary for him, on extraordinary occasions, to be vigilant, in order to detect whatever may pass. We are watchful only in the proper sense of watching; but we may be vigilant in detecting moral as well as natural evils.
Music shall wake her that hath power to charm Pale sickncss, and avert the stings of pain: Can raise or quell our passions, and becalm In sweet oblivion the too wakeful sense.

Fenton.
He who remembers what has fallen out, will be watchful against wliat may happen. Sobtr.

Let a man strictly observe the first hints and whispers of good and evil that pass in his heart: this will keep conscience quick and vigilant.

South

TO WANDER, TO STROLL, RAMBLE, ROVE, ROAM, RANGE.
WANDER, in German wandern, is a frequentative of wenden, to turn, signifyIng to turn frequently. To STROLL is probably an intensive of to roll, that is, to go in a planless manner. RAMBLE, from the Latin re and ambulo, is to walk backward and forward; and ROVE is probably a contraction of ramble. ROAM is connected with our word room, space, signifying to go in a wide space, and the Hebrew rom, to be violently moved backward and forward. RANGE, from the noun range, a rank, row, or extended space, signifies to go over a great space.
't'he idea of going in an irregular and free manner is cammon to all these terms. To wander is to ga in no fixed path; to stroll is to wander out of a path that we had taken. To wander may be an involuntary attion; a person may wander to a great distance, or for an indefinite length of time; in this manner a person wanders who has lost himself in a wood: to stroll is a voluntary action, limited at our discretion; thus when a person takes a walk, he sometimes strolls from one path into another as he pleases: to ramble is to wander without any object, and consequently with more than ordinary irregularity; in this manner he who sets out to take a walk, without knowiog or thinking where he shall go, rambles as chance directs: to rove is to wander in the same planless manner, but to a wider extent; a fugitive who does not know his road roves about the country in quest of some retreat: to roam is to wander from the impulse of a troubled mind; in this manner a lunatic who has broken loose may roam about the country; so likewise a person who travels about, because he cannot rest in quiet at home, may also be said to roam in quest of peace: to range is the contrary of to roam; as the former indicates a disordered state of mind, the latter indicates composure and fixedness; we range within certain limits, as the hunter ranges the forest, the shepberd ranges the mountains.

But far about they wander from the grave Of him, whom his ungentle fortune urg'd Against his own sad breast to lift the hand Df impious violence.

Thomson.

I found by the volce of my triend who walked by me, that we hed insensibly strolled into the grove sacred to the widow.

Addison.
I thus rambled from procket to pocket untis the beginning of the civil wars. ADdison.
Where is that knowledge now, that regal thought, With just advice and timely connsel fraught? Where now, 0 judge of Israel, does it rove?

Pbiok.
She looks abroad, and prunes herself for flight, Like an unwilling innate longs to roam
From this dull earth, and seek her native home JENYN.
The stag, too, singled from the herd, wbere long He rang'd the branching monarch of the shades, Before the tempest drives.

Thombon.

## TO WANT, NEED, LACK.

To be without is the common idea ex. pressed by these terms; but to WANT is to be without that which contributes to our comfort, or is an object of our desire; to NEED is to be without that which is essential for our existence or our purposes; to LACK, which is probably a variation from leak, and a term not in frequent use, expresses little more than the general idea of being without, unaccompanied by any collateral idea. From the close connection which subsists between desiring and want, it is usual to consider what we want as artificial, and what we need as natural and indispensable: what one man wants is a superfluity to another; but that which is needed by one is in like circumstances needed by all: tender people want a fire when others would be glad not to have it; all persons need warm clothing and a warm house in the winter.

To be rich is to have more than is desired, and more than is wanted. Johnson.
The old from such affairs are only freed,
Which vig'rous youth and strength of body need.
Dentam.
To wand and need may extend indefi nitely to many or all objects; to lack, or be deficient, is properly said of a single object; we may want or need eversthing; we lack one thing, we lack this or that; a rich man may lack understanding, virtue, or religion; he who wants nothing is a happy man; he who needs nothing may be bappy if he wants no more than he has; for then be lacks tbat which alone can make him happy, which is cantentment.

See the mind of beastly man I That hath ao soon forgot the excellence Of his creation, when he life began, That now he chooseth with vile difference To be a beast, and lacke intelligence. Spenaer.

## WATERMAN, BOATMAN, FERRYMAN.

These three terms are employed for persons who are engaged with boats; but the term WATERMAN is specifically applied to such whose business it is to let out their boats and themselves for a given time; the BOATMAN may use a boat only occasionally for the transfer of goods; a FERRYMAN uses a boat only for the conveyance of persons or goods across a particular river or piece of water.

Bubbles of air working upward from the very bottom of the lake, the waterman told us that they are observed alwaya to rise in the same places.

Adpison.
Now nearer to the Stygian lake they draw, Whom from the shore the surly boatman saw. Dryden.
So forth they rowed; and that ferryman, With his stiffe oars, did brush the sea so strong That the hoarse waters from his frigot ran.

Spengea.
wave, hillow, surge, breaker.
WAVE, from the Saxon waegan, and German wiegen, to weigh or rock, is applied to water in an undulating state; it is, therefore, the generic term, and the rest are specific terms; those waves which swell more than ordinarily are termed BILLOWS, which is derived from bulge or bilge, and German balg, the paunch or belly: those waves which rise higher than usual are termed SURGES, from the Latin surgo, to rise: those vaves which dash against the shore, or against vessels, with more than ordinary force, are termed BREAKERS.
The wave behind impels the aoave before. Pope. I saw him beat the billows under him,
And ride upon their backs. Shakspeane.
He fies aloft, and with impetuous roar,
Pursues the foaming surges to the shore.
DRYDEN.
Now on the mountain wave on high they ride,
Then downward plunge beneath th' involving tide,
Till one who seems in agony to strive,
The whirling brsakers heave on shore alive.
Falconen.
WAY, MANNER, METHOD, MODE, COURSE, MEANS.
All these words denote the steps which are pursued from the beginning to the
completion of any work. The WAY is hoth general and indefinite; it is either taken by accident or chosen by design : the MANNER and METHOL are species of the way chosen hy design. Whoever attempts to do that which is strange to him, will at first do it in an awkward way; the manner of conferring a favon is often more than the favor itself; experience supplies men in the end with 2 snitable method of carrying on their business.
The ways of Heaven are dark and intricate.
Admiaon.
My mind is taken up in a more melancholy manner.

Atterbidit.
Men are willing to try all methods of reconciling guilt and quiet.

Johnson.
The method is said of that which requires contrivance; the MODE , of that which requires practice and habitual attention ; the former being applied to matters of art, and the latter to neechanical actions: the master has a good method of teaching to write; the scholar has a good or had mode of holding his pen. The COURSE and the MEANS are the way which we pursue in our moral conduct: the course is the course of measures which are adopted to produce a certain result; the means collectively for the course which lead to a certain end: in order to obtain legal redress, we must pursue a certain course in law; law is one means of gaining redress, but we do wisely , if we can, to adopt the safer and pleas. anter means of persuasion and cool remonstrance.

Modes of speech, whicb owe their prevalence to modish folly, die away with their inventors.

Jounaon.
All your sophisters cannot produce anything better adapted to preserve a rational and manly freedom than the courss that we have pursued.

Boree.
The most wonderful things are brought about in many instances by means the most absurd and ridiculous.

Burke.

## WEAK, FEEBLE, INFIRM.

WEAK, in Saxon wace, Dutch wack, German schwach, is in all probability an intensive of weich, soft, which comes from weichen, to yield, and this from bewegen, to move. FEEBLE, probably contracted from failable. INFIRM, v. Debility.

The Snxon term weak is here, as it usu.
ally is, the familiar and universal term; feeble is suited to a more polished style; infirm is only a species of the weak: we may be weak in body or mind; but we are commonly feeble and infirm only in the body: we may be weal from disease, or weak by nature, it equally conveys the gross idea of a defect: but the term feeble and infirm are qualified expressions for weakness: a child is feeble from its infancy; an old man is feeble from age; the latter may likewise be infirm in consequence of sickness. We pity the weak, but their weakness often gives us pain; we assist the feeble when they attempt to walk; we support the infirm when they are unable to stand. The same distinction exists between weak and feeble in the moral use of the words: a weak attempt to excuse a person conveys a reproachful meaning; but the feeble efforts which we make to defend another may be praiseworthy, although feeble.

## You, galiant Vernon 1 saw <br> The miserable scene; you pitying saw; To infant weakness sunk the warrior's srm.

Thomson.
Command th' assistance of a friend, But feebls are the succors I can send. Dryden.
At my age, and under my infirmities, I can have no relief but those with which religion furnishes me.

Attebidiy.
to weaken, enferble, debilitate, ENERVATE, INVALIDATE.
To WEAKEN is to make weak (v. Weak), and is, as before, the generic term: to ENFEEBLE is to make feeble (v. Weak): to DEBILITATE is to cause debility (v. Debility) : to ENERVATE is to unnerve; and to INVALIDATE is to make not valid or strong: all of which are but modes of weakening applicable to different objects. To weaken may be either a temporary or permanent act when applied to persons; enfeeble is permanent, either as to the body or the mind: we may be weakened suddenly by severe pain; we are enfeebled in a gradual manner, either by the slow effects of disease or age. To weaken is either a particular or a complcte act; to enfeeble, to debilitate, and enervate are properly purtial acts: what enfeebles deprives of vital or essential power; what debilitates may lessen power in one particular, though not in another; the severe exercige of any power,
such as the memory or the attention, will tend to debilitate that faculty: what enervates acts particularly on the nervous system; it relaxes the frame, and unfits the person for action either of body or mind. To weaken is said of things as well as persons; to invalidate is said of things only: we weaken the force of an argument by an injudicious application; we invalidate the claim of another by proving its informality in law.
No article of faith can be true which weakene the practical part of religion. Adpibon.
So much hath hell debas'd, and pain Enfeebled me, to what I was in heav'n.

Milton.
Sometimes the body in full strength we find, While various ails debilitate the mind.

Jenysts.
Tiose pleasures which enervated the mind must be dcarly parchased.

Hanvet
Do they (the Jacohins) mean to invalidate that great body of our statute law which passed under those whom they treat as usurpers?

Bdree.

## WEARISOME, THRESOME, TEDIOUS.

WEARISOME ( $v$. To weary) is the general and indefinite term; TIRESOME ( $v$. To weary), and TEDIOUS, causing tedium, a specific form of wearisomeness: common things may cause weariness; that which acts painfully is either tiresome or tedions; but in different degrees the repetition of the same sounds will grow tiresome; long waiting in anxious suspense is tedious: there is more of that which is physical in the tiresome, and mental in the tedious.

All weariness presupposes weakness, and con. sequently every long, importune, wearisome petition is truly and properly a force upon him that is pursued with it.

Soutis.
Far happier were the meanest peasant's lot, Than to be plac'd on high, in anxious pride, The purple drudge and slave of tiresome state.

## West.

Happy the mortal man who now, at last, Has through this doleful vale of mis'ry past, Who to his destin'd stage has carried on The tedious load, and laid his hurden down.

Prior
TO WEARY, TIRE, JADE, HARASE.
To WEARY is a frequentative of wear, that is, to wear out the strength. To TIRE, from the French tirer and the Latin traho, to draw, signifies to draw out the strength. To JADE is the same at to goad. HARASS, v. Distress.

## WEIGHT

Long exertion wearies; a little exertion will tire a child or a weak man; forced exertions jade; pairful exertions, or exertions coupled with painful circumstances, harass: the horse is jaded who is forced on beyond his strength; the soldier is harussed who in his mareh is pressed on by a ptrsuing enemy. We are wearied with thinking when it gives us pain to think any longer; we are tired of our employmeht wheh it ceases to give us pleasure; we are jaded by incessant attention to business; we are harassed by perpetual complaints which we cannot redress.
All pleasures that affect the body must needs wosary.

South.
Every morsei to a satisfied honger is only a new labor to \& tired digestion.

South.
I recall the time (and am glad it is over) when about this hour (six in the morning) I used to be goling to bed surfeited with pleasure or jaded with busineas.

Bolinobroke.
Bankrupt nobility, a factious, giday, and Divided senate, a hárass'd commonality, Is atl the strength of Venice.

Otway.

## WEIGHT, HEAVLNESS, GRAVITY.

WEIGHT, from to weigh, is that which a thing weighs. HEAVINESSS, from heavy and heave, signifies the abstract quality of the heavy, or difficult to beave. GRAVITY, from the Latin gravis, likewise denotes the same abstract quality.

Weight is indefinite; whatever may be weighed has a weight, whether large or small: heaviness and gravity are the property of bodies having a great weight. Weight is only opposed to that which has or is supposed to have no weight, that is, what is incorporeal or immaterial; for we may speak of the weight of the lightest conceivable bodies, as the weight of a feather: heaviness is opposed to lightness; the heaviness of lead is opposed to the lightness of a feather. Weight lies absolutely in the thing; heaviness is relatively considered with respect to the person; we estimate the weight of things according to a certain measure; we estimate the heaviness of things by our feelings. Grivity is tbat species of weight which is scientifically considered as inherent in certain bodies; the term is therefore properly scientific.
Universally a boty plunged in water loses as much of its weight as is equal to the weight of a body of water of its own bulk. Goldamith.

The obfect is concerning the heaviness of ser. eral bodies, or the proportion that is required between any weight and the power which may raise it. Wiliins.
Of all bodles conisidered within the conflnes of a flutd there is a twofold gravity, true atid abbolute.

Qunce:

## WEIGHT, BURDEN, LOAD.

WEIGHT, v. Weight. BURDEN, from bear; signifies the thing borne. LOAD, in Germain laden, low German and Dutch lacyen, is connected with our word lay; laid, signifying to lay on or in anything.

The term weight is bere considered in common with the other terms, in the sense of a positive weight; by which it is allied to the word burden: the weight is said either of persons or things; the burden more commonly respects persons; the load may be said of either: a person may sink under the weight that rests upon him; a platform may break down from the weight upon it: a person sinks under his burden or load; a cart breaks down from the load. The weight is abstractedly taken for what has weight, without reference to the cause of its being there; burden and load have respect to the per: son or thing by which they are produced; aceident produces the weight; a persor takés a burden upon himself, or bas it imposed upon him; the load is always laid on: it is not proper to carry any weight tbat exceeds our strength; those who bear the burden expect to reap the fruit of their labor; he who carries loads must be contented to take such as are given him.

On the tops of the highest monntains, where the air is so pure and refined, and where there is not that immense weight of gross yapors preasing upon the body, the mind acts with greater freedomi.

Brypone.
Camels have their provender
Only for bearing burdens, and sore blows
For sinking under thein.
Somervilee.
His barns are stor'd,
And groaning staddles bend beneath their load.
Somerville.
In the moral application these terms mark the pain which is produced by a pressure; but the weight and load ratber describe the positive severity of the pressure; the burden respects the temper and inclinations of the sufferer; the load is in this case a very great weight: a minister of state has a weight on his mind at

## WHOLE

all times, from the heavy responsibility which attaches to bis station; one who labors under strong apprehensions or dresd of an evil has s load on his mind; any sort of employment is a burden to one who wishes to be idle; and time unemployed is a burden to him who wishes to be always in action.

With what oppressive weight will sickness, disappointment, or old age fall upon the spirits of that mall who is a stranger to Godi Blair.
I undorstood not that a greteful mind
By owing owes not, bnt still pays at once ; Indehted and discharg'd ; whet burden then?

Milton.
How a man cen hape a quiet and cheerful mind under a burdon and load of guilt, I know not, unless he be very ignorant.

Ray.

## WELL-BEING, WELFARE, PROSPERITY, HAPPINESE.

WELL-BEING may be said of one or many, but more of a body; the well-being of society depends upon a due subordination of the different ranks of which it is composed. WELFARE, or faring well, from the Germsn fahren, to go, respects the good condition of an individual ; s parent is paturally anxious for the wel. fare of his child. Well-being and wel. fare consist of such things as more immedistely affect our existence: PROS. PERITY, which comprehends both wall. being and welfare, includes likawise sll that ean add to the enjoyments of man. The prosperity of a state, or of an indipid. usl, therefore, consists in the increase of woslth, power, honors, and the like; as outward circumstances more or less affect the HAPPINESS of man: happiness is, therefore, atten substituted for prosperity; but it must never be forgotten that happiness properly lies only in the mind, and that consequently prosverity may exist without happiness; but happiness, at lesst as far as respects a body of men, cannot exist without some portion of prosperity.

Have freethinkers been authors of any inventions that conduca to the well-being of mankind?

Berkeley.
For his own sake no duty he can ask, The common walfare is our only task. Jenyss.

Religion affords to good men peculiar sacurity in the enjoyment of their prooperity. Blais.

Tha author is here only showing the providential issue of the passions, and how by God'a gitncious diaposition they are turned away from their
natural bias to promote the happiness of man kind.

Wazbunton.

## WHOLE, ENTIRE, COMPLETE, TOTAL, INTほGRAL.

WHOLE excludas subtraction; EN TIRE excludes division; OOMPLETE excludes deficiency: a whole orange has had pothing taken from it ; an entire oranga is not yet cut; and a complete orange is grown to its full size: it is possible, tharefore, for a thing to be whole and not entive: and to be both, and yet not com. plete: an orange cut into parts is whole while all the parts remain together, but it is not entire; it may be whole as distinguished from a part, entire as far as it has no wound or incision in it ; but it may not be a complete orange if it is defeotive in its growth. Whole is applied to everything of which there may be a part actually or in imsgination; as the whole line, the whole day, the whale world : entire is applied only to such things as may be damsged or injured, or is already damaged to its fullest extent; as an ens tive building, or entire ruin: complete is applied to that which does not require anything further to be done to it; as a complete house, a complete circle, and the like.

The whole issland produces corn only sufficient to support its inhebitants for five months, or littla mora.

Brydone.
And oft, when unobserv'd,
Steal from tha barn a straw, till soft and warm, Clean and oomplete, their habitation grows.

Thomson.
This (model) is tha more remarkahle, as it is entire in those parts where the statue is maimed.

Admigon.
TOTAL, from totus, the whole, has the sama signification, but only a limited application; as a total amount, or a total darkness, as distinguished from a partial smount, or a partial degree of darkness.

They set end rise,
Least total darknass should by night regain
Possession.
MゅTON.
So also in application to moral objects.
Nothing under a total thonough change in the
convert will suffice.
So, ©TA.
INTEGRAL, from integer, eptire, has the same signification, but is applied now to parts or numbers not broken.

## WISDOM

Nothing passas in the accounts of God for repentance hut a change of life ; ceasing to do evil, and doing good, are the two great integral parts of this duty.

South.

## WICKED, INIQUITOUS, NEFARIOUS.

WICKED ( $v . B a d$ ) is here the generic term; INIQUITOUS, from iniquus, unjust, signifies that species of wickedness which consists in violating the law of right between man and man; NEFARIOUS, from the Latin nefas, wicked or abominable, is that species of wickedness which consists in violating the most sacred obligations. The term wicked, being indefinite, is commonly applied in a milder sense than iniquitous ; and iniquitous than nefarious: it is wicked to deprive another of his property unlawfully, under any circumstances; but it is iniquitous if it be done by fraud and circumvention; and nefarious if it involves any breach of trust; any undue influence over another, in the making of his will, to the detriment of the rightful heir, is iniquitous; any underhand dealing of a servant to defraud his master is nefarious.
In the corrupted currents of this world, Offence's gilded hand may ahove by jnstice ; And of 'tis seen, the wicked prize itself Buys ont the law.

Sharspeare.
Lacullins found that the province of Pontus had fallen under great disordera and oppressions from the iniquity of usurers and publicans.

Prideatx.
That unhallowed villany nefariously attempted upon our agent.

Milton.

## TO WLLL, WISH.

The WILL is that faculty of the soul which is the most prompt and decisive; it immediately impels to action: the WISH is but a gentle motion of the soul toward a thing. We can will nothing but what we can effect; we may wish for many things which lie above our reach. The will must be under the entire control of reason, or it will lead a person into every mischief: wishes ought to be uader the direction of reason; or otherwise they may greatly disturb our happiness.

[^130]WHLLINGLY, VOLUNTARILY, SPONTANEOUSLY.
To do a thing WILLINGLY is to do it with a good will; to do a thing VOL UNTARILY is to do it of one's own ac. cord: the former respects one's willing. uess to comply with the wishes of another; we do what is asked of us; it is a mark of good-nature: the latter respects our freedom from foreign influence; we do that which we like to do; it is a mark of our sincerity. It is pleasant to see a child do his task willingly; it is pleasant to see a man voluntarily engage in any service of public good. SPONTANEOUSLY is but a mode of the voluntary, applied, however, more commonly to inanimate objects than to the will of persons: the ground produces spontaneously, when it produces without culture; and words flow spontaneously which require no effort on the part of the speaker to produce them. If, however, applied to the will, it bespeaks in a stronger degree the totally unbiassed state of the agent's mind: the spontaneons effusions of the heart are more than the voluntary services of benevolence. The willing is opposed to the unwilling, the voluntary to the mechanical or involuntary, the spontaneous to the reluctant or the artificial.

Food not of angels, yet accepted so,
As that mors willingly thou couldst not seem, At Heav'n's high fcasts t' have fed. Mluton.

Thonghts are only criminal when they are first chosen, and then voluntarily continued.

Johnton.
Of these none nencontroll'd and lawless rove, But to soma destin'd end spontaneous move.

Jentins.

## WISDOM, PRUDENCE.

WISDOM, from wissen, to know, is the general term; it embraces the whole of practical knowledge: PRODENCE ( $v$. Prudent) is a branch of wisdom. Wisdom directs all matters present or to come. Prudence, which acts by foresight, directs what is to come. Rules of conduct are framed by wisdom, and it is the part of prudence to apply these rules to the business of life.

Two things speak much the wisdom of a nation : good laws, and a prudent managament of them,

STMLINGFLEETA

## WONDER

## WIT, HUMOR, SATIRE, IRONY, BURLESQUE.

WIT, like wisdom, according to its orig. iral, from wissen, to know, signifies knowledge, but it has so extended its racaning as to signify that faculty of the mind by which knowledge or truth is perceived, and in a more limited sense the faculty of discovering the agreements or disagreemeats of different ideas. Wit, in this latter sease, is properly a spontaneous faculty, and is, as it were, a natural gift: labored or forced wit is no wit. Reflection and expericnce supply us with wisdom; study and labor supply us with learning; but wit seizes with an eagle eye that which cacapes the notice of the deep thinker, and elicits truths which are in vain sought for with any severe effort.

Wit lies most in the assemblage of ideas, and putting those together with quickness and variety.

Addison.
In a trae piece of wit all things must be,
Yet all things there agree.
Cowhex.
HUMOR is a species of wit which flows out of the humor of a person. Wit, as distinguished from humor, may consist of a single brilliant thought: but humor runs in a vein; it is not a striking, but an equable and pleasing, flow of wit. Of this description of wit Mr. Addison has given us the most admirable specimens in his writings, who knew best how to explain what wit and humor was, and to illustrate it by his practice.

For sure by wit is chiefly meant
Applying well what we invent:
What humor is not, all the tribe
Of logic-mongers can describe :
Here nature only acts her part,
Unhelp'd hy practice, books, or art.
Swift.
There is a kind of nature, a certain regularity of thonght, which must discover the writer (of humor) to be a man of sense at the same time that he appears altogether given up to caprice.

ADDIBON.
Humor may likewise display itself in actions as well as words, whereby it is more strikiagly distinguished from wit, which displays itself only in the happy expression of happy thoughts.
I cannot help remarking that sickness which often destroys both wit and wisdom, yet seldom has power to remove that talent which we call humor. Mr. Wycherley showed his in his last compliment paid to his young wife, when he made her promise, on his dying bed, that she would not mung en old man againe.

Pope.

SATIRE, from satyr, probably from sat and ira, abounding in anger, and IRONY, from the Grcek etpovia, simulation and dissimulation, are personal and censorious sorts of wit; the first of which openly points at the object, and the second in a covert manaer takes its aim.

The ordinary subjects of satire are such as excite the greatest indignation in the best tempers.

ADDison.
In writings of humor, flgures are sometlmes used of so delicate a nature, that it shall often happen that some people will see things in a direct contrary sense to what the anthor and tho majority of the readers nnderstand them : to snch the most innocent irony may appear irreligion.

Cambrider.
BURLESQUE is rather a species of humor than direct wit, which consists in an assemblage of ideas extravagantly discordant. The satire and irony are the most ill-natured kinds of wit; burlesque stands in the lowest rank.

One kind of burlesqus represents mean per* sons In the accoutrements of heroes. ADDison.

## WONDER, ADMIRE, SURPRISE, ASTON-

 ISH, AMAZE.WONDER, in German wundern, etc., is in all probability a variation of wander; because wonder throws the mind off its bias. ADMIRE, from the Latin miror, and the Hebrew marah, to look at, signifies looking at attentively. SURPRISE, compounded of sur and prise, or the Latin prehendo, signities to take on a sudden. ASTONISH, from the Latin attonitus, and tonitru, thunder, signifies to strike as it were with the overpowering noise of thunder. AMAZE signifies to be in a maze. so as not to be able to collect one's self,

That particular feeling which anything unusual produces on our minds is ex pressed by all these terms, but under various modifications. Wonder is the mos* indefinite in its signification or application, but it is still the least vivid sentiment of all: it amounts to little more than a pausing of the mind, a suspension of the thinking faculty, an incapacity to fix on a discernible point in an object that rouses our curiosity: it is that state which all must experience at times, but none so much as those who are ignorant: they wonder at everything, because they know nothing. Admiration is wonder

## WORD

mixed with esteem or veneration: the admirer suispends his thoughts, not from the vacancy, but the fulness of his mind: he is riveted to an object which for a time absorbs his faculties: nothing but what is great and good excites admiration, and none but cultivated miods are susceptible of it : an ignorant person cannot admire, because he cannot appreciate the value of anything. Surpise and assonishment both arise from that which happens unexpectedly; they are species of wonder differing in degree, and produced only by the events of life: the surprise, as its derivation implies, takes us unatwares; we are surprised if that does not happen which we calculate upon, as the absence of a friend whom we looked for; or we are surprised if that happens which we did not calculate upon; thus we are surprised to see a friend returned whom we supposed was on his journey: astonishment may be awakened by similar events which are more unexpected and more unaccountable: thus we are astonished to find a friend at our house whom we had every reason to suppose was many hundred miles off; or we are astonished to hear that a person has got sately through a road which we conceived to be absolutely impassable.

The reader of the Seasons wonders that he never saw hefore what Thomson shows him.

Jönson.
With eyes insatiate and tumbltuods joy,
Beholds the presents, and admirss the hoy.
Dryden.
So little do we accustom ourselves to consider the effects of time, that things necessary and certain often surprise ns like unexpected contingencies.

Jonnson.
I have often been astonished, considering that the mintual intercontse between the two countries (France and England) has lately been very great, to find how little ynu seem to know of us. Burke.
Surprise may for a moment startle; whonishment may stupefy and cause an stire suspension of the facultles; but amazement has also a mixture of perturbation. We may be surprised and astonished at things in which we have no particular interest: we are mostly amazed at that which immediately concerns us.

Dgyden.

## WONDER, MIRACLE, MARVEL, PRODIGY, MONSTER.

WONDER is that which causes won. der ( $v$. Wonder). MIRACLE, in Latio mirdeulum, aid miror, to wonder, comes from the Hebrew merah, seen, signifying that which strikes the sense. MARVEL is a variation of miracle. PRODIGY, in Latin prodigium, from prodigo, or procul and ago, to launch forth, signifies the thing launching forth. MONSTER, io Latin monstrum, comes from moneo, to advise or give notice; because among the Romans any unaccountable appearance was considered as an indication of some future event.

Wonders are natural: miracles are supernatural. The whole creation is full of wonders; the Bible contains an account of the miracles which happened in those days. Wonders are real; marvels are often fictitious; prodigies are extravagant and imaginary. Natural history is full of wonders; travels abound in marvels or $\ln$ marvellous stories, which are the inventions either of the artful or the ignorant and credulous: ancient history contains numberless accounts of prodigies. Wonders are agreeable to the laws of nature; they are wonderful only as respects ourselves: monsters are violations of the laws of nature. The production of a tree from a grain of seed is a wonder; but the production of a calf with two heads is a monster.

His wisdom such as once it did appear,
Three kingdoms' wonder, and three kingdoms' fear.

Dentazar.
Murder, though it have no tongue, will speak
With most mirac'lous organ. Shakspeare.
Ill omens may the gnilty tremble at,
Make every accident a prodigy,
And monsters frame where nature never err'd.
Lee.
WORD, TERM, EXPRESSION.
WORD is here the generic term; the other two are specific. Every TERM and EXPRESSION is a word; but every word is not denominated a term or expression. Language consists of words; they are the connected sounds which serve for the communication of thought. Term, from terminus, a boundary, signifies any word that has a specific or limited meaning; expression (v. To express) signified
any word which conveys a forcible meaning. Usage determines words; science fixes terms; sentiment provides expressions. The purity of a style depends on the choice of words; the precision of a writer depends upan the choice of his terms; the force of a writer depends upon the aptitude of his expressions. The grammarian treats on the nature of words; the philosopher weighs the value of scientin̂c terns; the rhetorician estimates the force of expressions.
As all vords in few letters live,
Thon to few words all sense dust give. Cowley.
The use of the word minister is brought down to the literal signiffeation of it, a servant; for now to serve and to minister, servile and ministerial, are terms equivalent.

Sourn.
A maxim, or moral saying, naturally receives this form of the antithesis, becanse it is designed to be engraven on the memory, which it recalls more easily by the belp of such contrasted expressions.

Blaif.

## WORK, LABOR, TOIL, DRUDGERY, TASK.

WORK, in Saxon weore, Greek $\varepsilon \rho y o v$, Hebrew areg, is the general term, as including that which calls for the exertion of our strength: LABOR (v. To labor) differs from it in the degree of exertion required; it is hard work: TOIL, probably connected with till, expresses a still higher degree of paioful exertion: DRUDGERY ( $v$. Servant ) implies a mean and degrading work. Every member of society must work for his support, if he is not in independent circumstances: the poor are obliged to labor for their daily subsistence; some are compelled to toil incessantly for the pittance which they earn : drudgery falls to the lot of those who are the lowest in society. A man wishes to complete his work; he is desirous of resting from his labor; he seeks for a respite from his toil; he submits to drudgery.
The masters encourage it, they think it gives them spirits, and makes the woork go on more cheerfully.

Beypone.
But sometimes virtue starves while vice is fed;
What then is the reward of virtue? bread, That vice may merit: 'tis the price of toil, The knave deserves it when he tills the soil.

Pope,
In ehildhood the mind and body sre both nimble but not strong; they can skip and frisk about with wonderful agility, but hard labor spoils them both.

COWPER.

With the unwcaried application of a plodding French painter, who draws a shrimp with the most minute exactness, be had all the genius of one of the first masters. Never, I believe, were such talents and dmudgery united. Cowper

TASK, in French tasche, Italian tassa, probably from the Greek raoбu, to order, is a work imposed by others, and consequently more or less burdensome.
Relieves me from my task of servile toil Daily in the common prison, else enjoiped me.

Milton.
Sometimes taken in the good sense for that which one imposes on one's self.
No happier fask these faded eyes pursue,
To read and weep is all they now can do. Popz.
WRITER, PENMAN, SCRIBE.
WRITER is an indefinite term; every one who writes is called a writer; but none are PENMEN but such as are expert at their pen. Many who profess to teach writing are themselves but sorry writers: the hest penmen are not always the best teachers of writing. The SCRIBE is one who writes for the purpose of copying; he is, therefore, an offcial writer.

The eopying of books for the nse of religious houses or cominon sale, was a business in those days that enployed many people; sume writer's far exceeded others in that art.

Massey.
Our celebrated penman, Peter Bales, among his other excellences in writing, is said to lave improved the art of cryptography. Massey.

The office of seribs, a secretary or public writer, was an honorable post among the Jews.

Massey.
Writer and penman have an extended application to one who writes his own compositions; the former is now used for an author or composer, as the writer of a letter, or the wriler of a book ( $v$. Writer); the latter for one who pens down anything worthy of notice for the use of the public.

My wife had scarcely patience to hear mc to the end, but railed against the writer with unrestrained resentment.

Gоцрямітн.
The descriptions which the Evangelists give, show that both our blessed Lord and the holy penmen of his story were deeply affected,

ATTEREDRY.
Scribe may be taken for one who performs, as it were, the office of writing for another.

My master being the soribs to himself should write the letter.

Shakspange

## WRITER, AUTHOR.

WRITER refers us to the act of writing; AUTHOR to the act of inventing. There are therefore many writers, who are not authors; but there is no author of books who may not be termed a writer: compilers and contributors to periodical works are properly writers, though not always entitled to the name of $a u$ thors. Poets aud historians are properly termed authors rather than writers.

Many orriters have been witty, several have been sublime, and some few have even possessed both these qualities separated. Waaburton.

An author has the choice of his own thoughts and words, which the translator bas not.

Dayden.

## Y.

## YOUTHFUL, JUVENILE, PUERILE.

YOUTHFUL sigoifies full of youth, or in the complete state of youth: JUVENILE, from the Latin juvenis, signifies the same; but PUERILE, from puer, a
boy, signifies literally boyish. Hence the first two terms are taken in an indiffer. ent sense; but the latter in a bad sense, or at least always in the sense of what is suitable to a boy only: thus we speak of youthful vigor, youthful employments, juvenile performances, juvenile years, and the like: but puerile objections, puerild cooduct, and the like. We expect noth. ing from a youth but what is juvonile; we are surprised and dissatisfied to see what is puerile in a man.
Chorcebus thea, with youthficl hopes beguil'd, Swoll'n with success, and of a daring mind, This oew iovention fatally design'd. Dryden
It would be unreasonable to expect much frora the immaturity of juvenile years. Johnson

Sometimes juvenile is taked in the bad sense when speaking of youth in contrast with men, as juvenile tricks.
Raw juvenile writers imagine that, by pouring forth figures often, they render their compositions warm and animated.

Bialr
And puerile may be taken in the indifferent sense for what belongs to a boy.

After the common course of puerile studies, he was put all apprentice to a brewer. Johnson.

ASSUMPTION, PRESUMPTION, ARROGANCE (vide al8o p. 97).
ASSUMPTION, the act of assuming ( $v$. To appropriate). PRESUMPTION, from presume, in Latin prossumo, from prae, before, and sumo, to take, signifies to take beforehand, to take for granted. ARROGANCE, v. To appropriate.

Assumption is a person's taking upon himself to act a part which does not belong to him. Presumption is the taking a place which does not belong to him. Assumption has to do with one's general conduct; presumption relates to matters of right and precedence. A person may be guilty of assumption by giving commands when he ought to receive them, or by speaking when he ought, to be silent: he is guilty of presumption in taking a seat which is not fit for him. Assumption arises from self-conceit and self-sufficiency, presumption from self-importance. Assumption and presumption both
denote a taking to one's self merely, arrogance claiming from others. A person is guilty of assumption and presumption for his own gratification only, without any direct intentional offence to others; but a man cannot be arrogant, be guilty of arroganee, without direct offence to others. The arrogant man exacts deference and homage from others; his demands are as extravagant as his mode of making them is offensive. Children are apt to be assuming, low people to be presuming; persons among the higner orders, inflated with pride and bad pas. sions, are apt to be arrogant.
Arrogant in prosperity, abject in adversity, he ( $J 0 h n$ ) neither conciliaited affection in the one, nor excited esteem io the other. Linoard.

TO COMPEL, IMPEL, CONSTRAIN, RESTRAIN.
To COMPEL and IMPEL are both derived from the verb pello, to drive; the
former, by the force of the preposition com, is to drive to any particular action or for a given purpose; but the latter, from the preposition $i m$ or $i n$, into, is to force into action generally. A person, therefore, is compelled by outward circumatances, but he is impelled from within: he is compelled by another to go farther than he wiahed, he is impelled by curiosity to go farther than be intended. CONSTRAIN and RESTRAIN are both from stringo, to bind or oblige. The former, by force of the con or com, to force in a particular manner, or for a particular purpose; the latter by the re, back or again, is to keep back from anything. To constrain, like to compel, is to force to act; to restrain to prevent from acting. Constrain and compel differ only in the degree of force used, constrain signifying a less degree of force than compel. A person who is compelled has no choice whatever left to him; but when he is only constrained, he may do it or not at discretion.
He was compelled by want to attendance and solicitation.

Jounson.
We caunot avoid observing the homage which the warld is construined to pay to virtue.

Blair.
Constraint is put on the actions or movements of the body only, restraint on the movements of both hody and mind: a person who is in a state of constraint showa his want of freedom in the awkwardness of his movements; be who is in a state of restraint may be unable to move at all. Constraint arises from that which is inherent in the person, restraint is imposed upon him ( $v$. CONSTRAINT, p. 255).
delusion, illusion (vide alsóp. 419).
Вотн these words, being derived from the Latin ludo (v. To deceive), are applied
to such matters as act upon the imagipation; but delude, by the force of the preposition de, signifies to carry away from the right line, to cause to deviate into error; while illude, from the preposition $i l, i m$, in or upon, signifies simply to act on the imagination. The former is therefore taken in a bad sense, but the latter in an indifferent senae. A deranged person falls into different kinds of delusions: as when he fancies himself poor while be is very rich, or that every one who comes in his way is looking at him, or having evil designs against him, and the like; hut there may be optical illusions, when an object is made to appear brighter or larger than it really is.

Who therefnre seeks in these
True wisdom, flnds her not, or by delusion
Youno.
While the fond soul,
Wrapt in gay visions of nnresl bliss,
Still paints the illusive form. Thomson.

## to mlention, notice.

MENTION, from mens, mind, signifies here to bring to mind. NOTICE (v. To mark). These terms are synonymous only inasmuch as they imply the act of calling thinge to another person's mind. We mention a thing in direct terms: we notice it indirectly, or in a casual manner; we mention that which may serve as information; we notice that which may be merely of a personal or incidental nature. One friend mentions to another what has passed at a particular meeting: in the course of conversation be notices or calls to the notice of his companion the badness of the road, the wideness of the street, or the like.

The great critic I have before mentioned, thoogh a heathen, has taken notice of the sublime manner in which the lawgiver of the Jews has described the creation.

Adpison.

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[^0]:    If Peter was so abashed when Christ gave him a look after his denial ; if there was so much dread in his looks when he was a prisoner; how much greater will it be when he sits as a judge? South.
    Alas I I am afraid they have awaked, And 'tis not done: th' attempt, and not the deed, Confounds ns!

    Shakspeare.
    Alas! I ne have no language to tell The effecte, ne the torment of min hell; Min herte may, min harmes not bewrey I am so confueg, that I cannot say. Chavcer.

[^1]:    His violence thou fear'st not, being such
    As we, not capable of death or pain. Minton.
    If heaven to men such mighty thoughts would give,
    What hreast but thine capacious to receive
    The vast infusion?
    Cowley.

[^2]:    When we abrogate a law as being ill made, the wbole canse for which it was made still remaining, do we not herein rexoke our own deed, and upbraid ourselves with folly? Hooser.

[^3]:    Surely there could not be a greater chance than that which brought to light the Powder I'reasun.

    Soutif.

[^4]:    Louis XIV. was obliged to abandon James II., and to aoknowledfe King William, though he had at first treated him as an usurper. Borse.

    Those who were deified in one place were not suned with the same honor in all places.

    Parsons.
    To acknowledge, own, and confess are all used in the sense of expressing one's mind or what passes in one's mind, in

[^5]:    Cicero concludes his celebrated book "de Oratore" with some precepts for pronunciation and

[^6]:    Some strange commotion
    Is in his brain:
    in most strange postires
    We've seen him set himself.
    Skarspeare.

[^7]:    It is observed by Cicero, that men of the greatAt and the most shining parts are most actuated by ambition.

    ADDIRON.
    When youth impell'd him, and when love inspir'd,
    The list'ning nymphs his Doric lays admir'd.
    Sir Whr. Jones.
    Induced by such examples, some have taufht That bees have portions of ethereal thought.

    Dmyden.

[^8]:    When Lonis of France had lost the battle of Fontenoy, the addresses to him at that time were full of his fortitude.

    Hoones.

[^9]:    How cold and unaffecting the best oration in the world would be without the proper ornaments of voice and gesture, there are two remarkable instances in the case of Ligarins and that of Milo.

    Spipt.

[^10]:    He that has settled in his mind determined ideas, with names affrased to them, will be able to discern their differences one from another.

    Locke.
    In justice to the opinion which I would wish to impress of the amiable cbaracter of Pisistratus,

[^11]:    Religion (in England) has malntained a proper alliance with the state.

    Blair.
    It cannot be doubted but that signs were ln. vented originally to express the several occupstions of their owners; and to bear some affinity. in their external designations, with the wares to be disposed of.

    Bathueat

[^12]:    The extent of the trade of the Greeks, how nighly aover it may have been estimated in an. cient times, was in proportion to the low condition of their marine.

    Robertbon.
    If a lawyer were to he esteemed only as he nses his parts in contending for justice, and were immediately despicable when lie appeared in a eause which be could not but know was all unjust one, how honorable wonld his character be!

    Steele.

[^13]:    For my own part, I conld wish that all honest men wonld enter into an arsociation for the sopport of one another against the endeavors of those whom they ought to look npon as their

[^14]:    Austerity is the proper antidote to indul. gence; the diseases of the mind as well as body are cured by contraries.

    Johnson.
    In things which are not immediately suhject to religious or moral consideration, it is dangerous to be too long or too rigidly in the right.

[^15]:    It were endless to enumerate all the passages, both in the sacred and protane writers, whichestablish the general sentiment of mankind concerning the inseparable union of a sacred and reverential awe with our ideas of the Divinity.

    Bubee.
    If the voice of universal nature, the experience of all sgea, the light of reason, and the immediate evidence of my senses, cannot awake me to a denendence upon my God, a reverience for His rellgion, and a humble opinion of myself, what a tost creature am II

    Cumbrrland.

[^16]:    Montaigne had many awleward imitators, who, nnder the notion of writing with the fire and freedom of this lively old Gascon, have fallen into confused.rhapsodies and uninteresting egotisms.

    Wanton.

[^17]:    To stand up and babble to a crowd in an ale house till silence is commanded by the stroke of a hammer is as low an ambition as can taint the human mind.

    Hawkesworth.
    Some birds there are who, prone to noise,
    Are hir'd to silence wisdom's voice;
    And, sktll'd to ehatter out the hour, Rise by their emptiness to power.

    Moore
    Sometimes I dress, with women sit, And chat away the gloomy fit. Green
    Now blows the surly north, and ehills through. ont
    The stiff 'ning regions : while by stronger charms Than Circe e'er, or fell Medea brew'd,
    Each brook that wont to prattle to its banke
    Lies all bestill'd.
    Abmathono.
    My prudent counsels prop the state :
    Magpies were never known to prate.
    Moore

[^18]:    There is nothing that makes its way more directly to the soul than beauty, which immediately diffuses a secret satisfaction and cemplacency through the imagination. Andisen.

    When, in ordinary discourse, we say a man has a fine head, a long head, or a good head, we express ourselves metaphorically, and speak in relation to his understanding; whereas, when we say of a woman, she has a fine, a long, or a good head, we speak only in relation to her commode. Adidien.

[^19]:    Providence, in its economy, regards the whole system of time and things together, so that we cannot discover the beautiful connections between incidents which lie widely separated in time.

    Addison.
    The finest works of invention and imagination are uf very little weight when put in the balance with what refines and exalts the rational mind. Addison.

[^20]:    Now, the best way in the world for a man to reem to be anything, is really to be what he would seem to be. Besides, that it is many times as troublesome to make good the pretence of a good quality as to have it.

    Tillotson.
    It being granted that God governs the world, it will follow also that he does it by means suitabia to the natures of the things that he governs; and moraover, man being by nature a free, moral agent and so capable of deviating from his duty, as well as performing it, it is necessary that he should be governed by lawn South.

[^21]:    A mighty breach is made : the rooms conceal'd Appear, and all the palace is reveal'd. Dryden.

    Considering, probably, how mach Homer had been disfigured by the arbitrary compilers of his works, Virgll, by his will, obliged Tucca and Vacius to add nothing, nor so much as fill up the wroade he had left in his poem.

    Walsin.

[^22]:    How strangely are the opinions of men altered by a change in their condition !

    Blatr,
    One of the company affirmed to us he had actwally enclosed the liquor, found in a coqnette's

[^23]:    Devotion, when it does not lie under the check of reason, is apt to degenerate into enthusiasm.

    Addigon.
    It is a purpos'd thing, and grown by plot, To curb the will of the nobility. Shagapeare.

[^24]:    Sovereigns will consider those as traitors who aim at their destruction by leading their easy good-nature under specious pretences to admit combinations of bold and faithless men into a participation of their power.

    Burke.
    I see you court the crowd,
    When, with the shouts of the rebellious rabble, I see you borne on shoulders to cabals.

[^25]:    Oh ! that my tongue had every grace of speech, Great and commanding as the broath of kings.

    Row

[^26]:    Deep malice thence concbiving, and disdain, Soon as midnight brought on the dusky hour Friendliest to sleep and silence, he resolved

[^27]:    The conferring thia honor npon him would increase the credit he had.

    Clarbidon.

[^28]:    But now my sorrows, long with pain suppress'd, Burst their confinement with impetuous sway.

[^29]:    Every virtue requires time and place, a propor object, and a fit conjunoture of circumstances for the due exercise of it.

    ADDIGON.
    Theught he, this is the lucky hour:
    Wines work when vines are in the flower;
    Thie orisis then I will set my rest on,
    And put her bolday to the questlon.
    Butlea.

[^30]:    It seems necessary, in the ehoice of persona for great employments, to consioler their bodies as well as their minds, and ages and health as well $2 s$ their abilities.

    Temple.
    Whoever refleets frequently on the nncertainty of his own duration, will find out that the state of others is not more permanent than his own.

    Johnaon,

[^31]:    They held for life. Indeed they may be said to have held by inheritance. Appointed by the monarch, they were considered as nearly out of his power.

    Berke.
    They composed permanent bodies pobitic, constituted to resist arbitrary imnovation. Burk .

    If the Commons disagree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house.

    Blacestone.

[^32]:    There has been a long dispute for precedency batween the tragic and heroic poets. AdDison.

[^33]:    Abdallah continuing to extend his former im. provements, beautificd this whole prospect with groves and fountains.

    ADDISON.

[^34]:    Aristotle tells us that the world is a copy or transcript of those ideas which ars in the mind of the First Being, and that thoss ideas which are In the mind of man are a tranecript of the world. To thls we may add that words are the transoript of those ideas which sre in ths mind of man, and that writing or printing is the tran. script of words.

    Abdison

[^35]:    Sut have we then no law besides our will, No just criterion fix'd to good nr ill?
    As well at noon we may obstruct our sight, Then dopht if sueh a thing exists pis light.

[^36]:    There is one case in which it would be madness not to give credit to the most deceitful of men, that is when they make declarations of hostility acainst us.

    Buake.
    It is to be feared that the sciences are above the comprehension of children, and that this mode of education to the exclusion of the classics is ultimately deceptive.

    Vices, Knox.

[^37]:    The popish clergy took to themselves the whole residue of the intestate's estate, after the two-thirds of the wife and cliildren were deducted.

    Blacketone.
    A codicil is a supplement to a will, being for its explanation or alteration, or to make some addition to or else some aubtraction from the former dispositions of the testator. Blacestone.

[^38]:    After this exploit, I walked gently to and fro on the bed to rocover my breath and loss of spirits.

    SWIFT.
    Even his surliness was matter of mirth, and in his play he preserved such an air of gravity, and

[^39]:    "Welcome, then," cried I, "my child, and thou her gallant deliverer, a thousand welcomes. And now, Mr. Burchill, as you have delivered. my girl, if you think her a recompense she is yours."

    Goldsmitit.
    My household gods, companions of my woes, With pions care I reacued from our foes.

    Dayden.
    One is delivered mostly by some active effort; but we may be saved either by

[^40]:    The only piece of pleasantry in "Paradise Lost" is where the evil spirits are described as rallying the angels npon the success of their new invented artillery.

    AdDison.
    As to your manner of behaving toward these unhappy young gentlemen (at Coilege) you de-

[^41]:    Death destroys this compound being we call man.

    Sherlock.
    Removing from castle to castle, she diffused plenty and happiness around her, by consuming

[^42]:    Cunning when it is once detected loses its force.

    Addison.
    We are told that the Spartans, though they pnnished theft in the young men when it was discovered, looked upon it as honorable if it succeeded.

    Adprion.

[^43]:    When the mind hovers among such a variety of allurements, one had better settle on a way of life that is not the very best we might have chosen, than grow old without determining our choice.

    ADDIson.
    The resolution of dying to end our miseries does not show such a degree of magnanimity as a resolution to bear them, and submit to the dispensations of Providence.

    Addison.

[^44]:    Besides those things which directly suggest the idea of danger, and those which produce a similar effect from a mechanical cause, 1 know of nothing sublime which is not some modification of power.

    Burke.
    Admiration is a short-lived passion, that $1 m$ mediately decays upon growing familiar with the object.

    ADDIGON.

[^45]:    Our repentance is not real, because we have not done what we can to undo our fanlts, or at least to hinder the injurious conseqnences of them from proceeding.

    Thllotson.

[^46]:    Though he had the gift of seeing through a question almost at a glance, yet he never suffer-

[^47]:    The mist of error from his eyes $d$ ispell' $d$, Thro' all her fraudful arts, in clearest light, Sloth in her native form he now beheld.

[^48]:    It is the duty of every man who would be true to himself, to ohtain if possible a disposition to be pleased.

    Steele.
    There never was a time, belleve me, when 1 wanted an inclination to cultivate your esteem and promote your interest.

[^49]:    Of great riches there is no real use except in the distribution.

    Bacon.
    If they found the children lusty and well-fan vored, they gave order for their education, and

[^50]:    I am pleased with a frame of four lights, doubtful whether the few pines it coutains will ever be worth a farthing.

    Cowper.
    Near old Antandros, and at Ida's foot, The timber of the sacred grove we cut; And hnild our fleet, uncertain yet to find What place the gods for our repose assign'd.

    Dayden.

[^51]:    The anited powers of hell were foined togethet. for the destruetion of mankind, which they eff fectod in part.

    Adplaps

[^52]:    Cervantes had so much kindness for Don Quixote, that however he embarrizsses him with absurd distresses, he gives him so mucb sense and virtue as may preserys our esteam. Johnson.

[^53]:    We find ourselves enrolled in this heavenly family as servants and as sorts. Splestr.

    The time never was when I would have en. listed under the banners of any faction, though I might have carried a pair of colors, if I had not spurned them, in either legion. Sir W. Jones,

[^54]:    Men will look into onf lives, and examine our actioas, and inquire into our conversations: by these they will judge the truth and reality of our professions.

    Tillotson.

[^55]:    Base envy withers at another's joy,
    And hatea that excellence it canciot reach.

[^56]:    I intend that you shall aoon receive Shakspeare, that yen may explain hia works to the ladies of Italy, and tell them the story of the editor among other strange narrations with which your long residence in this tunknown region has supplied you.

    JoHNsón.
    One meets now and then with persons who are extremely learned and knotty in eapounding clear cases.

    Steele.
    It does not appear that among the Romans any man grew eminent by interpreting another; and perbaps it was more frequent to translate for exercise or amusement than for fame.

[^57]:    Translating will give you a great stock of words, and insensibly impregate yonr mind with very beautiful ideas and a happy manner of expressing them.

    Sir Eapdit Whumet.

[^58]:    A long table, and a square table, or seat abont the walls, seem things of form, but are things of subatance; for at a long table a few at the upper end in effect sway all the business; but in the other form there ia more of the counsellora' oplaions that sit lower.

    Bacon.
    Not to use ceremonies at all, is to teach others not to use them again, and so diminiah respect to himself.

    Bacon.

[^59]:    Men were formerly dispated ont of their doubts. Adpison:
    In times of old, when time was young;
    And poets their own verses sunk, A verse could draw a stone or beam.

    SWIFT.
    Thus Edgar prond, in days of yore,
    Held monarchs laboring at the ofr:
    Swift.
    In ancient times the sacred plongh employ'd The kings and awfal fathers of mankind.

[^60]:    The only sure principles we can lay down for regulating our conduct must be founded on the Christian religion.

    Blair.
    I know there are persons who look upon these wonders of art (in ancient history) as fahulous; but I cannot find any ground for such a suspicion.

    ADDISON.

[^61]:    There might be several among the Gentiles in the same condition that Cornelins was before he became a Christian. Tillotson.
    Not that I believe that all virtnes of the heathens were counterfeit, and destitute of an inward principle of goodness. God forhid we should pass so hard a judgment upon those excellent men, Socrates, and Epictetus, and Antinonus.

    Tillotson.
    And nations laid in blood; dread sacrifice
    To Christian prided which had with horror shock'd
    The darkest pagans, offered to their gods.

[^62]:    Milton afterward gives us a description of the morning, which is wonderfully suitable to a di. vine poem.

    ADDigon.

[^63]:    The peacesble man will give up his favorite schemes: he will yield to an opponent rather than become the cause of violent embrollments.

    Blatr.
    On my experience, Adam, freely taste, And fear of death deliver to the winds.

    Melton.
    The yonng, half-sednced by persuasion, and half compelled by ridicule, ourronder their

[^64]:    Government is an art above the attainment of an ordinary genius.

    South.
    In treating of an invisible world, and the administration of government there carried on by the Father of spirits, particulars occur which appear incompreherisible.

    Blatit.

[^65]:    It is better private men should have some injustice done them, than a public grievance ahould not be redressed. This is nsually pleaded in defence of all those hardships which fall

[^66]:    The people of England, then, are willing to trust to the sympathy of regicides the guarantes (f) the Britich monarchy.

    Bubie.

[^67]:    O happy, if ha knew hia happy state, The swain, who, free from business and debate, Receives his eesy foad from neture's hend, And just returns of cultivated land. Dryden.

    Visit the gayest end most fortunate oo earth oniy with sieepless nights, disorder eny single prgan of the senses, and you shall (will) presently see hid gayaty vanish.

    Blain.

[^68]:    He was alave to no passion, indulged no humor, unless that of regularity may be called a humor, which he observed to excess.

    Comberlana.
    Strange as it may seem, the most lodicrous lines I ever wrote have been written in the aaddest mood.

    Cowpsr
    HUMOR, CAPRICE.
    HUMOR (v. Humor) is general, CA. PRICE (v. Fantastical) is particular: hu.

[^69]:    The threatening voice and flerce gestures with which these words were uttered, struck Montezuma. He saw his own danger was imminent, the necessity unavoidable.

    Roseftsof:
    There was an opinion, if we may believe the
    Spanish hiatorians, almost universal among the
    Americans, that some dreadful calamity was im-
    ponding over their heads,
    Robeatson. ponding over their heads,

    Robeatson.

[^70]:    Were a hnman soul ineapable of farther enfargements, I conld imagine it might fall away insensibly.

    Adpison.
    The minister's aptness or insufficieney, otherwise than by reading, to instruct the flock, standeth as a stranger, with whom our Common Prayer bas nothing to do.

    Hooser.
    Laymen, with equal advantages of parts, are not the most incompetent judges of sacred things.

    Driden.

[^71]:    We want not time, but diligence, for great performances, and squander much of our allowance, evon while we think it sparing and insufficient.

[^72]:    Every individual is so nnequal to himself that man seems to be the most wavering and inconsistent being in the universe.

    Hughes.
    The solemn introdnction of the Phoenix, in the last scene of Sampson Agonistes, is incongruous to the personage to whom it is ascribed.

    JoHnson.

[^73]:    When a volume of travels is opened, nothing is found hut such general accounts as leave no distinct idea hehind them.

    Jonnson.
    He that enters a town at night and surveys it In the morning, then hastens to another place, may please bimself for a time with a hasty change of scene and a confused remembrance of palaces and churches.
    sonnson.

    ## INDOLENT, SUPINE, LISTLESS, CARELESS.

[^74]:    Hence reasoners more refin'd hut not more wise, Their whole existence fabulons suspect, And truth and falsehood in a lump reject;

[^75]:    This aatural tendency of despotic powar to ignorance and barbarity, though not insisted upon by others, ia, 1 think, an inconsiderable argument against that form of government, ADDISON.

[^76]:    After the flood which depopalated Attica, it is generally supposed no king reigned over it till the time of Cecrops, the founder of Athens.

    Cumberland.
    Princes as well as private persons have erected colleges, and assigned liberal endowments to stodents and professors.

    Beakeley.

[^77]:    Devotion bas often been found a powerful instrument in bumanizing the manners of men.

    Blaif,
    Poor York! the harmless tool of others' hate,
    He sucs for pardon, and repents too late. Swirn

[^78]:    Elizabeth enjoyed a wonderfnl calm (excepting some short gusts of insurrection at the beginning) for near upon forty-five years together.

    Howell.
    When tho Roman people began to bring in
    plebeians to the office of chiefest power and dig-
    nity, then began those "seditions which so long distempered, and at length ruined the State.
    temple.

[^79]:    Virgil recovered his estate by Msecenas's interteaniol.

[^80]:    Any uncommon exertion of strength, or perseverance in labor, ls succeeded by a long interval of languor.

    Jornson.
    Give me leave to allow myself no respite from labor.

    Spectator.

    ## INTLEVENTION, INTERPOSITION.

    The INTERVENTION, from inter, between, and venio, to come, is said of inanimate objects; the INTERPOSITION, from inter, between, and pono, to place, is said only of rational agents, The light

[^81]:    I cannot deing but that it wond be easy for ar impostor who was fabricathng a letter in the name of St. Panl, to collact these articles inta one view.

    Pasef.

[^82]:    If a man have that penetration of fudgment as he can discern what things are to be laid open, and what to be secreted, to him a habit of dissimalation is a hinderance and a poorness. Bacon.

    Let your own
    Discretion be your tutor. Suit the action
    To tbe words.
    Shakspeare.
    Discretion looks to the present; prodence, which is the same as providencc or foresight, calculates on the future: discretion takes a wide survey of the case that offers; it looks to the moral fitness of

[^83]:    The fierce young hero who had overcome the Curiatii, being upbraided by his sister for having slain her lover, in the height of his resentment kills her. Addison
    Murders and executions are always transacted behind the scenes in the French theatre. ADDison.
    The women interposed with so many prayers and entreaties, that they prevented the mutual slaughter which threatened the Romans and the Sabines. Addison.
    On this vain hope, adulterers, thieves rely,
    

[^84]:    Whatsoever a man accounts his treasure answers all his capacities of pleasure. It is the ntmost llmit of enjoyment.

[^85]:    They climb the next ascent, and, looking down, Now at a nearer distance wievo the town; The prince with wonder sees the stately tow'rs (Which late were hnts and shepherds' bow'rs).

    Dayden.

[^86]:    Son of God! Saviour of men! Thy name
    Shall be the copioua matter of my aong.

[^87]:    Such is the happiness, the hope of which seduced me from the duties and pleasures of a meroantile life.

    Johnson.
    The commercial world is very frequently put into confusion by the bankruptcy of merchants.

[^88]:    Those good men whe take such pleasure in relieving the miserable for Christ's sake would not have been less forward to minister unto Christ himself.

[^89]:    The highest gratification we receive here from company is mirth, which at the best is but a Alttering unquiet motion.

[^90]:    One tells me he thinks it absolutely necersa$m$ for women to have true notions of right and equity.

    It is highly expedient that men should, by

[^91]:    The beneficence of the Roman emperors and consuls was merely occasional.

    Johnson.
    What wonder if so near
    Looks intervene, and smiles, or objects new,
    Casual discourse draws on. MmTon.

[^92]:    The ministry is not now bonnd to any one tribe, now none is exclnded from that function, of any degree, state, or calling.

[^93]:    Often from the careless back Of herds and flocks a thonsand tugging bills Pluck hair and wool.

    Thomson.
    Here frequent at the visionary hour,
    When musing midnight reigns or silent noon, Angelic harps are in full concert heard.

    Thomson.

[^94]:    Then to their dams
    Lets in their young, and wondrous orderly
    With manly haste. desoatch'd his housewifery.

[^95]:    Descending like a torrent, it bore directly against the middle of the monntain, and they pretend merforated it from side to side: this, how-

[^96]:    The diminution or ceasing of pain does not eparate like positive pleasure. BUREE.

[^97]:    How can we, withont supposing oursolves under the constant care of a Snpreme Being, give any possible account for that nice proportion Which we find in every great city between the deaths and births of its inhabitants? ADDIson.
    He who would aim at practicable things should turn upon allaying our pain, rather than removing our sorrow.

    Steele.

[^98]:    If we can but raise him above indigenco, moderate share of good-fortune and merit will he

[^99]:    All these women (the thirty wives of Orodes) preased hard upon the old king, each soliciting for a son of her own.

    Prideadx.

[^100]:    Mr. Gay, whose zeal in your concern is worthy a friend, writes to me in the most preasing terns about it. Pope.
    Neither would he have done it at all but at my urgeney.

    SWIFT.
    Sieep may be put off from time to time, yet the demand is of so importunate a nature as not to remain long unsatisfied.

    Jonnson.

    ## Presumptive, presumptuous, prestmming.

[^101]:    Provoked by Edward'a haughtiness, even the pasaive Baliol began to mutiny. Robeatson.

    Waller describes Sacharissa as a predominating beauty, of tofty charma and imperious influ-

[^102]:    Lady Macleth's walking in her sleep is an incident so full of tragic horror, that it stands out as a prominent feature in the most sublime drama in the world.

[^103]:    The peaceable man never officionsly seeks to pry into the secrets of others.

    Blaira

[^104]:    There was, we msy very well think, some canse which moved the Apostle St. Peul to require that those things which any one church's affeirs geve particular occasion to write, might, for the inatruction of all, be published, and thet by readling.

    Hoores.
    Tremble, thou wretch,
    That hast within thee undivulged crimes.
    Shagspeare.
    To publish is said of that which was never hefore known, or never before existed; to reveal and disclose are said of that which has beon only concealed or

[^105]:    Where races are thus numerons and thus combined, none but the chief of a clan is thus addressed by his name.

    Jormson.

[^106]:    Spence, in his remarks on Pope's Odyssey, produces what he thinks an unconquerable quotation from Dryden's preface to the Aneid, in favor of translating an epic poem into blank verse.

    Jonnson.
    If the critic has published nothing but rules and observations on criticism, I then consider whether there be a propriety and elegance in his thoughts and words.

    Addison.
    Sublime or low, unbended or intense,
    The sound is still a comment to the sense.

[^107]:    Concaal your esteam and love in your own breast, and reserve your kind looks and language for private houra.

    SWIFT.
    Whatevar ideas tha mind can raceive and con* tamplata without tha help of the body, it ia reasonahla to conclude it can retain without tha halp of tha hody too.

    Locke.

[^108]:    Nothing has tended more to retard the advancement of science than the dispositlou in vulgar minds to vilify what they cannot comprehend.

[^109]:    He was received on board the Bellerophon respectfully, bnt withont any salute or distinguishd honora.

    Sir W. Scott.
    Josephus makes mention of a Manaken, who had the spirit of prophecy, and one time meeting with Herod among hia school-fellows, greetefl him with this salutation," Hail, King of the Jews!"

    Pbideadx.
    The salutation is a familiar and ordinary form of courtesy between individuals; GREETING ( $v$. To accost) is frequently a particular mode of salutation adopted on extraordinary occasions, indicative of great joy or satisfaction in those who greet.

[^110]:    Some expect in letters pointed sentences and forcible periods.

    Johnson.
    Chrysippus, laboring how to reconcile these two propotitione', that all things are done by

[^111]:    Were they allowed frat to ahozo what they really are, I am persuaded thay would not be half $s e$ bad.

    Brydone.
    When her cyes began to fall, ahe employed a reader, who marked on every volume or pamphlet the day when he began and ended his task.

    Whitarer.

[^112]:    To draw near to God is an expression of awful snd mysterious import.

    Blair.

[^113]:    Words signify not immediately and primarily things themselves, but the conceptions of the mind concerning things.

    Sodth.
    Pleasure implies a proportion and agreement to the respective states and conditions of men.

    Sodte,

[^114]:    Bat who can paint the lover as he stood, Pierc'd by severe amazement, hating life, Speechless, and fix'd in all the death of woe?

[^115]:    Tha more sincors you are, the better it will fare with you at the great day of account. In the mean time give ns leave to be sincsra too in coodemning heartily what we disapprove.

    Waterland.
    Ha never applies to the pasaions or prejudices of hia audience: when they liaten with attention and honest minda, he never fails of carrying his point.
    addison.
    Fear not my truth; the moral of my wit
    is plain and true.
    Shakppeare.

[^116]:    A skilful duncer shps willingly, and makes a seeming stamble that you may think him in great danger.

    Dayden.
    Thessander bold, and Sthenelus their guide, And dire Ulysses dawn the cable stide.

    Dayden.
    And softly let the rumning waters glide.
    Dryden.
    In the moral and figurative application, a person slips who commits unin-

[^117]:    Why had I not, with charitable hand,
    Took up a beggar's isane at my gates?
    Who, ameared thus, and mir'd with infamy,
    I might have said no part of it is mine.

[^118]:    "It is not by the sword, nor by atrength of arm," replied Valeria, "that we are to prevail, These belong not to us. Soft moving wurds must be our weapons."

    Hoose.
    Thongh he used very frankly to deny, yet the manner of it was so genitte and obliging, and his condescension such to inform the persons whom he could not satisfy, that few departed from him with ill will or ill wishes.

    Clarendon.

[^119]:    How meek, how patient, the mild creature lies, What sofiness in its melancholy tace,
    What dumb-complaining inoocence appeara 1

[^120]:    "You are going, my bay," cried 1 ," to London on foot, in the manner Hooker, your great ancestor, travelled there before you: take from me the same horse that was given him by the good Bishop Jewel, this staff."

    Goldsmint.
    He thrust a stick into the crevices of the rock. Bnydone.
    Propp'd on his crutch, he drags with many a groan
    The load of life, yet dreads to lay it down.

[^121]:    Mad as the seas and the winds, when both contend
    Which is the mastar.
    Shafrpeage,

[^122]:    They both seemed to vie with each other in bolding out a brilliant example to the rest of the fleet.

    Claree.

[^123]:    The good-natured man is apt to be moved with compassion for those misfortunes and infirmities whioh another would turn into ridienle.

[^124]:    Louigs began to take a little mischievons pleasnre in teasing.

    Cohbrhland.

[^125]:    Belief and professinn will apeak a Christian but very faintly, when thy conversation pro: claims thee an infidel.

    South.
    The youth hears all the predictions of the aged with obstinate inoredulity.

    Joinsax

[^126]:    How hardly is the restive, unruly will of man frat tamed and broke to duty.

    SodTh.

[^127]:    With the national assembly of France, possession is nothing, law and usuge are nothlng.

[^128]:    Remote conntries candot convey their commodities by land to those places, when on account of their rarity they are desired and become oilluable.

    Robertson.
    It is no improper comparison that a thankful heart is like a box of precious olntment.

    Howele,
    The king gave him all the duke's rich furs, and much of his costly bousehold stuff.

    LLOYD.

[^129]:    So lovely seem'd
    That landscape, and of nure now purer air
    Meets bis approach.

[^130]:    A good inclination is but the first rnde draught of vlrtue ; but the finishing strokes are from the will.

    Soutr.
    The wisking of a thing is not properiy the willing of it; it imports no mora than an idle, moperativa complacency in, and desire of, the objact.

    South.

